READING MATERIAL ON TRAINING TECHNIQUES
For
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READING MATERIAL

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HOW WE LEARN

Learning starts with Sensory Impressions.

We learn when we are ready to learn.

We tie new learning to what we already know.

Our emotions affect our learning.

We need to understand what we learn.

We learn best bv taking one step at a time.

Individual differences in persons affact learning ability.

Factors which influence learning include observation, action, imitation, memory, imagination, reasoning.

INTRODUCTION TO THE PRINCIPLES OF TEACHING AND LEARNING

To impart any type of training effectively and efficiently, it is essential that certain principles be laid and followed. These principles are as follows:-

A TEACHING (OPTRA)

1. OBJECT:- The object of the training to be imparted and the lesson to be taught must be very clear to start with unless it is clear it is not possible to proceed further.

2. PREPARATION:- Once the object is clear it is the effort made to refer to the relevant publications, literature and notes with a view to acquire knowledge of the subject. Subsequently sifting of the matter, preparation of lesson plans and other training aids.

3. TRANSMISSION:- The means, methods and techniques employed to transfer the knowledge to the learner, which was acquired during preparation.

4. RECEPTION:- The means, methods and techniques adapted to ensure that what all has been transmitted has been received by the learner.

5. ASSIMILATION:- The practice and technique followed to revise and to determine that the imparted knowledge is available with the learner.

B LEARNING (MUIRAC)

1. MOTIVATION:- It is the technique employed to bring the learner into the frame of mind to learn.

2. UNDERSTANDING:- The presentation of the subject and the methods adapted should be such that learner understands clearly.

IMPRESSION:- Every effort must be put in to make the strongest possible impression on the learners mind regarding the knowledge being imparted, so that he can recall the same at a later date.

REPETITION/REGURGITATION:- Must be carried out, as it gives more clear and better understanding.

AVAILABILITY:- Such methods, which determine the availability of the knowledge with the trainee must be adapted.

CONTINEOUS AVAILABILITY:- Methods and techniques must be followed to ensure, that knowledge imparted is continuously available with the learner.

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF LEARNING

I. WHY SHOULD YOU STUDY THE PSYCHOLOGY OF LEARNING?

To the training manager the academic psychology of learning appears to be far removed from the practical problem of improving people's performance in the world of business and industry. But even the most hard-headed training manager will agree that the primary objective of all his efforts is to bring about certain desired changes in people's behavior as efficiently as possible. And since the essence of all learning is change in behavior, the scientific knowledge of how learning takes place can provide valuable guidelines to the trainer.

II. WHAT IS LEARNING?

Almost everything that an employee does or thnks is learned. His ability to use a calculating machine, repair an electrical gadget, speak and write in a certain language, and to get along with people around him are all examples of learned skills. Further, he also learns what other people expect of him-his role. Also learned are his prejudices, his values, attitudes, perceptions, personality and many of his motives.

In short, learning is a key process in human behavior. It begins at birth and continues until death.

In general terms learning can be described as a relatively permanent change in behavior that occurs as a result of practice and experience.

Inborn drives and reflexes, and changes in behavior brought about by maturation and fatigue should be separated from learning.

III. TYPES OF LEARNING

1. Pavlov and Classical Conditioning
   Before training
   (a) Bell ----- Head turning,etc
   Training
   (b) Bell and Food (US) ------ Salivation (UR)
   After training
   (c) Bell (CS)------ Salivation (CR)

2. Skinner and Instrumental Conditioning In the Skinner Box there is a bar that can be depressed by a rat. By giving the rat a piece of grain (reward) or an electrical shok (punishment) the rate of pressing the bar can be changed.

3. Kohler and Insight Learning. Nueva, a chimpanzee, was placed in a cage; and a little stick was thrown near her. She picked up the stick and after some time kept it aside. Then after a few minutes a fruit was kept outside the cage. Nueva got annoyed because she could not get the fruit. But after a few minutes she 'suddenly' turned to the stick, picked it up and wiht its help managed to get the fruit.

4. Ebbinghaus and Verbal Learning. The problem of how verbal material is learned and forgotten was attacked by Ebbinghaus.

IV SOME BASIC CONCEPTS

1. Drive

   Drive or motivation is necessary for activity or behavior. Drive is an aroused condition of the organism. Drives are of two types:

   (a) Primary or unlearned.
   Example: Hunger

   (b) Secondary or learned
   Example : Anziety, desire for recongnition, status etc.

Anxiety is common during the induction of new employees. It may be so high as to interfere with learning at this time.

2. Stimulus

A stimulus is the occasion for a response; it may be any objectively described object or event, whether internal or external to the employee. The siren of a factory is a stimulus, to workers. The sound coming from a machine can be a stimulus to the machine. In social interaction a slight furrowing of the eyebrows or a suitable inflection in the voice may be a cue to change the subject of conversation.

3. Response

A response is a behavioral result of stimulation. Responses become connected to stimuli so that, given the occurrence of the stimuli, the response is likely to follow. As with stimuli, responses may be obvious and easy observe or subtle and difficult to perceive. The responses of the industrial trainee may be oral, written, manual, or manipulative. Most of his responses will be overt, but some of the most important ones will be covert, and hence not easily observable.

4. Reinforcer

A reinforcer is any object or event that serves to increase or maintain the strength of a response. A list of objects and events that couldserve as reinforcers would be endless. Some common ones are:money, a friendly pat on the back, a personal compliment, and a desired gift.

The principle of reinforcement works whether or not the trainee is conscious of what is happening. Moreover, learning acquired without the trainee's awareness is typically more lasting and much more difficult to unlearn or change. The learning of basic attitudes and prejudices is the most obvious example.

V. SOME USEFUL PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING

1. The trainee learns what he does. In practice this principle directs the trainer to arrange the conditions of learning in a way that will enable the trainee to make the correct responses early in the learning situation

2. Learning proceeds most effectively when the trainee's correct responses are immediately reinforced.

   The evidence shows that the use of reward for correct responses and non-reward for incorrect responses is more effective than the use of punishment.

3. The frequency with which a response is reinforced will determine how well the response will be learned.

   The evidence shows that in general it is best to use a continuous schedule early in training and then to shift gradually to some form of intermittent schedule in order to maintain the response at a high strength.

4. Practice in a variety of setting will increase the range of situations in which the learning can be applied. Furthermore, such varied practice will make the trainee more resistant to forgetting.

5. Motivational conditions influence the effectiveness of rewards and play a key role in determining the performance of learned behavior.

6. Meaningful learning, that is learning with understanding, is more permanent and more transferable than rote learning or learning by some memorized formula.

7. The trainee's perception of what he is learning determines how well and how quickly he will learn.

   There are many ways to attract the trainee's attention to important stimuli. The problem is usually not one of finding a way; the problem is usually one of recognizing that the important stimuli must be perceived correctly if learning is to proceed.

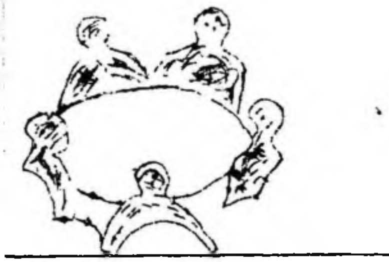
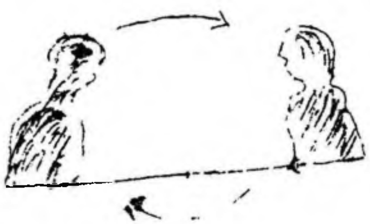
8. Trainees learn more effectively when they learn at their own pace.

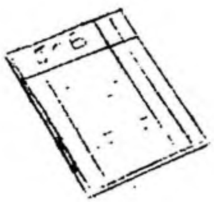
9. There are different kinds of learning and they may require different training processes.

GENERAL METHODS OF NEED DETERMINATION

by

Prof. Shobhana Khandwala

METHOD	ADVANTAGES	LIMITATIONS	DO'S AND DON'T'S
(i) Ground Problem Analysis 	Same as for interview plus: Permits synthesis of different viewpoints Promotes general under - standing and agreement . Builds support for needed training. Is in itself good training	Is time-consuming and initially expensive. Supervisors and executives may feel too busy to participate, want work done for them. Results may be difficult to quantify.	Do not promise or expect quick results. Start with problem known to be of concern to group. Identify all problems of significant concern to group. Let group make own analy- sis, set own priorities.
(ii) Interview 	Reveals feelings, causes and possible solutions of problems as well as facts. Affords maximum opportunity for free expression of opinion, giving of suggestions.	Is time -consuming, so can reach relatively few people. Results may be difficult to quantify. Can make subjectfeel he is "one the spot".	Pretest and revise inter- view questions as needed. Be sure interviewer can and does listen, doesn't judge respon- ses. Do not use to interpret, sell, or educate.
iii) Questionnaire 	Can reach many people in short time. Is relatively inexpensive Gives opportunity of expression without fear or embarrassment. Yields data easily summa- rized and reported	Little provision for free expression of unantici- pated responses. May be difficult to con- struct. Has limited effectiveness in getting at causes of problems and possible solutions.	Pretest and revise que- stions and form as needed. Offer and safeguard annonymity. Use only if prepared to *report findings, both favorable and unfavorable. *do something about them.

METHODS	ADVANTAGES	LIMITATIONS	DO'S AND DONT'S
(iv) Brain Storming 	Highly time-saving useful tool to measure the intensity of problem. Recessive Members encouraged to speak their problems.	Do not show causes, possible solutions.	Safeguard eronymity Do not allow discussion, criticism and judgement.
(v) Job Analysis and Performance Review 	Produces specific and precise information about jobs, performance. Is directly tied to actual jobs and to on-job performance. Breaks job into segments manageable both for training and for appraisal purposes.	Time-consuming. Difficult for people not specifically trained in job analysis techniques. Supervisors often dislike reviewing employees' inadequacies with them personally. Reveals training needs of individuals but not those based on needs of organisation.	Brush up on job-analysis techniques, arrange special training for those who are to do it. Be sure analysis is of current job, and current performance. Review with employee both -- *analysis of job, and *appraisal of performance.
(vi) Tests 	Are useful as diagnostic tools to identify specific areas of deficiencies. Helpful in selecting from among potential trainees those who can most profitably be trained. Results are easy to compare and report.	Tests validated for many specific situations often not available. Tests validated elsewhere may prove invalid in new situations Results give clues, are not conclusive. Tests are second-best evidence in relation to job performance.	Know what test measures. Be sure it is worth measuring here. Apply results only to factors for which test is good. Don't use tests to take blame for difficult or unpopular decisions which management should make.

METHOD	ADVANTAGES	LIMITATIONS	DO'S AND DONT'S
(vii) Records and Reports Study 	Provide excellent clues to trouble spots. Provide best objective evidence of results of problems. Are usually of concern to and easily understood by operating officials.	Do not show causes of problems, or possible solutions. May not provide enough cases (e.g., grievances) to be meaningful. May not reflect current situation, recent changes.	Use as checks and clues, in combination with other methods.

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TEACHING METHODS

The teaching methods used in management education today are multiple. Some are simple, others complex. Some take various forms.

Some are more effective for presenting information than theories; some train in analysis, some in decision-making; some are favored more by certain professors or by certain schools. But all have their place and their usefulness.

Mr.Bohdan Hawryshyn, Director of the Centre d'Etudes Industrielles, have written that teaching methods are all multipurpose but he believes that most are effective over a narrow range of application and suggests that for observing a problem, field studies are best; for selecting pertinent data, the incident method; for diagnosing the problem and formulating solution, the case method; for making decisions, simulation; for communication, role playing and business games; and for motivating group projects.

While there are those who disagree with Mr.Hawrylyshyn, It is generally agreed that the usefulness of training methods cannot be assessed in isolation from the effectiveness of the course as a whole. Teaching methods depend to a large extent on the objectives of the course and the type of knowledge or information to be offered. Cultural considerations need to be taken into account in certain areas of the world. And evaluation techniques for training programs are still in their infancy, even though a course in evaluation is now available at Bath University, England.

LECTURE METHOD

The lecture is the classical method of teaching. It is also the most widely used in all forms of education,including management education. It is also the most widely criticized. It can be most effective, or least effective. It can be wearying; it can be bring. Or it can be exciting; it can be stimulating and provocative. It depends, to a certain extent, on the speaker.

Source: 'TRAINING MANAGERS' The International Guide, by Nancy G.McNulty, pp.13-21.

But the subject matter can also be a factor, particularly in lecturing to mid-career executives and administrators who are knowledgeable and educated in their field.

Many schools report lectures to be more effective in offering information than in presenting understanding; i.e., more suited to the presentation of techniques than theory.

Management education programs that feature guest lecturers suffer two potential drawbacks: first, the quality of the speaker may be poor. This, of course, would be less likely to be true of guest speakers who appear regularly at a course. Second, there may be a lack of integration of such lectures with the overall training program. The faculty of a course draws up a curriculum, it sorts out shares of that curriculum to fellow members, it receives feedback on the whole of the curriculum from students in ever so many ways. As a result, the faculty becomes a geam, and the curriculum their ball game. Guest lecturers can add new and exciting dimensions to information, but they are not a substitute for the team activity so essential and vital to the great teaching institutions of management education around the world.

The descriptions of Faculty have been written to provide as much information as is available on these points, to aid the reader in his evaluation of programs.

GROUP DISCUSSIONS (INCLUDING SEMINARS AND CONFERENCES)

Group discussions are structured instructional meetings They are held for the purposes of increasing general knowledge, of influencing attitudes (although their effectiveness in this is disputed by some experts, and of solving problems. They differ from lectures in that the audience now become active participants with a leader, whose responsibility is to guide the discussion and prevent it from straying from the topic at hand.

The discussion may either follow a lecture, in which case it is called a Lecture-Discussion, or it may to introduced by remarks by the leader, or a series of speakers; or it may be based on working papers distributed in advance. Discussions of the last kind are known as Seminars and Conferences. Seminars are usually more informal in nature then are conferences.

All forms of group discussion require a leader, often designated as moderater or chairman. The leader prepares an agenda in advance so that the discussion will proceed along a desired path leading to a predetermined objective. At the conclusion, he usually provides a summary. The leader also has the responsibility of eliciting participation from all (or as many as posible) members of the group, as well of preventing one or more members dominating the session.

Discussions, as a teaching method, have the advantage of providing constant feed back to the leader, lecturer, or teacher about how much the students or participants have learned. By actual participation, it is belived, members are more likely to retain the knowledge transmitted than they would by lecture. They also receive practice in communication, and are provoked into thinking.

However, to be of value, discussions require three ingredients: an agenda, a skilled leader, and able participants. If any one of those is lacking, a discussion is pat to lapse in to conversation.

Conferences and seminars are fashionable in administrative circles in both public and private sectors. They are widely used in management education have been round particularly effective in attracting senior administrators in the developing countries and thereby introducing them to and involving them in training programs.

CASE METHOD

The case method, or case study method, depends on group discussions and group analysis, as well as individual study and analysis of an unfolding business situation.The emphasis is more on the analysis than on the decisions reached as a result. The method points up the fact that there is more than one possible decision for any situation. There are several types of teaching methods employing case studies.

The "classical" method, developed at the Harvard University Graduate School of Business Administration, involves complex case situations. The problem is to find and identify the problems involved, determine which are the more important ones, and see what can be done. The student first studies the case alone during the afternoon. In the evening, he studies the material in a small group session. The following morning, each of the small groups presents its analysis and decisions to the entire group. The participants are challenged to present and defend their analyses against the total experience of the class. Under the direction of the faculty, these various solutions are discussed and again analyzed. Since there is no "right" answer to a case study, the class discussion does not have to be directed to any one point, but can range over the whole area of possibilities available for decision making.

This action-oriented curriculum is especially effective in developing analytical thinking in a competitive millieu. It helps manager understand the complexity of business and its many functions. The method can be frustrating to students in the beginning, in that there is never any solid substance for a solution; also in that it forces them to realize that their past thinking has been affected by emotion and prejudice. The objective is for the participants to realize that the analysis is more important than the solution and that all participants are in the same boat. After the initial adjustment, the method has proved quite successful.

Because the instructor does not possess an authority role, because the right question is more important than the right answer, this method of teaching has provide quite valuable in developing countries by forcing the participants to shed the "authority-subject" relationship that is so characteristic of the traditional societies. Thus the method has helped to promote changes in traditional attitudes which are of such vital importance to the industrialization of a society.

The Incident Process is a variation of the case method developed by Paul and Faith Pigors at the Messachusetts Institute of Technology. In this, only one simple incident taken from an actual situation in business is given to the participants. Only the instructor knows the other pertinent data about the incident. The participants must ask questions to get the other relevant information at a fact-finding session. Each member then analyzes the problem and writes his own solution. This is followed by a general session where those with similar solutions join together and select a spokesman to debate their viewpoint with the others. Finally, the instructor reports the actual solution reached in business. In some schools, the group as a whole works out the ultimate decision, sometimes by a vote.

This teaching method was developed to train managers to seek the infomation that will permit diagnosis of a problem. Thus the emphasis is more on the search for information than on the analysis, as in the classical case method.

Another variation of this method is to use very short cases, perhaps two or three paragraphs in length, to describe a simple problem in human adjustment. It is often used in lower-level training programs, such as human relations for supervisors and foremen. But it is also used at executive Management training levels.

Recordings and motion pictures have been used to present a case. Since very little background information can be given in these presentations, and the problem is simple rather than complex, they resemble the short version of the case method. This form is bery useful in problems of human relations also.

WORKSHOPS

Workshops are group discussions, but they are not tightly organized instructional meetings, Rather, they are quite unstructured, being conversational in character. Workshops are used for the purpose of exchanging operational experience in a particular area or field of management by specialists in that area or field. They are not used for the presentation of general knowledge, but rather are usually concerned with the application of techniques and procedures.

Usually the leader of a workshop session has an agenda or plan, but the discussion necessarily follow the information that the participants offer.

SENSITIVITY OR T-GROUP TRAINING

Sensitivity training, as the name implies, seeks to make men more sensitive to others and to make them aware of how. consciously or unconsciously, they themselves in turn affect others.

It provides a laboratory setting in human relations where individuals can study and increase their understanding of the forces which influence the behavior of individuals and of groups and organizations. Skills and insights into methods of collaboration and motivation between individuals and groups are also explored. In shall group-dynamic settings, individuals are encouraged to examine together their experiences with each other in enough details so that generalizations can be drawn and conceptualized.

The purpose of sensitivity training, then, is to help men achieve a greater awareness of how human beings relate to one another. It accomplishes this by bringing to the surface, for conscious examination, the normally unquestioned assumptions about human relations.

Each participant in sensitivity training is responsible for his own learning.

A typical session is conducted by a skilled leader and a small group of participants. In certain cases, some structuring of the program is done. In T-Groups, the sessions are completely unstructured except to the extent that the leader helps participants to focus on the way the group is working, the style of an individual's participation, and the issues that the group faces.

Sensitivity training can be offered by itself in either block sessions or in part-time sessions over a period of time. It can also be part of a larger laboratory training program which includes other participatory methods, such as role playing, business games, or case studies. It is often part of an advanced or general mangement program.

Although it has been used in the United States for some years, it is new to many countries of the world Because personal values and concepts are so deeply rooted in the society and culture which fosters them, this teaching method has not with difficulty at times when the participants have not had a common culture and language.

The use of sensitivity training in management education is based on the theory that an executive will be more efficient and more effective in motivating and leading others, in working with and through others, by an increased sensitivity to human or interpersonal relations.

Sensitivity training is also known as "human relations laboratories," "group dynamics laboratories," and "management traing laboratories."

The Managerial Grid is a form of sensitivity training that employs a grid theory for examining managerial styles. The objective is to expand the professional development of the executive and the organizational development of his enterprise.

The participants learn alternative strategies of management relation to planning, executive, supervision, and follow-up through lectures, precise experiments, and group studies. The effects of conflict, creativity, commitment, and communication are emphasized . Throughout the programme participants indentify alternative managerial styles with reference to a theoretical model, which is known as "the grid" and for which the method is named.

It is suggested that at least two, and preferably three, members from the same level of an organization attend the program at the same time.

SIMULATION

Simulation is a teaching method that has been used for years in many other fields of education--law, medicine, airplane piloting, and even war. It is a newcomer to management education.

Simulation signifies building a model--either theoretical or mathematical--an using it to test theories or the results of decisions.

Simulation is one of the most versatile tools of operations research. Using mathematical models, and a computer when available, the operations of an enterprise can be plotted to show the results of any given decision.

The Special Exercises developed by Bernard M.Bass of the University of Rochester Rochester, New York, U.S.A., are another form of simulation of a variety of organizational issues requiring managers to respond as they might in real life. Through the use of self-study exercises administered in small groups, the participants focus on problems of modern organizations, the organizational goals and constraints on achieving them.

After individual study, each small group meets and must arrive at a consensus decision. Then the members of each group look back at their experience thus far and do a process analysis of the problem solving behavior both as individuals and as a group. Thereafter, there is a "community" assembly of all study groups at which the group decisions are discussed and experiences shared with the faculty.

Another form of simulation training focused on decision making, using a complex set of exercises, is offered by Kepner-Tregoe. Participants are assigned roles in real-life situations and given only the information that they might ordinarily have. They must then discover for themselves what the real problems are, how to analyze and solve them. Each exercise is followed by a critique session in which the management process of each participant is analyzed. The program seeks to develop a systematic approach and focuses on problem analysis, situation analysis, and decision analysis.

BUSINESS GAMES

Business games employ simulation to teach the use of analytical tools. The National Industrial Conference Borad in the United States has described them as case studies in motion, in that they require an intensive search for the factors underlying the surface situation, an analysis of those factors, the making and implementing of decisions, and further analysis and decisions as the results of the first are made known.

In a business game, theparticipants are split into competing groups, each of which sets an imaginary company. Sometimes the organizational structure is known and the men are assigned to certain roles; other times they assign themselves. In still other games, the organizational structure is part of the game and can even be the most important decision to be made by the group.

When the dramatis personae has been decided within each group, the actors then act out their roles;* i.e., to gain the largest share of a market or to determine whether to

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* This differs from role playing, the teaching method, in that role playing is designed to develop human relations skills, whereas in business games both rational and emotional behavior is involved.

invest in plant expansion. They must do this within the economic laws and boundaries prescribed and in competition with other groups seeking the same objective in the same market.

As each group acts out its imaginary situationl it makes decisions based on information fed to it as the action develops. This requires constant analysis and evaluation of the situation and the marketing or decisions based thereon.

When each group has completed its game, the results are compared, usually on a methematical basis, although occasionally by a panel of judges, and one group is seen to have done better than the others.

After the game is finished, there is an evaluation session when the game is rerun with all the information available to all players, as well as their actions, competitors' etc. This critique of their decisions is considered by many to be a most valuable part of the game for participants.

Some games are more structured than others, inversely proportional to the level of management involved; i.e., the higher the executive level, the less structuring. Some games cover only one functional area of an enterprise, others the entire corporate scene. Some are complex, some more simple. Some use computers.

Business games, as noted, were designed to teach the use of analytical tools. However, a business game must be of sufficient duration that the actors can see the actual results (even if simulated) of the decisions they make-usually four or five years of the working-model company's life.

The games also point up the value of long-range planning and of the "corporate team". Interpersonal relations, which can become volatile during a game, can also be included in the critique session, thus adding qualitative as well as quantitative factors.

There are many forms of business games; one of the better known is called <u>In- Basket.</u> This is an individual form of game, and not interactive, as are the competing teams on each other.

Business games are expensive to create and require time and skill. Despite their title--"business games," or "management games"--they are a serious and sucessful method of teaching management.

ROLE PLAYING

Role playing, as the name implies, requires the participants to act out or play the roles in a given situation in business. Its prime benefit is the development of human relations skills by interactions between people. It also offers insights into the emotions and thinking of others is various positions and situations. By practicing the behavior of others, not only the actors but also the members of the audience become emotionally involved, and the analyses and evaluations which follow can be as informative as the actual role playing.

In this teaching method, the situation that is to enacted is structured in detail including the position, feelings, thinking, and beliefs of each character. The purpose for which the scene is to be played must be clearly stated at the beginning: it may be designed to demonstrate the use of a technique or it may be played to dramatize a character or a situation. When the scene has been set, the characters act out their assigned roles, making up their lines as the play proceeds.

The involvement of the audience sometimes is enlisted, also, by assigning them tasks such as being understudy for a role or studying one character's interpretation in particular for significant or taletelling remarks. In some cases, the audiences is allowed to interrupt a scene or to prompt∠ characters in the scene and by the audience, is called "role reversal". Other forms of inciting role reversal include a switching of roles, different sets of actors playing the same scene, or playing the same scene for different purposes.

After the dramatization, there is a session for analyzing, evaluating, and suggesting improvements in the skills of the actors in interpersonal relations. This is done under the guidance of an instructor.

∠ characters. This emotional involvement, both by the

Sometimes role playing is comparatively unstructured and is used for practice in human relations, in which case the follow-up analysis minimal.

FEEDBACK

Feedback is the return, partial or complete, or a process to its source. In Management education, this involves the results of an action-whether in business simulation or in other learning processes--being relayed back to the participant for is evaluation and further learning.

SYNDICATE METHOD

The syndicate method is a combination of lectures and group projects.The group projects are assigned to small groups of participants, called syndicates, on subjects that follow from and are supported by the lectures.Each syndicate selects a chairman and a secretary (or they may be appointed). The chairman conducts the discussions and leads his syndicate in its work and in the preparation of a report on its assigend task, topic, or case study. The secretary prepared the report. All members of the syndicate participat in the work and aid in the preparation ofthe report. The report is then presented to the entire class, all syndicates and all members being present, as well as the faculty, and it is discussed in an open forum.

At the Administrative Staff College at Henley-on-Thames, England, where the technique was developed originally, the composition of the syndicates is changed from time to time to provide stimulus and the opportunity to work with different persons; also to bring together or rotate those with specialist knowledge or experience. Chairmanships and secretaryships are rotated so that all members have the responsibility of leadership.

There are many variations of this method of teaching and many titles are used for syndicate leaders.

The advantages of the syndicate method that have been cited are: (1) it promotes better comprehension of the substance of the lectures; (2) it help develop cooperative thinking and cooperative working; (3) it duplicates the real-life situation of a management team; (4) it provides each participant with a perspective on himself and his job; (5) it porvides understanding and appreciation of the value of specialists in areas therefore unknown; (6) It develops ability for self-expression; (7) it develops an over-all point of view; (8) it provides practice in handling new techniques and procedures; (9) it develops better understanding of people; and (10) it increases ability for decision-making

There are two requirements for success in the use of this teaching method; the task assigned must be relevant and the members of a syndicate must have sufficient experience to handle the task.

The syndicate method of teaching is employed under differeing names in different parts of the world, for various reasons, one of which is that the term has an unpleasant connotation in certain areas.

BECAUSE WISDOM CAN'T BE TOLD
(CASE STUDY)
BY

Charles I. Gragg

> So he had grown rich at last, and thought to transmit to his only son all the cut-and dried experience which he himself had purchased at the price of his lost illusions; a noble last illusion of age....BALZAC

It can be said flatly that the mere act of listening to wise statements and sound advice does little for anyone. In the process of learning, the learner's dynamic cooperation is required. Such cooperation from students does not arise automatically, however. It has to be provided for and continually encouraged.

Thus, the key to an understanding of the Business School case plan of eaching is to be found in the fact that this plan dignified and dramatizes student life by opening the way for students to make positive contributions to thought and, by so doing, to prepare themselves for action. Indeed, independent, constructive thinking on the part of students is essential to the sound operation of the plan. This result is achieved in two ways.

In the first place, students are previded with materials which make it possible for them to think purposefully. For the benefit of those unfamiliar with Business School cases, it is perely necessary to explain that, as now used, a case typically is a record of a business issue which actually has been faced by business executives, together with surrounding facts, opinions, and prejudices, upon which executive decisions had to depend. These real and parcularized cased are presented to students for considered analysis, open discussion, and final decision as to the type of action which should be taken. Day by day the number of individual business situations thus brought before the students grows and forms a backlog for observing coherent patterns and drawing out general principles. In other words, students are not given general theories or hypotheses to criticize. Rather, they are given specific facts the raw materials, out of which decisions have to be reached in life and from which they can realistically and usefully draw conclusions, This opportunity for students to make significant contributions is enhanced by the very nature of business management. Business management is not a technical but a human matter. It turns upon an understanding of how people-producers, bankers, investors, sellers, consumers - will respond to specific business actions, and the behaviour of such groups always is changing, rapidly or slowly. Students, consequently, being people, and also being in the vary stream of sociological trends, are in a particularly good position to anticipate and interpret popular reactions.

In the second place, the desired result of student participation is achieved by the opening of free channels of communication between students and students, and between students and teachers. The confidence the student can be given under the case system that he can, and is expected to, make contributions to the understanding of the group is a powerful encouragememt to effort.

The corollary fact that all members of the group are in the same situation provides the student with excercise in reciving as well as in giving out ideas. In short, true intercommunication is established.

In these facts lie the answer to the unique values of the case system, and from these facts also arise certain difficulties encountered in its use. It is not easy for students to accept the challenge of responsible activity in the face of realistic situations. Nor is it always easy for teachers to preserve the neaded openmindedness toward their students' contribution. Nevertheless, the very existence of the assumption, implieit in the case system, that students are in a position to and will exert themselves to think with a lively independence toward a useful end in itself provides a real stimulus. By the same token, the stage is so set as to simplify the teacher's task of encouraging students to participate actively in the process of learning. The students are given the raw materials and are expected to use them. The teacher, for his part, has every opportunity and reason to demonstrate an encouraging receptivity as well as to inform and guide.

Thinking out original answers to new problems or giving new interpretations to old problems is assumed in much undergraduate instruction to be an adult function and, as cuch, one properly denied to students. The task of the studen commonly is taken to be one chiefly of familiarizing himself with accepted thoughts and accepted techniques, these to be actively used at some later time. The instruction period, in other words often is regarded both by students and by teachers as a time for absorption.

Thus many students entering graduate schools have become habituated to the role of the receiver. The time inevitably arrives, however, when young people must engage in practical action on their own responsibility. Students at professional school have a little time, at the (Harvard) Graduate School of Business (Administration) two years, to achieve the transition from what may be described as a childlike dependence on parents and teachers to a state of what may be called dependable self-reliance.

If the hearts of the young men entering a graduate school of business administration could be clearly read, it is likely there would be found in many a cherished hope that upon graduation they would find positions of authority and power awaiting them. This is a carefully guarded hope, because for some reason there is a general feeling that it is unseemly one for young men to harbor. Yet, although the students who possess this hope may be said to be unrealistic under conditions as they exist, they cannot be said to be other than logical. For if a young man more or less perma nently is to occupy a humble position in the business hierarchy, he can make better use of two years of his time than spending it at a school of business administration. The apprentice system is open to the young man who wishes to enter business in a fuller way than it is to the young man who seeks to work in the field of law or of medicine, for example. Except in a few instances, such as the plumbing and electrical trades, there are no restrictions similar to those imposed by bar or medical examinations as to who can start in business. And, if a young man who is to spend his life as a salesman, floorwalker, clerk, or minor official has several years to d-evote to acquiring background, he is likely to find that study of sonnets, or operas, or fishing, or philosophy will be more sustaining to his soul than a broad knowledge of business operations.

The work of a graduate school of business consequertly must be aimed at fitting students for administrative positions of importance. The qualities needed by businessmen in such positions are ability to see vividly the potential meanings and relationships of facts, both those facts having to do with persons and those having to do with things, capacity, to make sound judgements on the basis of these perceptions, and skill in communicating their judgements to others so as to produce the desired results in the field of action. Business education, then, must be directed to developing in students these qualities of understanding, judgement, and communication loading to action.

Furthermore, since young men who contemplate entering a graduate business school customarily have an alternative opportunity to enter business immediately, the business school must be able to do more for its students than could be accomplished in a corresponding period of actual business experience. Formal professional education necessarily postpones the time of responsible action. Yet a principal object of professional education is to accelerate the student's ability to act in mature fashion under conditions of responsibility. A young man who completes a professional course is expected to demonstrate a more mature judgement, or to demonstrate mature judgement at an earlier period, than the young man who enters upon a career of action without benefit of formal training. The presumption in this situation obviously must be that it is possible to arrange programs of training in such a way as to do more than effset the effect of prolonging the student's period of ostensible immaturity.

It would be easy to accept the unanalvzed assumption that by passing on, by lectures and readings, to young men of intelligence the accumulated experience and wisdom of those who have made business their study, the desired results could be achieved. Surely, if more or less carefully selected young men were to begin their business careers with the advantage of having been provided with information and general principles which it has taken others a lifetime to acquire and develop, they might be expected to have a decided head start over their less informed contemporaries.

This assumption, however, rests on another, decidedly questionable one; namely, the assumption that it is possible by a simple process of telling to pass on knowledge in a useful form. This is the great delusion of the ages. If the earning process is to be effective, something dynamic must take place in the learner. The truth of this statement becomes more and more apparent as the learner approaches the inevitable time when he must go into action.

We are all familiar with the popular belief that it is possible to learn how to act wisely only by experience in the school of hard knocks. But everyone knows that, from a practical point of view, strict adherence to the literal meaning of this belief would have a decidedly limiting effect upon the extent of our learning. Time is all against it. So to all try to tell others what we know or what we think we know. A great part of our educational system, perhaps necessarily, rests on this basis. It is the simple, obvious way of passing the torch of culture from hand to hand.

Entirely aside from the seemingly sound logic of this course, there exists a natural and strong tendency for people to tell others what is what-how to think, or feel, or act.

Often this tendency seems, to the one having it, like an urge to duty. A friend of ours, for example, may remark that he is worried because he doesn't seem to be getting anywhere with the president of the company. "He doesn't seem to know I'm around "our friend explains, Ah ha, we know the answer to that one and will tell our friend how to solve his problem. " Look here, old boy, the trouble with you is you are too shy. Just speak up loudly and firmly. Tell him what's what. The old buzzard won't ignore you then!"

It is possible that our desire to pass on our knowledge springs in part from the fact that such activity places us, for the time being, in the superior position. From our earling beginnings there have been people around to tell us what to pass on to us their experience and wisdom. There is no little gratification in turning the tables. For a while we will be the parents and someone elso can be the child. It is only necessary to listen to a six-year-old leacturing a three-year old to see vividly the strength of this urge.

Teachers, since it is their avowed objective to extend the knowledge boundaries of others, are particularly beset by the temptation to tell what they know- to point out right paths of thought and action. The areas in which their help is called for are ones they have penetrated many times. They have reflected, presumably, upon their subjects from all angles. They feel that they know the answers and with unselfish abanden, they are willing to tell all. Their students thus will be saved all the time and effort it would have taken them to work things out for themselves, even granted they ever could work out such excellent answers.

Yet no amount of information, whether of theory or fact, in itself improves insight and judgement or increases ability to act wisely under conditions of responsibility. The same statistical tables covering all aspects of a business may be available to every officer of the organization. Nevertheless, it does not follow that it makes no difference to the business which officer makes the decisions. Likewise, the whole body of generally accepted business theory may be equally familiar to all executives, yet the decisions reached by the various individuals are unlikely to be the same or to have equal merit.

We cannot effectively use the insight and knowledge of others; it must be our own knowledge and insight that we use. If our friend, acting solely on our advice, undertakes to tell the President what is what, the chances are he will make himself conspicuous but not impressive. For him to use our words effectively, granted our diagnosis of the situation is sound, they must become his own through a process of active thought and feeling on his part. Then, if he agrees with us, he will be able to act as we suggest, not on our advice, but from his own heart. The outstanding virtue of the case system is that it is suited to inspiring activity, under realistic conditions, on the part of the students; it takes the out of the role of passive absorbers and makes them partners in the joint processes of learning and of furthering learning.

The case plan of instruction may be described as democratic in distinction to the telling method, which is in effect dictatorial or patriarchal. With the case method, all members of the academic group, teacher and students, are in possession of the same basic materials in the light of which annalyses are to be made and decisions arrived at. Each therefore, has an identical opportunity to make a contribution to the body of principles governing business practice and policy.

Business is not, at least not not, an exact science. There is no single, demonstrably right answer to a business problem. For the student or businessman it cannot be a matter of peeking in the back of a book to see if he has arrived at the right solution. In every business situaation, there is always a reasonable possibility that the best answer has net yet been found-even by teachers.

Exercise of mature judgement obviously is inconsistent with a program of blindly carrying out someone else's instructions. Moreover, no matter how worthy those instructions may be, they cannot cover every exigency. Tommy's mother says; "On your way home from school never cross the street until the policeman tells you to and, when he does tell you to, run". Perhaps one day no policeman is there. Is Tommy to wait forever? or, perhaps a driver fails to observe the policeman's signals. Is Tommy to dash under the speeding wheels?

So far as responsible activity in the business world is concerned, it is clear that a fund of ready-made answers can be of little avail. Each situation is a now situation, requiring imaginative understanding as a prelude to sound judgement and action. The following sad limerick, aimed at describing what might happen to business students without benefit of cases, has been contributed by a friend who prefers to remain anonymous.

A student of business with tact
Absorbed many answers he lacked.
But acquiring a job,
He said with a sob,
"How does one fit answer to fact?"

A significant aspect of democracy in the classroom is that it provides a new axis for personal relationships. No longer is the situation that of the teacher on the one hand and a body of students on the other. The students find their attention transferred from the teacher to each other. It is not a question of dealing more or less on masse with an elder; it is a question of dealing with a rather large number of equals and contemporaries whose criticisms must be faced and whose contributions need to be comprehended and used. Everyone is on a par and everyone is in competition. The basis is provided for strong give and take both inside and outside the classroom. The valuable art of exchanging idea is cultivated, with the object of building up some mutually satisfactory and superior notion. Such an exchange stimulates thought, provides a lesson in how to learn from others, and also gives experience in effective transmission of one's ideas.

Under the case system, the instructor's role is to assign the cases for discussion, to act as a responsible member of the group delegated to provoke argumentative thinking, to guide discussion by his own contributions and questions toward poknts of major improtance, and, if he chooses, to take a final position on the viewpoints, which have been threshed out before him. The more power-full are the student arguments, the heavier is the burden on the instructor; he must understand and evaluate each contribution, many of which are new to him, regardless of how thoroughly he has studied the cases or how many times he has used them with previous classes. To the instructor, every class meeting is a new problem and a new opportunity both to learn and to help others to learn.

The important question under these circumstances is not whether the student pleases the instructor, but whether he can either support his views against the counterattacks and disagreements of others in the group or, failing to do so, can accept cooperatively the merits of his antagonists' reason ing.

For both teachers and student, the disciplines of the case method of learning are severe. Sometimes the shock is devastating to young men who previously have been dominated by patriarchal instructors and thus have been faced merely with the relatively simple task of more or less passive reception and verbatim repetition of facts and ideas. Not all students can bear the strain of thinking actively, of making independent judgements which may be challenged vigorously by their contemporaries. Many people will always prefer to have answers handed to them. Teachers, for their part, particularly those unused to the system, sometimes find it straining to leave the safe haven of dosmatism and meet their students on a democratic plane. The inherently dramatic and challenging character of the case system, however, although it may produce anxiety and confusion for the awcomer, also arouses his deep interest and leads him to make the effort required for adjustment.

In making the adjustment to the democratic disciplines of the case system, students typically pass through at least three objectively discernble phases. The first phase is that of discovering the inability of the individual to think of everything that his fellow students can think of. In many instances, to be sure, the challenge to original thought is pleasing from the first. Yet perhaps more often confusion and a feeling of helpessness set in: "But it's so discouraging to prepare a case as well as I can and then listen for an hour in class to other students bringing out all sorts of interpretations and arguments that I had never thought of".

The second phase is that of accepting easily and naturally the need for cooperative help. During the last half of the first year and the first half of the second year, students learn to draw more and more fully upon each other's ideas in the working out of problems. Competition for high academic standing grows more keen, to be sure, but the mutual giving and taking of assistance ceases to be a matter of secret anguish. The young men are making common cause and thereby learning the pleasure of group pooling of intellectual off orts.

The third and final phase in the march toward maturity usually comes well on in the second year with the recognition that the instructors do not always or necessarily know the "best" answers and, even when they do seem to know them, that each student, is free to present and hold to his own views. When this phase is reached, the student is ready to make independent progress and to break new ground on his own account. He is operating as a responsible member of the community, taking help, to be sure, from both contem oraries and elders, but making his own decisions without fear of disapproval or search for an authoritative crutch to lean upon. An outstanding effect of the case system, in other words is to put upon students the burden of independent thinking.

No method is foolproof. A badly handed case system cannot but be an academic horror. Impr rrly handled, a case is merely an elaborate means for confucing and boring students.

If, moreover, the teacher insists on being a patriarch-if he is sure he has the right and only answers and visualizes his task as one of forcing the students, the case facts, and his answers into an affectionate report-it will be found that the out-and-out lecture system is infinitely less costly and less straining to everyone concerned. Such authoritarian use of cases perverts the unique characteristics of system. The opportunity which this system provides the students of reaching responsible judgements on basis of an orginal analysis of the facts is sacrificed.

In addition to the possibility that the case system will be misused, and so become merely a wasteful way of telling the students what the teacher thinks, it must be recognised that the case does not provide a perfect replica of a business cases, the students are put in the position of the executives who must arrive at definite conclusions to be followed by specific actions whose merits will be tested by resulting developments. Yet there is no escaping the fact that the students' decisions are not tested in this way. As Winston Churchill is reported to have remarked on one occasion, there is a great deal of difference between being responsible for an order which may lose several valuable ships and expressing an order which may lose several valuable ships and expressing an opinion without such responsibility. It is too much to expect that anything except experience can be exactly like experience.

Nevertheless, a training period which allows students this relative irresponsibility has great advantages. The serious student gets the essential background for responsible decisions without the risks to himself and to his firm which are inseparable from amaturish action. He is led to active consideration of a tremendous number of diverse and related real situations, which it would take him at least a lifetime of experience to encounter, and he is thus given a basis for comparison and analysis when he enters upon his career of business action.

The case system, properly used, initiates students into the ways of independent thought and responsible judgement. It confronts them with situations which are not hypothetical but real. It places them in the active role, open to criticism from all sides. It puts the burden of understanding and judgement upon them. It provides them the occasion to deal constructively with their contemporaries and their elders. And, at least in the area of business, it gives them the stimulating opportunity to make contributions to learning. In short the student, if he wishes, can act as an adult member of a democratic community.

As for the teacher, the case method of instruction provides him richly with the basic means of research. Not only does the existence of a stream of recorded business experiences enable him to keep in tough with business life and to make continuous necessary modifications in his inductions and general conclusions. In addition, the relations which the case system sets up between himself and his students give the teacher the continual benefit of fresh, imaginative points of view which always hold the possibility of true advance.

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25/5/74

ROLE PLAY AS A TRAINING TECHNIQUE

The technique is being recognised and accepted as a training method in Inter-personal relationships.

The advantages of Role Plays are as follows :

1. It requires the person to carry out a throught or decision he may have reached or advocated for others and thus often demonstrates the gap between thinking and doing.

2. It allows practice of carrying out an action and makes clear that good human relations requires skills just like playing badmintion requires skills.

3. Attitude changes are often accomplished by placing the person in the role of opposite person.

4. It trains a person to be aware of and sensitive to the feelings of others.

5. The players get the feed-back of the effects of their behaviour on other people, and thus become sensitive to themselves.

6. It gives training in the controls of feelings and emotions. Eg., Person can be given practice in not becoming irritated by complaints by putting him repsatedly in the place of a Supervisor, receiving complaints.

In case studies the discussion remains at the intellectual level. This deficiency can be corrected in the Role play and skills required can be practised upon.

Types of Role Play Procedure :

1. Multiple Role Play :

In this procedure the entire audience is formed in groups and groups Role-Play simultaneously.

Advantages :

1. It maximises practice opportunity.
2. It provides data for each of the groups so that the comparison of results can be made.
3. It gets all members involved in the problem and shyness or self-consciousness is quickly dispelled.

2. Single Role Play :

Here All persons abserve a single performance.

Advantages :

1. Since there are a number of observers, different aspects can be observed by different observers giving a fuller picture of the effects of role-players make on others.
2. Role players can profit by the analytical discussion of the observations as given by the observers. This is very useful as people, when they are involved are not aware of the effects they produce on others.
3. Observers can develop sensitivity to the feelings of others.

Variations in the Role-Play :

In single or multiple role-play you can resort to :

1. Role-reversals -so that the individual placed in the other role understands the problem from the different angle.

2. Doubling- can be allowed individual, or in group especially when the role play is turning insipid or different viewpoints are needed.

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21.5.74

DISCUSSION LEADING

COMMON REACTIONS OF INCIDENTS OF A MEETING

Have you encountered any of the following ?

1. Purpose of meeting not clearly defined.
2. At the end of the meeting you still do not know who all the members are.
3. Someone is sent for the middle to take notes.
4. No real conclusions are reached.
5. **Delay** in agreeing minutes when circulated.
6. You feel that your time has been wasted.
7. Someone has to go out in the middle for more information.
8. Members are not familiar with the subject due to lack of advance notice.
9. Excessive discussion on unimportant details.
10. The point could have been decided **without** calling a meeting.
11. Decisions are reversed after the meeting.
12. No one in control of the meeting.
13. Wandering from the point.
14. Meeting drags on.
15. Oppressive chairmanship- too tight control of meeting.
16. Holding back by members lacking in confidence.
17. Meeting monopolised by one member.
18. Execessive elaboration by chairman.
19. Discussion continues on point after it has been agreed.
20. Members present who are not really concerned.
21. Emotioned participation-personal attacks.
22. Feelings come out? not ~~[illegible]~~ facts
23. Lack of attendence.

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CONFERENCE LEADERSHIP

The ability to act as an effective chairman or a productive committee member is becoming increasingly important in recent days. The same basic rules of conference leadership apply when the managing director sits with the board of directors as when the supervisor calls his men together to discuss a production problem.

Good meetings don't "just happen". They require skillful leadership on the part of the chairman and sincere co-operation on the part of the members. When the members are unable to integrate their individual needs and roles, meetings tend to degenerate into futile wrangles. A feeling of solidarity and common purpose is required before members will evaluate ideas on their merits rather than in terms of self-interest.

The chairman plays a variety of roles, depending on the purpose of the meeting. The more effective chairman minimises "content" roles. If he is a strict chairman he will assume strong "process" roles; if he is a loose chairman he will not.

The chairman faces a constant dilemma in deciding how tight a vein to keep on the discussion. Too tight control may frustrate the natural development of ideas, force people to conclusions before they are ready, and generate resentment. Too loose control may result in a feeling of aimlessness and confusion.

The chairman must constantly keep in mind that the goals of meetings (viz., high quality decisions, general acceptance, and economy in time) often conflict with each other. He must encourage participation and yet at the same time keep the discussion both relevant and moving toward a conclusion.

If a meeting is to achieve its objective, there must be a carefully devised agenda to insure an orderly, efficient procedure for discussion and decision-making.

An effective agenda takes advantage of the natural stages through which a meeting passes, and is flexible enough,

1) to meet the needs of the particular problem, group, and time limit; and

2) to be modified during the course of the meeting as the need arises.

An agenda that has been accepted by the members serves many purposes.

--it insures that every point of view has been considered;

--it allows for maximum participation;

--it enables the meeting to make its decision within the time allowed.

(From chapter 11 in " Personnel" by Strauss & Sayles)

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DISCUSSION LEADING

PREPARATION FOR A MEETINGS

DETERMINE OBJECTIVE

Support

Solution

Agreement

Viewpoints

Communication

PLAN THE DISCUSSION

Specify the limits.

Prepare your introduction-hand-outs and aids.

Set out points for discussion with appropriate leads.

Possible Reactions of Members: Objections/ Conflicts.

EXPLORE THE SUBJECT

Assemble facts and information.

Determine points that need discussion.

GET EVERYTHING READY

Invitations.

Accommodation

Brief participants
Arrange for minutes.

IN THE CHAIR

Arrive ahead time-Clear desk

1. START THE MEETING

Start on time-put at case.

Ensure no one handicapped.
Present prepared introduction
Explain objective and define limits.

2. LEAD THE DISCUSSION

Keep active control of the meeting.

Sum up as you go

Clear points of agreement and
Disagreement.

Note them.

3. CLOSE THE MEETING

Allow time to sum up.

State conclusions clearly and
concisely.

Ensure that all understand-
Acknowledge dissentients.
Define where action lies.

4. FOLLOW UP

Ensure agreed action taken
Make notes or minutes as required
-check circulation.

Arrange any further meeting
necessary.

Report back to interested parties.

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CONFERENCE LEADERSHIP

Content Roles

"Initiator"- makes suggestions.

"Information-seeker" - asks questions
"Blocker"- objects to other people's suggestions for action
"Expert" - knows the facts
"Destructive Critic"- tears other people's ideas apart

Process Roles

"Summariser"- Summaries where the group stands

"Task-setter"- tries to get the group to move on, emphasises what still has to be done.

"Decision-announcer"- announces decisions after the group has reached agreement

"Traffic Cop" - decides who talks when

"Encourager"- encourages others to contribute

"Mediator"- tries to narrow differences

"Playbody"- kids around (and sometimes reduce excess tension)

"Follower"

"Listener"

"Day-dreamer"

(Adapted from pp. 242-43 in "Personnel" by Strauss &Sayles)

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WHAT ARE IN BASKET EXERCISES

There is now wide recognition of the need to inject as much realism as possible into management training and to arrange courses so that participants do "participate" and not just listen.

One of the chief reasons for this emphasis is the nature of management training itself. Certain types and stage of this training still require students to learn facts-for example, about the methods of work study and measurement or about methods of marketing or evaluation of applicants for positions; but a great deal of the training is concerned with another type of learning.

When we come to developing skills in such fields as planning, organisation or decision making, it is not enough for students to know what they ought to do-they must learn to use these new skills. This can be done only be exercising the skills in realistic situations, then looking closely and critically at how well the skills have been used, thus learning to do better next time and gaining confidence in using the new skills.

To illustrate-there are many drama critics who know precisely what makes a play good-they know about plot stfuctures, staging requirements and they recognise both a good play and a good actor. But they can neither write plays nor act. This is not necessarily because they could not develop those skills. It just means that they <u>have not</u> done so, despite all the important theoretical knowledge they have acquired.

The gap between theory and practice can only be bridged by trying out the skills-writing the plays, to maintain the example. The drama critic's first plays are likely to be heavy with theory and lacking in creative fire, but given continuous trying out of the talent and honing it to effective competence, the critic probably can write good plays. It is the actual trying out, the practice and the repeated practice that will get rid of the clumsiness and allow the full talent to emerge.

A manager's skills's are very different ones, but they can't be learnt from books no matter how much theory a man absorbs. He will develop skills in the difficult and imprecise areas of management by practice, by doing.

Source: IN-BASKET EXERCISES for Management Development
Management Development Branch, Human Research Dept. ILO, Geneva
1968

That word 'imprecise' needs emphasis. When we are dealing with some material substance or scientific formula, we can be precise. The reactions of these fixed factors will always be the same, or very close to the same, when conditions are repeated without alteration. Mild steel will always become malleable within a certain range of temperatures; two molecules of hydrogen added to one of oxygen will always result in the formulation of water at normal pressures.

Managers sometimes have to deal with such reliable factors and their reactions can then be largely forecast. But the human material which is a manager's vital concern also, is another matter entirely. Customers do not always react in the same way (some like pink soap, others like green). Competitors jump in unexpected ways. Staff reactions cannot always be foressen. One departmental manager will bridle easily in the face of any criticism, another will welcome the challenge to his capacity. Even the same man at different times will react differently to the same, or apparently the same, basic stimuli.

All of this adds uncertainty to a manager's life. When he has to deal with <u>all</u> of these uncertainties simultaneously, and that is what he has to do most of the time, it is no exaggeration to talk about the 'imprecise areas of management'. In any given situation, there will always be a number of possible decisions for a manager to take. None of them are necessarily wholly wrong; perhaps none of them will give an ideal solution; certainly most of them will call for some sort of compromise to cope with the various factors.

For example, a general manager receives from his marketing manager a proposal for a new product at a certain price; the producation manager, having investigated the proposal, says the product cannot be produced profitably for the proposed price; the supply manager says he can buy the product abroad and bring it on to the local market at a <u>lower</u> price; the personnel manager considers that importing the product might create resentment among the factory staff. So the general manager makes his decision on the policy to be followed and the action to be taken. Of course, he may stall for a while, but unless he eventually comes down in favour of some policy or another, he is in fact giving a negative decision by default. He is refusing to exercise one of the main requirements of his job, to make decisions and provide leadership.

There are some elements of certainty, or perhaps alleged certainty in his frame of decision. This is what the public will pay .. this is what it will cost to make... this is what it will cost to import; we can assume-though it is going too far--that these are all reasonably certain. What action will the employees take if they feel their jobs menaced by imports; No-one can know, yet this might be the most important factor in the whole decision for the total welfare of the organisation.

Faced then with some facts, some assessments and some unknowns, the manager must take his decision and, although he may have the help and guidance of his associates and subordinates, he takes the responsibility and makes the final judgements. Do what he will to eliminate the uncertainties, the manager will never be able to reduce his decisions to mathermatics and complete precision.

Yet, in this area of some murk and uncertainty, millions of good decisions are made, every week by managers around the world. In this context, 'good'decisions' are those that work, that keep the wheels of an organisation turning efficiently and profitably. How do managers come to make these 'good' decisions so often in the face of the uncertainties within which they must be made?

The answer lies not in learning it all from books or lectures. It lies in practice. Certainly theory must be learned, but then the theory must be tried out, judgements must be made in accordance with the theories learned decisions must be taken. It is in the exercise of these skills, at first haltingly, with many mistakes and relating to relatively small problems that a manager learns his trade. If he makes too many mistakes in real life, his job or his money (if he owns the business) may run out before he gets enough experience in using the skills at which he is practising.

So in management training programmes a manager must have opportunity to learn by practice, without the penalties of real life.

Various types of practical skill-building exercises have been designed- from discussion groups which help to develop orderly thinking and balanced consideration of others' views, to management cases which may take weeks to require the help of computers to evaluate decisions of the 'players'. The 'In Basket' exercise is one of the simpler and shorter forms of these exercises.

The name is a little clumsy, but it conveys the idea well. The concept is that the participant arrives at work and finds a bundle of papers in his 'IN' basket, which have to be dealt with immediately. We shall return later to various ways in which the exercise can be used, but the essential lesature is that one individual has to consider the papers in his basket and take decisions on them. The exercise is so constructed that, in the important features, he must take the decision alone. His superiors have had a stroke, or are shipwrecked or lost on a mountain, or otherwise inaccessible, while some decision has to be taken immediately and before they can possibly be consulted-a tender closes at mid-day, an important client arrives on today's plane expecting some answers, an order must be placed before prices rise and so on.

The important features of most such exercises are that a decision must be taken- even a decision to do nothing is a decision-and that the responsibility cannot be passed on.

To ensure that the trainee's decision-making capacity is forced into play, he is sometimes asked to make a choice between two decisions- for example, either to go ahead and attend a lecture at which he is scheduled to deliver an important paper, or to cancel this engagement and fly to another city to clinch a big contract.

Various irrelevencies and minor items crop up in the items in the basket to add realism and teach delegation, establishment of priorities, discretion in handling of disputes. A favourite red herring is a slightly disreputable element-as when the basket really belongs to a man who is taken ill overnight, or has died suddenly, but amongst his mail is a love letter; he is usually a respectable married man and the letter is not from his wife. This has really nothing to do with management decision, but some decision on what to do with the letter has to be taken. So with every item in the package- some decision has to be made, if only a refusal of an invitation to dinner.

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rawat/---
21.5.1974.

USE OF THE IN BASKET EXERCISES

A typical In Basket exercise will consist of three parts:-

A. a set of instructions to the 'player'. This sets the background, tells him just what the circumstances are - such as his position in the business, who has died, why his superiors are out of reach, who the persons are whose requests, letters etc, are found in his basket, - an organisation structure, where this is necessary andall other items necessary to set the stage and put him in the position, as nearly as possible of a man arriving at work and sitting down for the day's work.

B. the contents of the IN basket. Each of these is on a separate sheet, some parts are handwritten, some are inter-office memos and others are letters or cables from outside the organisation.

C. Notes for the guidance of the instructor or whoever is conducting the arrangement.

The first of these sections are designed for reproduction, so that each 'player' has own full set of both. The third is not for distribution at all and is for the guidance of the man in charge.

There are many ways in which this type of activity can be used. We shall outline some of them, but the alert trainer will always be able to adapt these methods and develop his own.

The Group

As already stressed, the essence of this type of activity is that every man is on his own; but it can still be used with a group in this way. (There are of course variations.)

First explain to the group what an IN Basket exercise is. Then set the stage by outlining the position. "A" section above, and hand out this section. Allow time for it to be read for reinforcement and ask for questions.

Questions here - <u>without</u> the contents of the IN Basket -- are designed to make sure that the participants are clear

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Source: IN-BASKET EXERCISES for Management Development Management Development Branch, Human Resources Department ILO, Geneva, 1968.

about their instructions. It is not usually necessary for any additional information to be needed, but if a 'player' wants it the instructor will have to make up his own mind what instructions to give. Someone may want to know whether the situation arises in winter or summer, how many employees the company has, whether the product is sold to retail consumers or industrial users. Now, if such matters are of real importance to the decision which the p rticipants will be called on to make, they ought to be covered in the instructions --- "A" section. If the answer is not there, it will rarel y be important and the instructior can give any answer that seems relevant and realistic.

Having settled any such queries, hand out "B" section, the contents of the basket, one set to each person. Each man is now on his own. Some will want more information -- it is n't available. This is a really important feature of the whole exercise, because this is exactly what happens to us all in real life - we have to make decisions every day without having as much information as we wouldlike to have. We just get as much information as we can and then do our best with it. It is essential, therefore, that this slight elementof frustration be preserved. In fact, it is deliberately built into the exercises, so that they will be as realistic as possible.

Allow whatever time is considered reasonable for the exercise. Half an hour may be enough for some exercises or some groups. Flexibility is essential and the instructor must make his own judgments about this in the light of his students. The time alloted should, of course, be announced at the beginning or it can be built into the instructions by something like 'it is now 9 a.m. and you are required to present your report to the managing director at 9.45 a.m.'

When time has expired, the whole thing is turned into a group discussion of the issues involved. Leading questions start it off, for example: 'Well, what is the big issue here?' A good discussion leader will be able to keep the ball rolling and encourage each person to express his viewpoint, pitting one view against another and bringing out for discussion the main teaching points. These, of course, are suggested in "C" Section of the exercises in the following pages, but again there is unlimited room for adaptation to the special needs of the group.

Another group approach is to start with item 1 in the Basket (after individual action) and deal with it. The critical items will soon arise and participants will point out that item 2 cannot be dealt with without taking item 7 into consideration.

Having made decisions in the 'on your Own' sessions, the 'players' have the opportunity to support their decisions with reasoned argument or to rebut the ideas of others who think differently, or even to recognise that certain decisions were not well taken in their private exercise. In any case, the whole point of the exercise is not to wrap up the neat solution to the problem, but to give the participants opportunity to try out their decisions and then to have the group discussion either show where they want astray or confirm their wisdom, even a little of both.

As a Selection Technique

Where a number of persons are being considered for appointment or promotion, various group techniques are useful and many have been used. With the IN Basket exercise, the leader or instructor has the oppurnity to observe how the 'players' react under the circumstances of the exercise, what factors they take into consideration in arriving at dicisions and how they justify theirown ideas and meet those of others that may be contrary to their own. They will reveal aspects of character and attitude unconsciously which would be difficult to assess, or even to detect, in an ordinary interview. Where the members of the group ar all considered possible contenders for the position or promotion, they can be compared in performance in a situation which has some reality in the exercise and a great deal of reality in the follow-up discussions. Of course, a great deal depends on the leader, both in promoting the discussion and in assessing the spontaneous performance.

Perhaps it is not necessary to add that this technique is not by it self a sufficient one in selection or deciding who to promote, but it does give a useful ancilliary guide.

To Decide Training Needs

Both in a firm and in a training institute , it is necessary to plan the training and development of executives in accordance with their needs. A well conducted IN Basket session will reveal the way 'players' think, what elements in a situation they appreciate and how far they have developed diagnostic and decision-making skills. For example, it is common for important public relations features of an IN Basket situation to be completely overlooked; or some of the group will usually say that there is insufficient information for them to make a decision and others will insist that the responsibility required of them in the situation really belongings to a more senior person in the company.

The first of these, requires that these persons are trained to appreciate the public relations aspects of decisions; the other two reveal that these persons avoid decision making and require development in this executive area. An alert leader can learn a great deal about the 'players' which will help him in planning or recommending their development programme.

In the same field is the use of the exercise as an opening gambit in a training course where the leader of the course does not know the participants. With an IN basket exercise, he can lead the players' to reveal them selves in a variety or ways which will help him to understand them, their needs, and how to develop the details of the course of training ahead.

As An Examination

An ordinary examination often follows a training course. For certain types of students it is not really appropriate indeed, educators are divided on its use at all. Where the students are mature men from business, as they often are in a management training programme, they do not take easily or readily to the set examination This is especially so in developing countries where they have not been conditioned for examination techniques by formal schooling.

In certain circumstances, it is doubtful what a set examination does reveal - perhaps a candidate's ability to write lucidly and rapidly, rather than knowledge of the subject At least, a candidate who cannot express his views well is under a handicap. When we are trying to test how far a candidate has learned new skills -- such / an examination test must take a different form

/as weighing conflicting facts or making decision--

The IN Basket is useful here. Used in this way, the usual from is to set the exercise as described: but to require brielf written instructions to someone (for example, a secretary) to be written on each sheet of the exercise. In cases of major decisions, a letter may be drafted for typing or the decision itself may be evident from the series of smaller dedisions with which it is surrounded on the other sheets. The normal instructions need to be modified only by adding. 'Write on each sheet an instruction to someone on what to do with the problem, or write what your own decision is'.

So used, the exercise can suggest how the candidate has learned the skills for which the course, which he has just completed, was designed. Naturally, an exercise must be chosen which has a relation to the material covered by the course and it will have to be designed by the instructor for the purpose.'

For Executive Action

There will come times in any organisation when action is required which is based on factors in a number of sections of the organisation and which is likely to affect them all. For instance a decision to 'make or buy', to undertake production of a new product, to expand into a new area of business.

Of course, the final decision will always rest with some individual, say the managing director. If he is wise, however, he will seek the widest possible guidance from among his subordinates. Equally important - when the decision is taken, it is essential that it is fully understood by all departments of the business which are affected. For example, a 'make or buy' decision which goes against internal manufacture may be resented by the production manager if he does not fully understand the factors which have led to the decision. It will be difficult to explain all these factors _after_ the decision; indeed, since decisions can rarely be made on the basis of all desirable information and involve a judgment, perhaps he can never be given all the relevant aspects, especially those arising from the subjective judgment of the managing director.

An alternative is to arrange a sort of IN Basket discussion. Here, we assemble each piece of information the costing, the market survey, the plant requirement, the capital cost, the employment needs, customs duties or sales tax information, effects on cash flow, and any other specific pieces of information which the managing director has had prepared for the decision-making. All executives whose guidance is desirable and who need to be informed are then given these papers in confidence for informal study. Then they come together to discuss the issues involved with the managing director. They are all encouraged to evaluate the factors and help in the decision-making process. Even if the managing director still reserves the decision to himself without looking for any committee decision, all these executives will understand better the complex nature of the decision and when it is made (whether they agree with it or not from the point of view of their own department), they will appreciate why and support it, instead of perhaps carrying a chip on their shoulders.

P R O G R A M E D I N S T R U C T I O N

What it is and how it works

(For Private Circulation Only.
Please return to Instructor after use.)

PROGRAMED INSTRUCTION

What it is and how it works

.. ..a 20-frame program requiring about ten minutes of your time, in return for which you will learn what programmed instruction is, how it works, and why.

1

Welcome to programmed instruction, a new method of self-instru-ction we think you will enjoy.

The idea behind programmed instruction is really quite simple: people learn best when they respond actively to each new item of information.

For example, on this page your_______________ actively by filling in the missing__________ in this sentence.

(When you've made your response check it with the "Answer to 1" on the next right hand page. Then read No. 2)

Answer to 1

Respond

words

2. A single blank line means that there is ____________ word to be written. In some cases we'll want you to complete a statement in your own words (as many or as few as you need; one if it will do). We indicate this with a long blank line that begins with a star. When you see this you know that* ________________

________________________.

Features of programed instruction...... compare them with your list.

1. Material is broken down into short units called frames.

2. Each frame requires active responses.

3. Learner gets immediate feedback on whether he's correct.

4. PI is individualized and self-packed.

5. Classrooms and scheduled classes are not necessary.
   (PI is self-instructional)

6. Programs are pretested and revised to insure that they attain the desired training objectives.

7. PI is often more effective and efficient than traditional forms of instruction.

(Any order; you should be able to list at least four of these, and you may have others we haven't included)

rawat/

You did not follow instru-ctions; this book you should read only the right-hand pages. You should be reading the opposite page.

Answer to 2.

One

two words

You should
complete the
statement in your own words
(or equivalent
answer).

3. Sometimes you will be given a choice of two or more answers. You should circle in correct answer.

Try this one:
Programed instruction is a new mathod of (self/group) instruction.

Answer to 20

self

efficient
effective
(either order)

objectives or
criteria*

Tryout*
program*
criterion test*
rewriting*

*(or equivalent responses)

And that completes our little booklet.

Congratulations on finishing the course!

You're not an expert in programed instruction yet, but you now know more than most people.

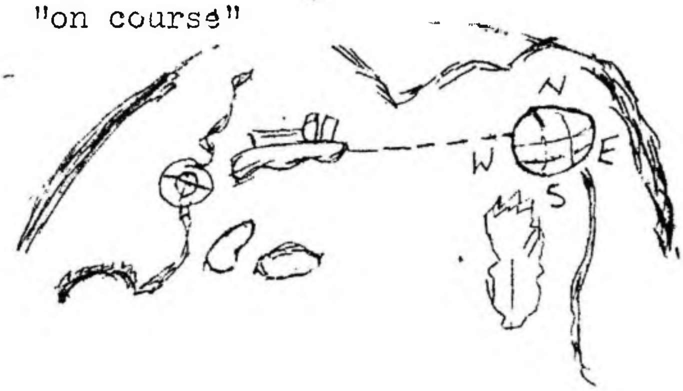
Just to see how far you've come, take a sheet of scratch paper and jot down as many features of PI as you can think of that distinguish it from conventional forms of instruction. Then turn the page and compare your list with ours.

We hope you agree that programed instruction is a rapid and effective way to teach. We hope too that you enjoyed it.

Answer to 3

self

4. As you've just seen, material is presented in short units which require you to ____________ you then get an immediate check or "feedback" on whether your response is correct by* __________ ____ __________. This is important because it lets you know you're "on course"



Answer to 19

The students who will actually learn from it (or equivalent)

What must be rewritten (or equivalent)

20. Now let's briefly summarize:
Programed instruction is a new (self/group) instructional technique which many people have found to be more ______________ and more ______________ than traditional techniques.

The measure of how good a program is, is how well it meets the training ______________. To guarantee that it attains these, each program is given a ______________ prior to publication.

A large number of errors on the *______________ or on the *______________ indicates that *______________ is necessary.

Answer to 4

Respond
(or equivalent)
comparing it
with the cor-
rect response
(or equivalent)

5.

We use a technical term, "frame," to describe these short units: A frame consists of the material to which you respond plus the correct response shown on the next page. Is the material in this box a frame? 'yes/no)

Answer to 18

Program (or equivalent)

criterion test (or equivalent)

rewritten, revised (or equivalent)

19. This highlights an important advantage programs have over textbooks. A textbook author usually submits his manuscript to his colleagues and makes changes in accordance with their suggestions. But his colleagues already know the material; they do not have to learn it from the textbook. A program author may submit his manuscript to colleagues for a technical review but, in the tryout, it is submitted to a sample of * ______________________ and their errors determine ______________

Answer to 17

How **well** the program teaches what it is supposed to teach; how well the program meets the training objectives (or equivalent).

18. A program should not only do a good job of teaching, it should teach what it is supposed to (in line with the training objectives). The purpose of tryouts is to guarantee this. If a tryout shows that students make large numbers of errors either on the*________________ or on the*____________, the program should be ____________ and tried out again.....until both conditions are satisfied.

Answer to 5

No. But that material plus this answer constitute a frame

6. That's how programed instruction works.

Each__________(technical term) presents material and requires you to*___________________ ________________You then turn the

page and compare*_______________

so that you get immediate feedback on whether or not*_____________

Answer to 16

The people we tried this on say yes.

no

17. The illustration in the previous frame was an exaggeration. It is not always obvious, especially when students are making correct responses in every frame, that a program as a whole may not be meeting the training objectives.

Usually we develope a "criterion test" which is designed to measure what the program is supposed to teach. After the tryout-students have completed the program, we give them this test.

What does their performance tell us?

Answer to 6

Frame

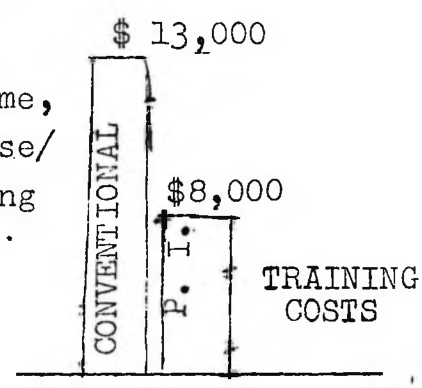
respond, make one or more responses (or equivalent).

Your response with the correct one (or equivalent).

You are right (or equivalent).

7. Many educators and training directors have found programed instruction to be more effective and more efficient than traditional methods of teaching.

Let's see what this means: If programed instruction takes less time than Method X to do the same job, we say that programed instruction is more (effective/efficient) than Method X. If programed instruction does the job better than Method X we say PI is more (effective/ efficient). by doing a better job in less time, PI can (increase/ reduce) training costs.



Answer to 7

efficient

effective

reduce

8. Perhaps you've noticed that this program is similar to a test in many ways...there are blanks to be filled in, choices to be made, and correct answers to be compared with your own responses.

There's one all-important difference, However. A _______________ is designed to <u>measure</u> learning, whereas a _________ is designed to <u>produce</u> learning.

Answer to 15

rewrite the

frame the

program

16. Of course, there's more to writing PI than simply making up frames that can be answered correctly. A program is written with certain specific training objectives or criteria in mind, and it should teach what it sets out to teach.

Sample Frame : "To Be Or Not to_____"   Answer: "Be"

Could most people fill in the missing word correctly? (yes/no) Would this sample frame help to meet the training criteria of a course in radio electronics? (yes/no)

Answer to 14

(b)

15. We who prepare programed instruction believe that when a student makes a mistake, it reflects an error in teaching. Prior to publication each program is tried out on a sample of the students for whom it is intended.

If we find these students making a large number of errors on certain frames we (rewrite the frames/rebuke the students) because we believe that student errors are the fault of (the student/the program).

Answer to 8	9. In other words, you should not think of a program as a test because the responses or answers it requires are designed to*______________rather than to measure what you have already learned. Of course, you could simply turn the page and copy down the correct answer without even reading the rest of the frame. But would you learn much that way?
test	
program	

Answer to 13

is not

14. Programe instruction can be described most accurately as

(a) a revolutionary teaching technique that will replace teachers, textbooks, and classrooms.

(b) an efficient and effective teaching technique that will probably supplement, but not supplant, existing teaching methods.

(c) a gimmick with short term novelty appeal.

Which ? (a/b/c/)

Answer to 14

(b)

15. We who prepare programed instruction believe that when a student makes a mistake, it reflects an error in teaching. Prior to publication each program is tried out on a sample of the students for whom it is intended.

If we find these students making a large number of errors on certain frames we (rewrite the frames/rebuke the students) because we believe that student errors are the fault of (the student/the program).

Answer to 9

Produce Learning,

teach (or equiva-
lent)

Of course not !

you are not trying

to learn how to

copy

10. Anyone can write a bunch of questions. But that isn't programing!. In a good program, the response required by each frame is "critical". That is, to make the right response, the learner must understand the critical material in the frame. In the sample frame below (a) and (b) both require the same response, but in one it is critical. Which one? (a/b) Why is the response required by the other not critical?

> Sample Frame:
> The English pound sterling is worth approximately $ 2.80 American money. To convert pounds to dolars, you multiply the number of pounds by $ 2.80.
>
> (a) 2 pounds = 2 x $ 2.80 = $_______
>
> (b) 2 pounds = $_______
>
> Answer: $ 5.60

Answer to 12.

Are not

13. You probably have heard of "teaching machines". These are mechanical devices which present programed instruction to the learner one frame at a time.

Now that you're more than half way through this booklet you can see that a teaching machine (is/isnot) necessary to present programed instruction.

Answer to 10

(b) is critical.

You could answer

(a) correctly even if you don't understand how to convert........ just by knowing what 2 x $2.80 equals.

11. One important advantage of PI is that you can work at your own pace. In group instruction, there are almost always some students who need to go more slowly than the rest of the class, and some who could could go more rapidly. Because PI is (an individualized/ a group) form of instruction, you can work through it as __________ or as __________ as you require.

You have just completed half of this program; now turn your booklet upside down and continue with frame 12.

Answer to 11

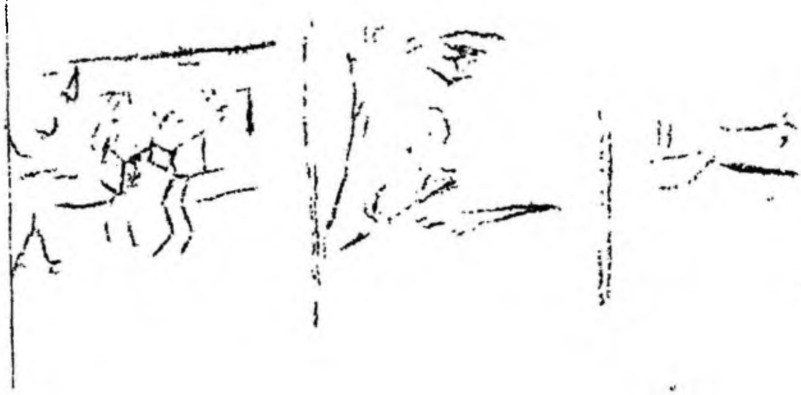
Individualized

slowly

rapidly

(either order)

12. As you can see from this booklet, you can study a program by yourself, whenever you choose, wherever, you choose, and at your own pace. Thus, classrooms and scheduled hours (are/ are not) necessary for programed instruction.



The POWER to SEE OURSELVES

... is vital to the fulfilment of executive potential.

A psychological fact is that manager development means change in the manager's self -concept. Each of us whether we relize it or not has a self-image. We see ourselves in some way -smart, slow, kindly, well-intentioned, lazy, misunderstood, meticulous, or shrewd; we all can pick adjectives that describe ourselves. This is the "I" behind the face in the mirror, the "I" that thinks, dreams, talks, feels, and belives, the "I" that no one knows fully. In this article we will explore the meaning of the self-image, particularly in relation to changing behavior in the growing manager, and how changes in self-concept come about.

One reason this self-concept is crucial is that it has a great deal to do with manager development - with being a growing person and eventually realizing one's self-potential. Note the term manager development rather than management development; the prupose of such development is to help individual managers to grow. After all, they have to do most of the job themselves. As a member of a firm of consulting psychologists to management, I can report that fact from experience -- and add the further observation that no one can tell a manager exactly how to grow. Rather, the most one can do is to help the manager understand himself in his own situation, and then trust him to find the best direction himself.

Filters for Reality

In the first place, the self-concept is important because everything we do or say, everything we hear, feel, or otherwise perceive, is influenced by how we see ourselves.

Source: By Paul J. Brouwer, Executive Development Series, Harvard Business Review, Part I, pp.163 to 170.

Author's Note: This article is drawn from material that will appear as a chapter in Managers for Tomorrow, to be published in 1965 by The New American Library of World Literature, Inc , New York.

Photographers often slip a reddish filter over the lens when snapping pictures of clouds on black and white film. The filter prevents some of the light rays from reaching the film , so that the final picture shows much darker skies and more sharply whitened cloud.The self-concept is like a filter that screens out what we do not want to hear and see, passes through what we do want see and hear. In the reverse directio, it gives an idiosyncratic flavor to our behavior. Who among us doesn't usually pick his name out of a jumble of words on a page? Or hear his name announced at an airport amidst all of the other announcements that he fails to hear? This is called selective listening, and it is a function of out self-concept. Thus, how we see outselves determines generally what we react to, what we perceive, and, in broad terms, how we behave in general.

Continuing Changes

Although the self-concept is important in understanding human behavior generally, it becomes critically so in understanding manager development, where changes in behavior are the bojective. As a matter of cold, hard, psychological fact, a change in behavior on the job, for better or worse, means a change in self-concept. Thus, we are dealing with an immensely and immediately practical consideration.

Human beings constantly change their behavior, as we see if we examine ourselves (and others) critically enough. It is a superficial observation to say that so-and-so is the same person he was five year ago. Technically, he isn't exactly the same today as he was even yesterday.For one thing, he is one day older. He has learned something new, however negligible, that becomes incorporated in his apperceptive mass As a result, his perception of today's events is different, however slightly and undetectably, from what it was yesterday. He may have had nothing "significant" happen to him-no promotion, no accident, no soulsearching upset - but he will be different, even through only a person with Solomon's wisdom would know it. Change in behavior is constant.

The difficulties managers have in thinking about changes in behavior come from their inability to detect change, and from fuzzy thinking behind such conforting, though fallacious, notions as, "You can't teach an old dog new tricks," "He was born that way," or "He's been like that ever since I've known him".

On the other hand, sometimes superficial behavior changes are erroneously thought to be basic. For example, consider the simplest level of change in behavior, which is brought about by increased knowledge or skill:

If companies do want such "simple-level" changes, and only these, then management training is called for . The girl learns to type; the boy learns how to sell; the new zone manager learns the policy manual; and the new vice president of manufacturing learns how the company's controller figures costs. These specific learnings are the objectives of training, and can become changes in behavior produced by training.

Keystone for Growth

If, however, a company wants growth in the deeper sense, them something more subtle and basic in its impact is called for in the manager development effort. Such deeper growth is, of course, a change in self-concept. The manager who once was unreliable in his judgment or who lacked drive grows toward reliability in judgment or toward stronger drive. Growth in this sense brings observable changes in outward behavior, because each person is now inwardly different-different, for example, in his perception of himself, in his attitude toward his job and his company as both relate to his own life, or in his feeling of responsibility for others.

But experience shows that such growth is as difficult to achieve as it is desirable. It demands the full-fledged participation of the manager. Actually the trits expression, "Management development is self-development", is psychologically sound. The growing manager changes because he wants to and because he has to in response to new insights and understandings that he gains on the job. He does not change because he is told to, exhorted to, or because it is the thing to do.

Such growth implies changes in the man himself - in how he uses knowledge, in the ends to which he applies his skills, and, in short, in his view of himself. The point is clear that the growing person examines himself; and as he does so, he emerges with new depths of motivation, a sharper sense is personalized and vital. And such growth in self-concept is at the heart of a real manager development effort.

But growth in self-concept is not always simple and clear.

Conflicts in Self-Concept

Each human being is severals. He lives comfortably in the role of father, husband, businessman, president, golfer, bridge player, the life of the party, and so on. But if there are conflicts among any of these roles, then discomfort arises. And such confliçt brings with it such dynamics as tension, guilt feelings, and compensation

STEPS TO MATURITY

Let us be clear about one pont. Growth does not proceed in clear-cut, discrete, logical steps. Sometimes it occurs in inexplicable spurts; at other times, with agonizing slowness. There are cases where real learning is so deeply unconscious that no overt behavioral change shows up for a long time. Even regressions will occur, as when an adolescent girl, perhaps troubled by her day's activities, will sleep with a doll as she did at age six. The process of growth is a nebulous, multifactored, fluid, dynamic process, often astounding, and usually only partially controllable.

But for the sake of discussion, and understanding, we can postulate a sequence of steps.

Self-Examination

If we were to attempt a systematic analysis of what happens when growth in a manager occurs, we would need to begin with self-examination. For here the individual first knows he doesn't know or first gets an inkling that he wishes his behavior were different in some respect. He is forced, either by circumstance or his ownconscious introspection, to look at himself critically. Thisis what happen when a golfer sees movies of his swing, or when a mother scolds her child by saying, "Just look at yourself - all dirty Or when the supervisor's thinly veiled anger over a subordinatie's sloppy work finally becomes known. Every man sees himself each time he shaves, but does he really examine what he sees? Does he appraise and evaluate and study what manner of man he is?

The function of self-examination is to lay the ground -work for insight, without which no growth can occur.

Insight is the "oh, I see now" feeling which must, consciously or unconsciously, precede change in behavior. Insights - real, genuine glimpses of ourselves as we really are - are reached only with difficulty and sometimes with real psychic pain. But they are the building blocks of growth. Thus self-examination is a preparation for insight, a groundbreaking for the seeds of self-understanding which gradually bloom into changed behavior.

Self-Expectation

As an individual raises his sights for himself, as he gets an insight into the direction in which he wants to grow, as he "sees" himself in a particular respect that he does not like, then he is changing his self-expectation. (This is the next step.) New demands on himself. This is another way of saying what the theologians insist on, namely, that a conviction of sin precedes salvvation. Or, as the psychologists put it, first accept the fact that you have the problem - not anyone else - and then you are ready to find a solution. Here are two cases that illustrate the importance of self-expectation through insight:

John P. was a chronic complainer. Nothing was ever his fault. He frequently and self-pityingly inveighed against his boss, his subordinates, his peers, and the competition. He was capable, knowledeable, a hard worker, critical, And never once, when he sang the old refrain, "Why does this always happen to me?" did an inner voice whisper back, "It's no different for you, old boy, than for anyone else. It's just the way you take it".

Efforts by this boss and his friends to develop some insight in John seemed wasted. Logical explanations, patiently made, were of course futile. Anger toward him only proved to him he was picked on. Gentle tolerance only gave him a bigger pool to wallow in.

One day in a meeting of executives to find answers to a particular crisis that had his everyone (an unexpected price slash by a major competitor), he held forth at length on the uselessness of market research, on the futility of keeping a "pipeline" on the competitor's situation, on how his department (sales) couldn't be blamed for not anticipating the vagaries of the competition's pricing policy, and so on.

He finally stopped. And, as though by prearrangement, the whole group, perhaps in compete disgust at his immaturity and irrelevance, sat in stony silence.

At lenth the silence became so oppressive that it studdenly dawned on the complainer that he was just that- and immature comp lainer. He recalled the words of his colleagues and his own dim awareness that he did complain a lot. Insight finally occurred.

At long last he was ready to begin to grow out of his immaturity. He saw (and disliked) himself at this point. Now his growth could become self-directed; he could easily find many opportunities to quash feelings of self-pity and to face reality in a more statesman - like attitudes of himself.

Pete B., age 58, was vice president of engineering of a company that madefine-quality capital goods equipment. He had been with his company 35 years. He was a good engineer, who knew the product inside out; and through the years he had learned to know the customers, too. He felt proud of and personally involved in each installation of the product. It was not unusual to see him on an evening, coatless and with his tie loose, surrounded by young engineers, digging at a tough installation problem. While some thought Pete did too much himself, others felt that with him on the job the customer would be satisfied.

About four years ago, however, the president, whose family owned the company, sold it to a large corporation, and the company became a wholly owned subsidiar. One was acquired, then another. Finally Pete's department was asked to do the engineering work for several subsidiaries that were not set up to do their own.

Now Pete's job had changed, subtly but surely, and trouble began to brew for Pete because he couldn't seem to change with situation.

Psychologically, Pete saw himself as a one-man department (with assistants as trainees) who personally engineered the product for the customer, his friend. He resisted the impresonality of working on engineering problems of "sister companies" whose customers and products he barely knew and cared less about. The new-fangled system of a "home office" engineering vice president who was "staff" seemed to him just another unnecessary complication. Nothing worked the way it used to. He saw himself by passed by progress and change.

So, unconsceously, he began to risist and to fight. His yearing for the "good old days" subconsciously forced him to run faster and faster in order to know more customers and more product lines; to work more evenings; to press new systems into the form of old procedures. And, of course, he began to slip, and badly. Gradually, Pete was viewed by his superiors as "good old Pete, but let's not get him in on this matter or he'll have to take it over himself and we'll get bogged down," and by his subordinates as a fine fellow, but stodgy and old-fashioned.

Fortunately, before the situation cimpelled a major organizational shift, Pete took stock of his situation, and really saw himself as he was. He got the insight that his self image of a kind of personal engineer was no longer applicable to the corporation's greatly expanded needs. And right then, with this new glimpse of himself (and the courage and self-honesty to face it), he began to change. He started by focusing on how his years of experience could be applied to the coaching of his subordinates. He put himself in the shoes of the staff vice president and could then see how to mesh gears better. Then he stopped resisting the new-fangled date processing and automation procedures. His growth began with a new self-expectation.

Change in Self-Expectation

How does one get a new self-demand, a new self-expectation? How does one find out that his present self-concept is inadequate? How does one know not only that he can be different but should be as well? unfortunately for those who like recipes or formules, such questions are perennially bothersone because there is no one best way.

What can be done to stimulate change in self-expectation besides honest, realistic, self-appraising introspection? In the business context, the constructive pointing up of an executive's needs for growth by his superior is a tremendous source of insight. The emphasis, of course, is on the word constructive, which means helpful, insightful ideas from the superior and not, as so often happens, a ceremonial, judgmental, "I'll tell you what I think about you" appraisal.

A further source of insight is wives - the perceptive ones, that is. Perceptive wives have unique ways of jerking husbands up short when their self-images become distorted.

In fact, anything which enables the man to get a new perception-reading, observing, studying, going to conferences, attending meetings, and participating in clubs - can provide insight into himself. Out of insight comes change in self-expectation.

And, of course, life situations which are kaleidoscopic always enable the perceptive person to see himself in a new light. Here is another example:

Paul W. was acutely self-critical, often to the point where his fear of failure immobilized him. He delayed decisions, fussed endlessly with details, and generally strained to be perfect. In time his relation with the psychologist, who genuinely accepted him without criticism, praise, blame, or hostility, enabled him to "see" how his self-critical attitudes really stemmed from his self-pride. He felt he had to be perfect because it was "safer" to be free from criticism and failure. But he finally "rejoined the human race" anddemanded of himself only that he do his best. The insight that he was human after all freed him to change his self-expectations.

Self-Direction

A man is master of his own destiny in the sense that he takes charge of his own development if he wants to grow. Nothing can be done to him to make him grow; he grows only as he wants to and as his own insights enable him to .

The change in self-concept that an executive undergoes must continue primarily through his own self-direction. It is clear that many development programs miss their mark badly at this point. They make the naive assumption that exposure to experiences or people or books or courses is enough to produce growth. Not so . They effect change in the participant only as he reaches out and appropriates something - a bit of wisdom, a new idea, or a new concept - that stretches him, and gives him an answer to his own self-generated problem.

Put another way, we might say that, just as learning is impossible without motivation, so real executive development is impossible unless the executive development is impossible unless the executives seeks it. Furthermore, the strength of his desire is infinitely stronger if he seeks development because he wants to develop than if he is merely trying to please his boss or do what is expected of him. As any teacher knows the pupils who listen and learn merely in order to pass the course are far poorer learners than those who want to learn.

Fundamentally, this is the age-old problem of motivation, of keeping steam up in the boiler. The maintenance of a growing edge, as an executive emerges from insight to insight to realize his potential, is a consequence of instrinsic motivation. He is driven toward unrealizable goals; this is what keeps the executive honing his growing edge.

After he develops insight into himself in relation to what he wants to be, the power that keeps him growing is the varitable necessity of doing something that to him is intrinsically, basically, and lastingly worth while. Growing executives are so because they derive their strength and desire and drive from inner, unachieved goals; and their satisfactions from self-realization. This is intrinsic motivation as it relates to self-concept.

Broadened Perceptions

The dynamics of this factor of growth are very clear: any one must see himself in relation to his environment, both personal and impersonal, and must develop his image of himself partly in response to what he sees around him. So if he sees a very small world (as a child does), his concept of himself must necessarily be narrow; if he sees himself as a citizen of the world (as a world traveler might), his self-concept embrances the world. This is the difference between the real provincial, such as a hillbilly, and the true sophisticate.

A most common complaint of superiors is that a subordinate is too narrow in his outlook. For example the sales manager promoted to vice president of sales irritates his peers in manufacturing or research by having "only a salesman's point of view". The former supervisor, now a vice president, is derided by the people in sales for his attitude of "We'll make it at low cost; it's up to you to sell it and don't bother me with special runs for special customers or model changes - sell'em". Both men suffer from constraint of the self-concept: they perceive their jobs (and themselves) too narrowly.

SENSITIVITY TRAINING AND MANAGEMENT§

The dramatic growth of a controversial new training technique demonstrates its effectiveness.

"O wad some Pow'r the giftie give us
To see oursels as others see us
It was frae mony a blunder free us,
And foolish notion . . . . ."

from " To a Louse " by Robert Burns (ca 1786).

In the summer of 1946 a group of Massachusetts Institute of Technology psychologists made, more by accident than by design, what has since been called "the most important social invention of this century."1 They, in effect, rediscovered Robert Burns and in so doing initiated what has become the sensitivity training movement.

From serendipitous beginnings just over two decades ago, the sensitivity training movement has swept this country. What are its implications for management? This article traces the development of the movement, examines the results of sensitivity training programs in the development of managers, looks briefly at what happens in a sensitivity training laboratory, and suggests how T-groups and laboratory training can best be used in the development of executives.

The Research Centre for Group Dynamics at MIT that the summer was collaborating with two Connecticut organisations in a workshop aimed at reducing was-aggravated tensions between racial and religious groups in Connecticut communities. The two-week workshop was being conducted as a planning and skill practice laboratory, and sessions were being taped for subsequent analysis by the instructional staff. Quite by chance, some participants overheard the staff replying and critiquing tapes of their laboratory sessions. They found these critiques so stimulating that they and most of their fellow participants attended subsequent evaluation sessions. Following the workshop, participants called these critique sessions "the most valuable training experience they received."2 What was so valuable, apparently, was learning how their behavior appeared to others - or, in the words of Robert Burns, learning "to see oursels as others see us."

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§ Source : MSU Business Topics, Graduate School of Business Administration. Michigan State University, Vol. 17.No.4, Autumn 1969, by Winston Oberg is Professor of Management Graduate School of Business Administration, Michigan State University.

From that chance beginning ,sensitivity training (it has also been called laboratory training, T-group training, and encounter group traing) has swept this nation and has spread to Europe, Africa, Asia and Latin America. A recent British article estimates:

It is probably no exggeration to claim that thousands of managers, executives, and administrators in Great Britain and the United States now have direct experience of the laboratory method of human relations training (or T-group training.)3

The National Training Laboratory Institute for Applied Behavioral Science, a descendant of the groups which conducted the 1946 Connection program, scheduled more than thirty laboratories in 1969 and reported that attendance at their 1968 laboratories had been double and number involved in the programs five years cearlier.4 Popular manazines like Time, Life, Look, Glamour; and playboy have discovered sensitivity training.5 Such training has been applied to race relations,6 police training7 executive development,8 and organisation development.9 It has been used in church services,10 college classrooms,11 marital counseling,12 and group psychotherapy.13 In short, sensitivity training is popular. It is a commercial success. It has been and is now being used in virtually all types of organisations to achieve a variety of ends - ranging from curing the mentally ill to developing the unused potential of normal people, from improving the climate of organisations to community development. Sensitivity training is also controversial. In Michigan, John Brich Society spolesmen have lumped sensitivity training with sex education as a Communist-inspired effort to undermine the morals of American Society. The Wall Street Journal recently reported that some companies which have made use of sensitivity training are having second thoughts about its value. The tone of the article is captured in its first paragraph:

Last year a big New York Consumer products company sent Mrs. D, A product manager, to a week-long sensitivity training program. She got to sensitive she quit the company.14

In short, the article suggests that individuals may enjoy sensitivity training; they may find personal growth and development through attending such programs; but they do not invariably become better employees for their sponsoring companies.

Does Sensitivity Training Really Improve Managers ?

What evidence is there that sensitivity training helps, or harms, managers? In asn effort to answer this question it is necessary to examine the evidence available.
Business executives were among the earliest participants in sensitivity training. I remember meeting in the fall of 1950, two vice-presidents from the same insurance company who had attended the Bethel, Maine, sensitivity training laboratory that year. One man had come back "converted." He was trying to apply on a large scale what he had learned. The other had enjoyed his "vacation" at Bethel but felt he could use very little of what he had learned. The point to be stressed here is that already in 1950, only four years after the first laboratory program, companies were sending top executives to these programs. In the 1950s the American Management Association set up its own laboratory for high-level executives. In describing that program and telling what led AMA to set it up, Alfred J.Marrow wrote:

The greatest challenge which confronts the profit-conscious executive is the handling of people, particularly his managerial staff. How can be turn the manager on his staff into real "team". ... In the past managerial control rested on the authority-obedience relationship. Today's manager . . . is learning the limited powere of control by coercion, for such control eventually causes conflict, apathy, and resistance ... authoritarian attitudes breed conflict ... present practices (must be changed) so that conflict will give way to cooperation ... if ... men are to give genuine leader-ship, they need to know a lot more about their motives, their values, their emotional maturity, and the impact they make on the men they work with ... A first step ... for the man who managers others (is) to "know thyself".35

What evidence is available to show that those programs do have the desired effect? A number of articles have claimed success for laboratory training programs conducted in or for business organisations. Chris Argyris concluded from his experience with such training that it was "a very promising educations process" and that it could "help some organisations to begin to overcome some of their problems."16 Robert R. Blake and Jane S.Mounton reported what they titled a break through in organisation development." Using a structured laboratory programe to improve the organisational climate, they were able to show a 27.4 percent improvement in productivity and controlable costs in a large oil refinery the year after the program began.17 David C. McClelland used laboratory techniques to improve the motivation of a group of sixteen managers in a large U.S.

company and reported that wo years later men who had received this training had moved up in the company faster than a control group which had attended a conventional executive program.18 He concluded that achievement motivation could be developed in mature adults through these new training methods. Similar success reports have appeared in a variety of publications. Rather than continued with a case-by-case report, we can draw on the findings of three major reviews which have appeared in the p st three years. The first, by Robert J.Jouse, covered some thirty studies of the effectiveness of laboratory training for managers.19 The second, by John P. Campbell and Marvin D. Dunnette, reviewed more than forty such studies.20 The third, by Iain Mangham and Cary L. Cooper, attempted to summarize most of these same studies for British managers.[21] Campbell and Dunnette concluded, following their summary of the research studies, that Argyris had been correct when he said that "probably more research has been conducted on the effects of T-group method than on any other specific management-development-technique.[22]

A Measurable Impact

From his research, House concluded that T-group or sensitivity training had a measurable impact on executive behavior, that it had resulted in observable changes in on-the-job behavior. Although the amount and kind of change was influenced by the type of individual and by the situation in which he was working, by and large the programs did have an effect, and the most common effect was the make managers more employe-oriented, more considerate. This led him to raise the question of whether more "considerate" behavior was what was neede, in every case, to make managers more effective. Don't some leaders have to be tough and hard ? He asked. He also raised other questions about the training; Is sensitivity training something companies should or ethically can require an executive to take part in ? Can all executive tolerate the anxiety involved? What happens if a man breaks down during or after the program ? What responsibility does the organisation which sent him have? Are the trainers adequately qualified? All of them?

He concluded that while the T-group was a potentially powerful tool for changing behavior, organisations should ask themselves-before making use of such programs - whether the changes induced by the T-group were actually changes required for effective executive performance in their organisations. Were they changes which the organisation would support? He recommended more careful screening to avoid sending men for whom the method might prove overwhelming. He advocated that possible participants be given the opportunity to decline to attend. More careful selection of T-group leaders should be made in programs developed by a company. More research should be dome to determine where and how T-group training could be used most effectively. And finally, he recommended, organisations which start such programs should have an alternative training method ready "in the vent that a program, once begun, fails to fulfill ... expectations."[23]

In their review, a year later, Campbell and Dunnettee covered most of the studies House did as well as a number of more recent reports. They agreed with House that this kind of training did "induce behavioral changes in the 'back home' setting"[24] and suggested, as did House, the possibility that not all of these changes would be desireablefrom an organisation point of view.

The assumption that T-group training has positive utility for organisations must necessarily rest on shaky ground. It has been neither confirmed nordisconfirmed. The ... utility for the organisation is not necessarily the same as the utility for the individual.[25]

In other words, just because an executive enjoyed his experience (as most of them do) and felt he got a lot out of the program (as most do), and just because his colleagues noticed changes in his behavior-these facts are not guarantee that what a man has learned and the ways in which his behavior has changed make him better or more effective manager.

In 1969, Mangham and Cooper conculded from their review of the research on sensitivity training that most of the research was poorly done-but that even so, some firm conclusions could be drawn. They found that (1) such training does change behavior; (2) these changes tend to be lasting, and (3) typically, the changes include "improved skills in diagnosing indivudual and group behavior clearer communication, greater tolerance and consideration, and greater action skills and flexibility,[26] They added, that simply becausea man changes, this change is no guarantee that he is more effective on the job. "There is littleevidence," they pointed out, "to support or discount the notion that greater openness, better listening, tolerance, etc. contribute to effective company performance."[27]

From these reviews it appears that the main questions, as for as the use of sensitivity training for management development is concerned , are:

§ How desireable is open and honest feedback? More specifically, does "seeing himself as others see him" make a man a better manager?

§ As an executive becomes more "sensitive" does he become more effective?

How desireable is open and honest feedback? Campbell and Dunnette point out that the success or T-group training "depends on the crucial process of feedback" which is the "primary process" by which participants learn: this requires that participants informeach other "how their behavior is being seen and interpreted."[28] Not all writers and not all research agree that honest and open feedback is desireable. Eugene O"Neill, for example, in The Iceman Cometh argues that people who are happy believing a lie shouldnot be told the truth. And recent research on the use of performance reviews to give employes honest feeback suggests that such feedback can easily boomerang. Following World War II. many American companies conducted attitude surveys among their employes. One recurring complaint in most of these surveys was that "my boss never tells me how I'm doing." This complaint led many companies to set up formal performance review programs in which supervisors were instructed to let employes know, periodically, exactly how the supervisor felt they wre doing. When reactions of supervisors and employes to these reviews proved to be less than completely favourable companies took a second look at the feedback sessions. One company in particular, General Electric, set up an extensive research program to determine just what effect thesesessions were having.[29] Neutral observers sat in on the review sessions to observe the nature of the feedback. Follow up studies were made to determine what ef ect if any, the feedback sessions and the type of feedback had on subsquent job performance. General Electric discovered that for many people honest feedback had unfavorable consequences. In particular, men who received above-average amounts of negative feedback or criticism, not only did not improve, they often got worse. In fact, ten to twelve weeks after the feedback sessions, those who received above-average criticism "generally showed less goal achievement ..... than those who had received fewer criticisms." Worst of all, those areas which had been given "special emphasisby the manager in his criticism ... (showed) considerably less improvement ... (than) other areas."[30] In short, with this group of employes, open and honest feedback had an adverse effect on performance which lasted a number of months.

Critics of sensitivity training have argued that some social deception is necessary and desirable in sucessful interpersona relations. Erving Goffman[31] and Victor A. Thompson[32] have pointed out that the wearing of "masks" and the playing of roles are universal in business and in everyday life. House quoted a critic of sensitivity training as asking:

" Do we really want to rip off the " executive mask " which hides from the individual his true feelings, desires, and knowledge of self? Most people have taken many years to build up this "mask."[33]

The authors of the General Electric study suggested one response to critics of feedback and openness. They pointed out that honest feedback is both necessary and inevitable. "How," they asked, "can the manager assist a subordinate in imporving his performance? Certainly knowledge of results is improtant in effecting improvement, and this is one of the primary purposes or a performance appraisal program."[34] The trouble with the performance reviews studied, they concluded, was that they were scheduled too infrequently:

Studies of the learning process have indicated ... that this knowledge (of results) is proportionately less effective as the time between performance and feedback lengthens. This .... would argue for more frequent feedback discussions.[35]

Because of the length of time between reviews, another problem arose: too much feedback had to be included in one session and this led to an "over load phenomenon." They found that.

Each individual may have a tolerance level of the amount of criticism he can absorb, and as this level is approached or surpassed , it becomes increasingly difficult to accept responsibility for the shortcomings cited.[36]

In other words, feedback needs to follow as closely as possible the behavior to which it is related. And the amount and intensity of negative feedback must be related to the capability and readiness of the individual to receive it. To force more negative feedback on a person than he is ready to receive, typically results in worse rather than better performance. The answer to the feedback boomerang effect is therefore to provide less feedback. Particularly negative feedback, at any one time-and to provide this feedback much more often.

A. far as sensitivity training programs are concerned, the moral of the GE research would seem to be that people who are likely to be targets of a great deal of negative feedback - that is, people with serious difficulties in interpersonal relations - should not ve encouraged to attend such programs. Research cited by house, by Campbell and Dunnette, and by Mangham and Cooper supports this conclusion. Those who have greatest difficulty in sensitivity programs are typically people whose personalities lead them to be rejected by other group members; while those who benefit most from such programs are people who receive a great deal of group acceptance and support. For the former negative feedback often becomes overwhilming and their post-training performance suffers. For the latter, negative feedback is more manageable and hence more productive.

Feedback is inevitable

We can, perhaps, conclude that feedback of some sort is inevitable but that there are dangers in overloading people with negative feedback. The degree of openness and honesty should be tempered by the needs and feelings of the recipient of feedback. To speak the truth is essential, To speak the whole truth may be neither kind nor wise. To force some people to hear some truths may help neither them nor the organisation.

As as executive becomes more sensitive does he become more effective? Another way of putting the question may be do all executives need to become more sensitive? The Wall Street Journal article cited earlier told of a branch manager for a big electronics company who had been a "real ironbottomed, but of the woods type" but who "saw the light" when he went through sensitivity training. Before training, he was "aggressive and decisive in the extreme" but afterward.

He returned to his job full of understanding for others ... He began to give his people complete freedom. But they didn't know how to make decisionsl because he had always made most of them. So they didn't make decisions. After three months, he was simply an unpredictable SOB instead of an iron-bottomed type. Costs ... went up and production went down. Finally ... he quite.37

Certainly, if sensitivity means simply a high degree of concern for the welfare and happiness of subordinates at the expense of a concern for production and the surviv al of the company, too much sensitivity can be bad for a manager to have. Research by the University of Michigan on the relationship between morale and productivity and the summary by Arthur H.Brayfield and Walter

H.Crockett of research conducted in a variety of organisations suggest very strongly that there is no clear and direct relationship between employee satisfaction and employee output.[38] So, if sensitivity training has the effect of making managers primarily concerned with employee satisfaction, productivity may sell suffer.

But is this effect inevitable? Based on my own experience with such training, the answer to this question is no. What is stressed, in such training is honest feedback. The purpose is to permit men to deal more realistically with others to know more accurately and completely how others feel about, and react to them. If the feedback a man receivers tells him that he comes through as cold, hard, and inconsiderate there is not reason why he may not elect to continue behaving as in the past-providing he is achieving the goals he has set for himself. Alternatively, he may elect to modify some superficial aspect of his behavior without sacrificing his crive and ability to get the job done. Only if he has strong needs to be liked and accepted by subordinates would such feedback result in the profound changes descrived in the Wall Street Journal story. In a laboratory in which I participated as trainer, a young, hard-driving, and competent vice-president of a major drug firm was one of the participants. He was an active and well -accepted participant in the group, and enjoyed the experience. I did not expect that he would see fit to make many changes in behavior as a result of the program because he was already highly successful behaving just as he was (..ing. I was, therefore, surprised to learn a few months later that this man had improved noticeably and that the company president was delighted with the result of the program. The vice-president had learned from fellow group members that he came on rather strong at times and apparently had decided to soften his approach, particularly with subordinate. He had done this enough to be less abrasive without losing any of his remarkable drive and effectiveness. But he had become more sensitive, more aware of his impact on others, and as a result of the feedback he received in the program he had become a more effective executive. He was basically no softer, just smooter.

In short, there appears to be no reason why sensitivity training should make people less concerned with production, or less forceful. Feedback is ideologically natural. There is no necessary pressure in these programs for participants to become more "democratic" or more "participative". What pressure arises in this direction comes mainly from an individual executive's own value orientation. If he has strong "democratic" or "human relations" values and learns that his behavior is seen as "autocratic" or "insensitive" he may be strongly motivated to change. But the feedback he receives is a catalyst for and not a cause of t e changes.

To answer the question posed at the beginning of this section: all executives do not need to become more sensitive, if by this we mean more conderate, or more democratic or participative. Without strong task leadership, as F.F. Bales and Abrahm Zaleznik[40] have discovered in their research, organisations will not be effective or successful in achieving their task goals.

But sensitivity and consideration are not the same thing. People can be sensitive - they can be very aware of how others are feeling toward them - and yet elect to be firm, tough, and hard. Only if my desire is to be seen as considerate will increased sensitivity lead me to become more considerate If my desire is to be more effective in getting a job done, without particular regard to the happiness of the people who are working with and for me, then increased sensitivity need not make me any more considerate, though it might well make me more effective.

Just what happens in a sensitivity training laboratory?

So far, we have spoken of the widespread and growing sensitivity training movement and have suggested that such training can make managers and organisations better and that it can also make them worse. We have suggested that wise use of sensitivity training need not have negative consequences. Before making and recommendations about the place of such training in company or academic management development programs, it is probably desirable

to describe briefly just what happens in these programs

and attempt to show how and why they have the impact they do.

Two of the first people to introduce sensitivity training into the graduate business curriculum described the training in this way:

Sensitivity training produces a deeply personal experience. Perhaps more than any other form of human relations training, it stirs and prods people into taking a good, close look at themselves and at their relations with others ... (It) is based ... on the following assumptions:

... the essential sources of personal growth and development lie within the participants themselves; no attempt is made to tell them whether to change or how to change ...

(they) are helped to see themselves more objectively; then if they are dissatisfied with certain aspects of their attitudes or behavior, the discision to change the direction of change are up to them. The function of the trainer is primarily to help create conditions under which the trainee can gain new perspectives of themselves.

... people ... want control of their own destinies - they want to ... (b2) free from attitudes, feelings, and ideas that keep them from b-ing creative and confortable with themselves.

... interaction with other people is necessary for productive social learning. Each person creates for himself as well as for the others of his training group a set of mirrors in which values, attitudes, and behavior can be reflected. Free and open communications are ... encouraged, and ... trainees are urged to comment both on what they see and hear and on how they feel.

... (developing) a climate for learning is essentially a matter of facilitating ... group norms which permit intrapersonal and interpersonal exposure of ideas and feelings, valid feedback to the individual as to the adequancy of his ideas and feelings, a supportive atmosphere which allows theindividual to look at his inadequacies ... and (explore) behavior directed toward ... new ideas attitudes and feelings.

... personal growth is best promoted in a learning situation in which the individual is respected and his right to be different pretected. Sensitivity training encourages an individual to be himself so thathe can test his effectiveness in varying interpersonal situations.[41]

What do these words mean when translated into practice? What actually happens in a laboratory? To answer this question must be at least as difficult as trying to describe the taste of beer to a non-drinking or trying to describe one's religious conversion to an agnostic. The best, probably the only, wat to understand what happens is to experience it personally. However, it may be of value to present here excerpts from daily logs or diaries kept by M.B.A. students in a five -weeks, forty hour summer school course in executive development, which was conducted as a sensitivity laboratory. Twenty-six students participated in the laboratory.[42]

The typical laboratory begins with what have been called micro-lab exercises. These are designed to promote group for ation and to develop a climate in which self-analysis and open feedback can occur. Here is what one student wrote about the firs't-day exercises in the course:

The class was divided into groups of six with the choice be being left to the students themselves. Once the groups were formed each student presented a five-minute autobiography to the other members of the six-man group.

This technique was one of the most successful I have ever seen for breaking down inhibitions .. and allowing the group to begin to get together as a chesive organisation.

Following these "ice-breaking" exercises, the typical laboratory breaks down into T-groups of from six to fifteen members. These are unstructured discussion groups in which the trainer serves as facilitator, not leader. Initiative for what the groups do must come from group members. Typically, the first few sessions of the T-group are quite furstrating to participants. Here is how one student reacted to the first T-group session:

We formed into thirteen-man T-groups. This time the group had no objective at all. The group spent the entire period trying to decide whether or not it was necessary to decide upon a topic and have structuredgroup or to have an unstructured discussion. About five people dominated the discussion. The oddest part ... was that everybody began to question the motives of the members who spoke up ... It was as if members resented the assumption of leadership by other members ... There was, I believe, jockeying for position of leadership within the group.

Eventually groups discover that htis jockeying and the attempts to develop an agenda are not profitable, and they begin to explore their own personal agendas to seek group feedback and to provide feedback to others. It can be a very frightening experience to ask for feedback, as this student discovered.

Today was one of the most frightening days in my life. In the group ... I was placed on the spot and I decided "what the hell" I may as well let myself go as far as I dare. It is difficult to relate what my feelings are at this moment. I felt as though I were standing naked and everybody was picking pieces of skin out of me. I can say, though that I related myself as I never had before ... I hope that when our group convenes again we continue along this vein but in a way I hope itwon't be me. I can't describe my feelings at this moment. They are both good and bad - very uncertain. My uncertainty stems from my boubt as to how the group reacted to me.

Gradually, as more trust and confidence develop, people become more free and less anxious about being themselves. They learn, as this student did, that when they reveal themselves openly and honestly they usually receive a warm acceptance from the other group members. Each group, of course, is different. Some develop a higher degree of openness and trust than others. But typically, the group will develop a climate in which there is considerable frankness and willingness to ask for and give honest feedback. Occasionally the openness is facilitated by the absence of the trainer, as in this session.

We held our group separately, without the professor. It was a very worthwhile session. Individuals who had never contributed to the group suddenly "bame alive", and not only contributed to the grouo but also experssed their reelings as to what was happening. People were more open today ahd underlying conflicts were exposed and discussed. We became able to tell others how we felt without being afraid of the group's reaction.

The next day this group met with the professor again and the same student saw it this way:

I did not like what happened today. Harold made a mistake in the group and the group turned on him like a pack of wolves. I myself, felt that Harold's laugh was very gross and out of place and I reacted very negatively to him. However, I think we have opned Pandora's box and we may carry this too far. Had I been in Harold's position I would feel completely rejected and depresed to the point of tears. Harold knew he had made a mistake and do not feel that it was necessary for the group to act the way they did. I feel bad ever what happened. I have never overtly reacted as I did then ... at least our feelings are coming out and we are letting ourselves be known.

The following day, this same student saw the session this way :

Today was a healing session. We all seemed to sense that we had gone too far yesterday and wanted to heal the wounds that had develped. We discussed what had happened but not in the same emotinally agitated state we were in yesterday. I felt much better after the meeting. I also felt that this session disproved and dispelled my own fears about T-group training. I was concerned that the group might get away from us and turn into something we couldn't control. Harold and Arthur resumed a very cerdial relationship. Harold was very distraught at the beginning of the session but at the end he was much relieved and the group had increased their trust greatly. In fact, all in all, it was the most productive session we have had.

These excerpts capture some of the flavor of what went on in the five-week session. At the end of the course, 52 percent of the class rated the course "extremely valuable". By way of contrast, only 33 percent of the members of a similar M.B.A.class which met with the same professor in a comparable course two terms earlier rated that course "extremely valuable". That course was taught in a conventional way, not as a laboratory course.

There are, of course, limitations in conducting a laboratory in a classroom situation. Students are much affected by what happens outside the class and in a one-or two-hour class session, conducted two to four times a week, it is not possible to develop the degree of trust and openness possible in a live-in laboratory. In a one-week laboratory conducted in a motel or resort setting, the impact can become remarkably intense. But even in the class-rrom situation it is possible to develop a climate in which intense learning can take place. The remaining question is one that we have returned to time and again. How relevant is this learning to the requirements of the executive job? Are M.B.A. stu ents becoming better prepared for management jobs by such training? Are executive becoming better qualified to return to their management jobs when they are sent to this training? No firm answer can be given to these questions but the final section of this article makes some suggestions as to how business organisations and business schools can best use these techniques in the development of executives.

How can sensitivity training best be used to develop executives? In considering this question, I will concentrate on the feedback function of sensitivity training because, in my judgement, the key contribution of laboratory training to management development is its ability to provide executives with honest abd objective feedback on how they come through to others. T-groups, we have stressed, can let us see ourselves as others see us. It should be pointed out, however, that laboratory training has other functions or dimensions, some of them as significant as the feedback fuction to certain participants. In particular, such programs can provide the lonely, alienated, and is olated with the warmth of genuine human contact. In a recent article on sensitivity training, Dunnette quoted from a letter written to him by a friend at the close of a leve-in laboratory. The friends, who spoke of the closeness, affection, and warmth that his group experienced on its closing day, was responding to this dimension or function of sensitivity training. About this aspect of the training Dunnette has commented:

The excerpt from my friend's letter suggests to me that people are in deep need of love. In fact, it seems that the world needs love as it niver needed love before. By love I do not mean just sexual love nor simply the feeling of attraction, affection, or warm attachment for another person. Instead, I intend something close to the early Christian concept of a -gape, a sense of spontaneous giving of the self, the free expression of self in interaction with others, without calculation of cost or gain to either the giver or the receiver, and a deep commitment to the worth and humanity of man.

I cannot support my assertion with much evidence ... Yet, I cannot fail to be impressed by actions and social movements that seem to denote an intense and pervasive need for more love.

I refer to the many current social revolts - the New Morality, the Hippies, and in particular to the explosive growth of group training programs ... Intimacy Training ... Sensitivity Training, T-Grouping, or Awareness Training.[43]

The artificiality and superficiality which many experience in our society today make a genuine encounter with other persons, and the warmth, love, sadness, and other emotions this brings, a remarkably powerful and rewarding experience. It can lead to the kinds of scenes described in the letter to Dunnette, Undoubtedly it can open new vistas of experience to people whose lives have been lived at a much more barren level. It can, as the Wall Street Journal story reported, lead an advertising company executive whose income was "high in five figures" to quite his job and work as a dish-washer at the sensitivity training camp:

This dimension of sensitivity training is real and very probably accounts for the almost religious ferver of many proponents of such training. But this dimension is not a major component of sensitivity programs aimed at developing executive effectiveness. For the development of executive skills, it is the feedback function which is most important and it is that function which this report stresses. In considering the feedback function of sensitivity programs and how this relates to executive development, these three key questions must be answered: How can the feedback be focused on the learning needs of executives? How can an executive's readiness (more important, his unreadiness) for such training be determined? What place, if any, does feedback training have in a business school curriculum?

How can laboratory training programs focus feedback on executive learning nees? Pure T-group training tends to be unfocussed and to have as its main consequences the personal growth and development of participants - with participants, in effect, determining their learning goals. For executive development more focus and structure are often used. The American Management Association Laboratories, referred to earlier, incorporate exercises which relate directly to the needs of top level executives. For example, at one point in the program the T-group must "fire" a participant. This is a very painful process both for those doing the "firing" and also for the persons being fired, who must find another group that will take them in. This exercise in included because one of the most difficult and yet one of the most important tasks a top executive faces is that of replacing a sub-ordinate executive whome he may like but who is not doing the job required of him. The exercise gives men greater insight into the discharge process and is intended to make participants more effective in this aspect of their roles.

The Blake training programs, which were credited with markedly increasing productivity in a large refinery, are heavily instumented and structured to lead to specific kinds of learning.[45] Laboratory techniques are used, but the behanior on which feed ack is being given is behavior directly relevant to the problems of executives and their organisations.

A variety of otherlaboratory programs are incorporating work-related exercises to orientfeedback and learning to the specific work roles of participants.[46] While most of these have not been subjected to careful research, they appear, promosing. Some of these programs even avoid the term sensitivity training bacuse they feel it has acquired negative connotations to business executives. Instead, the term laboratory training or some other term(Blake uses grid training, for example) is used. But the dynamics of the training involve at their core open and honest feedback from one participant to another about the impact of his behavior on others. These programs will undoubtedly continue and grow-regardless of what happens to the sensitivity training movement.

How can readiness, or unreadiness, for laboratory training be identified? There is a useful rule of thumb: don't send an executive to this program because he needs, it. As pointed out earlier, those who ne d most to improve their interpersonal skills tend to be those who not only profit least, but may even be demaged by the experience. Too much negative'feedback, too fast can lead to the overload phenomenon found at General Electric. In particular, men with low self-esteem, men who know they have problems and yet who have little hope of doing much about these problems can react to honest feedback with a "what's the use" attitude. They may even be overwheled by the reopening of all the old feelings of inadequacy. It is in this group that breakdowns occur. This is not to say that laboratory training cannot be of value to these people. If people with serve problems are fortunate enough to be warmly accepted in their laboratory groups, they can be helped greatly.

Unfortunately, however, people with se. . personality problems are not always likable and there is the risk they may be rejected by group members. These people may find sensitivity training just another of their life-long failures in interpersonal relations.

Sensitivity training or laboratory training for executives is not intended to be therebu for men with serious personality problems. It is oriented to the improvement of the effectiveness of already competent men. Other programs are available for men with severe personality problems.

But how is company management able to identify the degree of severity of personality problems? Most people have some rough edges which could profit by the abrasion of feedback from other people. How can anyone tell when the number or severity of these edges is too severe for laboratory training'? Again, there are a few rules of thumb that may be of some help. First, any executive who is regarded as promotable is probably competent and confident enough to "take" sensitivity training. Second, every executive who is considered for such training should be give a face-saving way of declining to participate. Refusal to participate in such training should not be recorded in a man's file and, ideally, such refusal would not prejudice his superior's views of him in any way. Laboratory training is not everybody's cup of tea. Men can be encouraged to participate. They should not be coerced into doing so. Although, admittedly, the distinction between encouragement and coercion is not always easy to make.

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What place, if any, does laboratory training have in the business school curriculum? After incorporating laboratory techniques in conventionally taught courses for a number of years, and after finally conducting an entire course as a laboratory, I am convinced by student reacting / has a place in the business cirriculum. A frequent and emphatic criticism of some M.B.A. curricula is concerned with the theoretical nature of much that is being taught. If education involves the inoulcation of information, attitudes, and skills - the typical curriculum is often exclusively oriented toward the information dimension and is very much lacking in the latter two components of learning. For some subjects this lack may not be serious. But for management, and for the behavioral sciences as applied to management this lack makes useful learning almost impossible, as Herbert Simon points out:

A major problem in teaching the bahavioral sciences effectively - and a major problem for the student in learning them - is to provide an effective counterpart to the laboratory.[48]

He goes on to argue for incorporating the third element of education - skills - in management education:

It is sometimes thought fashionable, in academic circles, to disparage the learning of "more" skills. One might argue, on the contrary, that the natural sciences owe their spectacular successes to never seprating "knowing" too far from "knowing" how.[49]

Laboratory training in management, making use of T-group and other sensitivity training methods but applying them to the development of managerial skills and insights, is a response to the needs Simon cites.

There is one major problem and it is the same problem which faces company use of laboratory training. Not all students are ready for open and honest feedback. It can be argued that because students are younger, they are more flexible; and because they have no organisation or work-role to return to and hence are not blocked from change by the expectations of their superiors, peers, and subordinates back on the job, they can change more easily. It is still true, however, that too much negative feedback can overwhelm even the most flexible person. Students have the added disadvantage of notin many cases, having a well-formed sense of idenfity. Laboratory training can help in their search for identify. But some students may not be ready for such help.

The conclusion must be that laboratory training cannot be made a required experience for all students. Either the laboratory course must be an elective, with provisions forpermitting students to drop the course even after customary deadlines for dropping courses have passed, or laboratory training should be included as part of a conventional course, with alternatives provided for those students who find laboratory training too threatening. (For example, a major research paper may be assigned or some other project not involving laboratory methods).

Conclusion

This review of sensitivity training, as a movement and as a method, has reported on he dramatic growth of this new training technique, The technique is essentially open and honest feedback in an unstructured small discussion group. Subjected to probably more research than any other management training technique, laboratory training has proved that it can lead to long-lasting changes in the job behavior of managers. While some of the changes are negative in that they lead to less effective executive behavior, it appears that the bulk of the changes are positive. And it appears that the better an executive he is when he goes to such programs, the more he gets out of them. (Or, perhaps more accuretely, we might conclude that poor executives tend to be helped least and may even be made less effective when subjected to the open and honest feedback of a laboratory training program). These programs have a strong impact even on the most hard-nosed executives. In addition to letting people know how others see them, the programs seem to be filling a need for interpersonal closeness, warmth, andlove that is not provided in the setting of a business organisation - or even in many families.

It is to this latter dimension, the warmth of the interpersonal encounters in sensitivity training, that the dramatic growth of such training is attributed. But this fact should not obscure the very great potential of these programs for providing feedback which can enable many executives to become more effective. The importance of selection effective executives for such training and not compelling insecure executives or ineffective executives to attend in order to "straighten them out" has / been stressed. Finally an argument has been made for the increased use of such programs both by companies and by business schools. This is because laboratory training has demonstrated its effectiveness in providing a way of learning managerial skills possible in no other way except by very costly trial-and-error experience on the job.

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4. Byron E.Calame,"The Truth Hurts, Some Companies See More Harm Than Good in Sensitivity Training", Wall Street Journal, July 14, 1969.

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15. Marrow, Behind the Mask, pp.19-23.

16. Argyris, "T.Group for Organisational Effectiveness", p.72.

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21 Mangham and Cooper, "Impact of T-Group", pp.53-72.

22. Campbell and Dunnette, "Effectiveness of T-Group Experience", p.98.

23. House, "T-Group Education", pp.23-30.

24. Campbell and Dunnette, "Effectiveness of T-Group Experience", p.98.

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26. Mangham and Cooper, "Impact of T-Groups", P.72.

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28. Campbell and Dunnette, "Effectiveness of T-Group Experience", p.76.

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39. F.F.Bales, "Interaction Process Analysis" (Cambridge: Addison-Wesley, 1950).

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41 Weschler and Reisel, "Inside a Sensitivity Training Group", pp.1-2.

42. These excepts are taken from daily logs or diaries kept by the twenty-six students who took Management 818 taught by the author at Michigan State University during the first summer session of 1969. The names which appear are not the real names of participants.

43. Marvin D.Dunnette, "People Feeling: Joy More Joy, and the "Slough of Despond", Journal of Applied Behavioral Science 5, No.1 (1969): 26.

44. Calame, " The Truth Hurts ", p.8.

45. Blake et. al., "Breakthrough in Organisation Development", p.143.

46. See, for example Henry A.Singer, "Experience Compression Laboratory", Training 6, No.8 (August 1969): 43-46.

47. In an evaluation of its M.B.A. curriculum, Michigan State Univeristy's Graduate School of Business Administion in 1967 surveyed alumni from 1961-1967 graduate classes who had gone to work for six major employers. The supervisors of these alumni were also surveyed. See, Winston Oberg, "Summary and Analysis of 1967 M.B.A. Graduate Survey Responses", Mimeographed, p.30.

48. Taken from the foreword by Herbert Simon in Anthony G.Athos and Robert E.Coffey, Behavior in Organisations: A Multidimensional View (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1968) p.vii.

49. Ibid, p.viii.

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T-GROUPS FOR ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

What causes dynamic, flexible, and enthusiastically committed executive teams to become sluggish and inflexible as time goes by ? Why do they no longer enjoy the intrinsic challenge of their work, but become motivated largely by wages and executive bonus plans?

Why do executives become conformists as a company becomes older and bigger? Why do they resist saying what they truly believe -- even when it is in the best interests of the company?

How is it possible to develop a top management team that is constantly innovating and taking risks?

It is inevitable that we get things done only when we create crises, check details, arouse fears, and penalize and reward in ways that inadvertently create "heroes" and "bums" among our executive group ?

Ask managers why such problems as these exist and their answers typically will be abstract and fatalistic:

- ________ "It's inevitable in a big business."
- ________ "Because of human nature."
- ________ "I'll be damned if I know, but every firm has these problems".
- ________ " They are part of the bone and fabric of the company".

Statements like these are true. Such problems are ingrained into corporate life. But in recent years there has evolved a new way of helping executives develop new inner resources which enable them to mitigate these organisational ills. I am referring to laboratory education--or "sensitivity training" as it is sometimes called. Particularly in the form of "T-Groups", it has rapidly become one of the most controversial educational experiences now available to management. Yet, as I will advocate in this article, if laboratory education is conducted competently, and if the right people attend, it can be very powerful educational experience.

Source : By Chris Argyris, Reproduced from Harvard Business Review, March-April, 1964.

How does laboratory education remedy the problems I have mentioned? By striving to expose and modify certain values held by typical executives, values which, unless modified and added to, serve to impair interpersonal effectiveness. As exhibit I explains, these values are ingrained in the pyramidal structure of the business enterprise. The exhibit summarizes several basic causes of management ineffectiveness as isolated by three studies: (1) in a large corporate division--30,000 employees, grossing $ 500 million per year; (2) a medium-size company-- 5,000 employees, grossing in excess of $ 50 million per year; and (3) a small company--300 employees. The results of these studies are reported in detail elsewhere.*

Change Through Education :

But how does one change an executive's values? One way is by a process of re-education. First there is an unfreezing of the old values, next the development of the new values, and finally a freezing of the new ones.

In order to begin the unfreezing process, the executives must experience the true ineffectiveness of the old values. This means they must have a "gut" experience of how incomplete the old values are. One way to achieve this is to give them a task to accomplish in situations where their power, control, and organisational influences are minimized. The ineffectiveness of the old values, if our analysis is correct, should then become apparent.

A second requirement of re-education arises from the fact that the overshelming number of educational processes available (e.g. lecture, group discussion, and the like) are based on the pyramidal values. Each lecture or seminar at a university has clearly defined objectives and is hopefully staffed by a rational, articlate teacher who is capable of controlling, directing, and appropriately rewarding and penalizing the students. But, as I have just suggested, these represent some of the basic causes of the problems under study. The educator is in a bond, If he teaches by the traditional methods, he is utilizing the very values that he is holding up to be incomplete and ineffective.

* Chris Argyris, Interpersonal Competence and Organizational Effectiveness (Homewood, Illinois, Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1962); Understanding Organizational Behaviour (Homewood, Illinois, The Dorsey Press, Inc. 1960; and Explorations in Human, Competence (manuscript, Department of Industrial Admnistration, Yale University, New Haven, 1964).

To make matters more difficult, if 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. Briefly, authentic relationships exist when an individual can behave in such a way as to increase his self-awareness and esteem and at the same time, provide an opportunity for others to do the same. Psychological success is the experience of realistically challenging situations that tax one's capacities. Both are key components of executive competence.

The creation of a re-educational process where the unfreezing of the old values, relearning of the new values, and refreezing of the new values, under primary control of the students, embeded in a culture that is rarely found in our society, is an extremely difficult task. Yet an approach to fulfilling these requirements is offered by laboratory education.

Probably because of its novelty, laboratory education has become one of the most talked about, experimented with, lauded, and questioned educational experiences for top executives. The interest of top executives has been so great that the National Training Laboratories (a nonprofit educational organization which administers most of the laboratories) has had to increase the programs manifold in the past ten years.*

My educational experience that is as novel as laboratory education is destined to be controversial. And this is good because reasoned controversy can be the basis for corrections, refinements, and expansions of the process. Research (unfortunately not enough) is being conducted under the auspices of the National Training Laboratories and at various universities such as the University of California, Case Institute of Technology, Columbia, George Washington, Harvard, M.I.T., Michigan, Texas, and Yale to name a few.

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* For information regarding the training laboratories that are available, one may write to Dr. Laland P. Bradford, National Training Laboratories, Washington, 6, D.C.

Aims of Program :

The first step in a laboratory program is to help the executives teach themselves as much about their behaviour as possible. To do so they create their own laboratory in which to experiment. This is why the educational process has been called "laboratory education". The strategy of an experiment begins with a dilemma. A dilemma occurs when, for a given situation, there is no sound basis for selecting among alternatives, or there is no satisfactory alternative to select, or when habitual actions are no long longer effective.

What do people do when confronted with a dilemma? Their immediate reaction is to try out older methods of behaving with which they are secure, or else to seek guidance from an "expert". In this way, the anxiety so invariably associated with not knowing what to do can be avoided. In the laboratory, then the anticipated first reactions by participants to a adilemma are to try traditional ways of responding.

Only when conventional or traditional ways of dealing with a dilemma have been tried - unsuccessfully -- are conditions ripe for inventive action. Now people are ready to think, to shed old notions because they have not worked, to experiment, and to explore new ways of reacting to see if they will work. The period when old behavior is being abandoned and when new behavior has yet to be invented to replace it is an "unfrozen" period, at times having some of the aspects of a crisis. It is surrounded by uncertainty and confusion.*

Fullest learning from the dilemma-invention situation occurs when two additional types of action are taken:

One is feedback, the process by which members acquaint one another with their own characteristic ways of feeling and reacting in a dilemma-invention situation. Feedback aids in evaluating the consequences of actions that have been taken as a result of the dilemma situation. By " effective" feedback I mean the kind of feedback which minimizes the probability of the receiver or sender becoming defensive and maximizes his opportunity to "own" values. feeling, and attitudes. By "own" I mean being aware of and accepting responsibility for one's behavior.

* See Robert K. Blake and Jane S. Mouton, The Managerial Grid (Houston, Texas, Gulf Publishing Co., 1963).

The final step in the dilemma-invention cycle is generalizing about, the total sequence to get a comprehensive picture of the "common case". When this is done, people are searching to see to what extent behaviour observed under laboratory conditions fits outside situations. If generalization is not attempted, the richness of dilemma-invemtion learning is "lost".

T for Training :

The core of most laboratories is the T (for training) group.* This is most difficult to describe in a few words. Basically it is a group experience designed to provide maximum possible opportunity for the individuals to expose their behaviour, give and receive feedback, experiment with new behaviour, and develop everlasting awareness and acceptance of self and others. The T-group, when effective, also provides individuals with the opportunity to earn the nature of effective group functioning. They are able to learn how to develop a group that achieves specific goals with minimum possible human cost.

The T-group becomes a learning experience that most closely approximates the values of the laboratory regarding the use of leadership, rewards, penalties, and information in the development of effective groups. It is in the T-group that one learns how to diagnose his own behaviour, to develop effective leadership behaviour and norms for decision making that truly protect the "wild duck".

Role of Educator :

In these groups, some of the learning comes from the educator, but most of it from the members interacting with each other. The "ground rules" the group establishes for feedback are important. With the help of the educator, the group usually comes to see the difference between providing help and attempting to control or punish a member; between analysing and interpreting a member's adjustment (which is not helpful) and informing him of the impact it has on others. Typically, certain features of everyday group activity are blurred or removed. The educator, for

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* For a detailed summary of research related to laboratory education, see Dorothy Stock, "A Summary of Research on Training Groups" in T. Group Theory and Laboratory Method; Innovation in Education, edited by Leland Bradford, Kanneth Benne, and Jack Gibb (New York, John Wiley & Sons, Inc. 1964)

example, does not provide the leadership which a group of "students" would normally expect. This produces a kind of "power vacuum" and a great deal of behaviour which, in time, becomes the basis of learning.

There is no agenda, except as the group provides it. There are no norms of group operation (such as Robert's Rules of Order) except as the group decides to adopt them. For some time the experience is confusing, tension-laden, frustrating for most participants. But these conditions have been found to be conducive to learning. Naturally, some individuals learn a great deal, while others resist the whole process. It is rare, however, for an individual to end a two-week experience feeling that he has learned nothing.

Usually the T-group begins with the educator making explicit that it is designed to help human beings to

---- --- explore their values and their impact on others,
--------- determine if they wish to modify their old values and develop new ones,
---------develop awareness of how groups can inhibit as well as facilitate human growth and decision making.

Thus a T-group does not begin without an objective, as far as the educator is concerned. It has a purpose, and this purpose, for the educator, is emotionally and intellectually clear.

However, the educator realizes that the purpose is, at the moment, only intellectually clear to the members. Thus, to begin, the educator will probably state that he has no specific goals in mind for the group. Moreover, he offers no specific agenda, no regulations, no rules, and so on. The group is created so its members can determine their own leadership, goals, and rules.

There is very little that is nondirective about a T-group educator's role. He is highly concerned with growth, and he acts in ways that he hopes will enhance development. He is non-directive, however, in the sense that he does not require others to accept these conditions. As one member of the T-group, he will strive sincerely and openly to help establish a culture that can lead to increased authentic relationships and interpersonal competence.

However, he realizes that he can push those in the group just so far. If he goes too far, he will fall into the trap of master-minding their education. This is a trap in which group members might like to see him fall, since it would decrease their uncomfortableness and place him in a social system similar (in values) to their own. In other words, his silence, the lack of predefined objectives. leadership, agenda, rules, and so on are not lesigned to be malicious or hurt people. True, these experiences may hurt somewhat" hut the hypothesis is that the pain is "in the service of growth."

At this point, let me assume that you are a member of such a T-group, so that I can tell you what you are likely to experience.

Action & Reaction :

At the outset you are likely to expect that the educator will lead you. This expectation is understandable for several reasons:

1. An educator in our culture tends to do precisely this.

2. Because of the newness of the situation, the members may also fear that they are not competent to deal with it effectively. They naturally turn to the educator for assistance. It is common in our culture that when one member of a group has more information than the others as to how to cope with the new, difficult situation, he is expected by the others, if he cares for them, to help them cope with the new situation. For example, if I am in a cave with ten other people who are lost and I know how to get out, it would be from their viewpoint the height of noncaring for me to fail to help them get out.

3. Finally, the members may turn to the deducator because they have not as yet developed much trust for each other.

The educator may believe it is helpful, during the early stages of a T-group, to tell you that he understands why you feel dependent on him. But he will also add that he believes that learning can take place more effectively if you first develop an increasing sense of trust of one another and a feeling that you can learn from one another.

In my case, when I act as athe educator for a T-Group, I freely admit that silence is not typical of me and that I need to talk, to be active, to participate. In fact, I may even feel a mild hostility if I am in a situation in which I cannot participate in the way that I desire. Thus, anything you (members) can do to help me "unfreeze" by decreasing your dependence on me would be deeply appreciated. I add that I realize that this is not easy and that I will do my share.

Typically, the members begin to realize that the educator supports those individuals who show early signs of attempting to learn. This is especially true for those who show signs of being open, experimentally minded, and willing to take risks by exposing their behaviour. How are these qualities recognised?

There are several cues that are helpful. First, there is the individual who is not highly upset by the initial ambiguity of the situation and who is ready to begin to learn. On sign of such an individual is one who can be open about the confusiion that he is experiencing. He is able to own up to his feelings of being confused, without becoming hostile toward the educator or the others. Such an individual is willing to look at his and other's behaviour under stress, diagnose it, and attempt to learn from it. Some of these individuals even raise questions about other members' insistence that the deducator should get them out of the ambiguous situation.

Some members, on the other hand, react by insisting that the educator has created the ambiguity just to be hostile. You will find that the educator will encourage them to express their concern and hostility as well as help them to see the impact that his behaviour (i.e., hostility) is having on him. There are two reasons for the educator's intervention: (1) to reinforce (with feelings) the fact that he is not callous about their feelings and that he is not consciously attempting to be hostile; and (2) to unfreeze others to explore their hostility toward him or toward each other. Such explorations can provide rich data for the group to diagnose and from which to learn.

<u>Problem of Mimicking</u> :

As the group continues, some members begin to realize that the educator's behaviour now may serve for what it is. That is, it may be as valid a model as the educator can manifest of how he would attempt (a) to help create an effective group, and (b) to integrate himself into that group so that he becomes as fully functioning a membera sas possible. The model is his; he admits owning it, but he is not attempting to "sell" it to others or in any way to coerce them to own it.

You may wonder if viewing the educator as a source of "model behaviour" would not lead you simply to mimic him. (In the technical literature this is discussed as "identification with the leader," or "leader modeling behaviour".) Although *
begin to "unfreeze" your previous values and behaviour, you will find yourself in the situation of throwing away the old and having nothing new that is concrete and workable. This tends to create states of vacillation. Confusion, anxiety, ambivalence, and so on.* These states in turn may induce you to "har on" to the old with even greater tenacity. To begin to substitute the new behaviour for the old, you will feel a need to see (1) that you can carry out the new behaviour effectively and (2) that the new behaviour leads to the desired results.@

Under these conditions the members usually try out any bit of behaviour that represents the "new". Experimentation not only is sanctioned; it is rewarded. One relatively safe way to experiment is to "try out the educator's behaviour." It is at this point that the individual is mimicking. And he should feel free to mimic and to talk about the mimicking and explore it openly. Mimicking is helpful if you are aware of and accept the fact that you do not own the behavior, for the behaviour with which you are experimenting is the educator's. If the educator is not anxious about the mimicking, the member may begin to see whether or not the educator's behavior, is, for him, realistic.

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* Roger Barker, Bentrice A. Wright, and Mollie R. Gonick, "Adjustment to Physical Handicap and Illness" Social Science Research Council Bulletin 55, 1946, pp. 19 -54.

@ Ronald Lippitt, Jeanne Watson, and Bruce Westley, The Dynamics of Planned Change (New York, Harcourt, Braca & World; Inc. 1958).

This may be the case, we should not forget that as you

Individual Vs. Group :

At the outset the educator tends to provide that assistance which is designed to help the members to --

..... become aware of their present (usually) low potential for establishing authentic relationships.

..... become more skillful in providing and receiving non-evaluative descriptive feedback.

..... mimimize their own and others' defensiveness,

..... become increasingly able to experience and own up to their feelings.

Although interpersonal assistance is crucial, it is also important that the T-group not be limited to such interventions. After the members receive adequate feedback from one another as to their inability to create authentic relationships, they will tend to want to become more effective in their interpersonal relationships. It is at this point that they will need to learn that group structure and dynamics deeply influence the probability of increasing the authenticity of their interpersonal relations, For example:

As soon as the members realize that they must becomem more open with those feelings that typically they have learned to hide, they will need to establish group norms to sanction the expression of these feelings. Also, if members find it difficult in the group to express their important feelings, this difficulty will tend to be compounded if they feel they must "rush" their contribution and "say something quick", lest someone else take over the communication channels. Ways must be developed by which members are able to use their share of the communication channels. Also, group norms are required that sanction silence and thought, so that members do not feel coerced to say something, before they have thought it through, out of fear that they will not have an opportunity to say anything later.

An example of the interrelationship between interpersonal and group factors may be seen in the problems of developing leadership in a group. One of the recurring problems in the early stages of a T-group is the apparent need on the part of members to appoint a leader or a chairman.

Typically, this need is rationalized as a group need because "without an appointed leader a group cannot be effective." For example, one member said, "Look, I think the first thing we need is to elect a leader. Without a leader we are going to get nowhere fast." Another added, "Brother, you are right. Without leadership, there is chaos. People hate to take responsibility and without a leader they will goof off."

There are several ways that your group might consider for --coping with this problem, each of which provides impor-tant but different kinds of learnings:

One approach is to see this as a group problem. How does leadership arise and remain helpful in a group? This level of learning is important and needs to be achieved.

Another possibility is for the group members to explore the underlying assumptions expressed by those individuals who want to appoint leaders. For example, in the case illus-trated above, both men began to realize that they were assuming that people "need" appointed leadership because, if left alone, they will not tend to accept responsibility. This implies a lack of confidence in and trust of people. It also implies mistrust of the people around the table. These men were suggesting that without an appointed leader the group will flounder tand become chaotic. Some one then took the initiative and suggested that their comments implied a lack of trust of the people around the table. Another individual suggested that another dimension of mistrust might also be operating. He was concerned how he would decide if he could trust the man who might be appointed as the leader. The discussion that followed illustrated to the group the double direction of the problem of trust. Not only do superiors have feelings of mistrust of csubordinates, but the latter may also mistrust the former.

One of the defendents of the need for leadership then said, "Look, Mr. B. over there has been trying to say something for half an hour, and hansn't succeeded. If we had a leader, or if he himself were appointed leader temporarily, then he might get his point of view across." Several agreed with the observation. However, two added some further insightful comments. One said, "If we give Mr. B. authority, he will never have to develop his internal strength so that he can get his point across without power behind him." "Moreover," the other added, "if he does get appointed leader, the group will never have to face the problem of how it can help to create the conditions for Mr. B. to express his point of view." Thus we see that attempting to cope with the basic problems of group membership can lead to an exploration of problem of group membership as well as requirements of effectively functioning groups.

The question of trust, therefore, is a central problem in a T-group, indeed, as it is in any group organisation. If this can be resolved, then the group has taken an important step in developing authentic relationships. As the degree of trust increases, "functional leadership" will tend to arise spontaneously because individuals in a climate of mutual trust will tend to delegate leadership to those who are most competent for the subject being discussed. In doing so, they also learn an important lesson about effective leadership.

Another kind of learning that usually develops clearly is that the group will not tend to become an effective task oriented unit without having established effective means to diagenose problems, make decisions and so on. It is as the group becomes a decision-making unit that the members can "test" the strength and depth of their learning. The pressure and stress of decision making can help to show the degree to which authenticity is aparent rather than real. It can also provide opportunity for further learning, because the members will tend to experience new aspects of themselves as they attempt to solve problems and make decisions.

Further Components :

Laboratory education has other components. I have focused in detail on T-groups because of their central role. This by no means describes the total laboratory experience. For example, laboratory education is helpful in diagnosing one's organisational problems.

Diagnosing problems. When a laboratory program is composed of a group of executives who work in the same firm, the organisational diagnostic experiences are very important. Each executive is asked to come to the laboratory with any agenda or topic that is important to him and to the organisation. During the laboratory, he is asked to lead the group in a discussion of the topic. The discussion is taped and observed by the staff (with the knowledge of the members.)

Once the discussion is completed, the group members listen to themselves on the tape. They analyze the interpersonal and group dynamics that occurred in the making of the decision and study how these factors influenced their decision making. Usually, they hear how they cut each other off, did not listen, manipulated, pressured, created win-lose alternatives, and so on.

Such an analysis typically leads the executives to ask such questions as; why do we do this to each other? What do we wish to do about it, if anything ?

On the basis of my experience, executives become highly involved in answering these questions. Few hold back from citing interpersonal and organisational reasons why they feel they have to behave as they do. Most deplore the fact that time must be wasted and much energy utilized in this "windmilling" behavior. It is quite frequent for someone to ask, "But if we don't like this, why don't we do something about it?"

Under these conditions, the things learned in the laboratory are intimately inter-related with the everyday "real" problems of the organisation. Where this has occurred the members do not return to the organisation with the same degree of bewilderment that executives show who have gone to laboratories full of strangers. In the latter case, it is quite common for the executive to be puzzled as to how he will use what he has learned about human competence when he returns home. *

Consultation Groups: Another learning experience frequently used is to break down the participants into groups of four. Sessions are held where each individual has the opportunity both to act as a consultant giving help and as an indivudual receiving help. The nature of help is usually related to increasing self-awareness and self-acceptance with the view of enhancing interpersonal competence.

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* For an example, see Argyris, Interpersonal Competence and Organizational Effectiveness, op. cit, Chapter 9---13.

Lectures. As I pointed out above, research information and theories designed to help organisational learning are presented in lectures - typically at a time when it is most clearly related to the learnings that the participants are experiencing in a laboratory.

Role-Playing of "Real" Situations. As a result of the discussions at the laboratory program, many data are collected illustrating situations in which poor communications exist, objectives are not being achieved as intended, and so on.

It is possible in a laboratory to role play may of these situations, to diagnose them, to obtain new insights regarding the difficulties, as well as to develop more effective action possibilities. These can be role-played by asking the executives to play their back-home role. For other problems, however, important learnings are gained by asking the superiors to take the subordinates role.

Developing and Testing Recommendations. In most organizations, excutives, acknowledge that there are long-range problems that plague an organisation, but that they do not have time to analyse them thoroughly in the back-home situation (for example, effectiveness of decentralisation). In a laboratory, however, time is available for them to discuss these problems throughly. More important, as a result of their laboratory learnings and with the assistance of the educators, they could develop new action recommendations. They could diagnose their effectiveness as a group in developkng these recommendations - have they really changed; have they really enhanced their effectiveness?

Intergroup Problems.. One of the central problems of organizations is the intergroup rivalries that exist among departments. If there is time in a laboratory, this topic should be dealt with. Again, it is best introduced by creating the situation where the executives compete against one another in groups under "win-loose" conditions (i.e., where only one can win and someone must lose.)

Correcting Mis-understanding :

An educational activity that is as new and controversial as laboratory education is bound to have mis-conceptions and mis-understandings built around it. Therefore, I should like to attempt briefly to correct a few of the more commonly heard mis-understandings about laboratory education.

1. laboratory methods in general, and T-groups in particular are not a set of hidden, manipulative processes by which individuals can be "brainwashed" into thinking, believing, and feeling the way some one might want them to without realizing what is happening to them.

Central to a laboratory is openness and flexibility in the educational process. It is open in that it is continually decribed anddiscussed with the participants as well as constantly open to modification by them.

Along with the de-emphasis of rigidity and emphasis on flexibility, the emphasis is on teaching that kind of knowledge and helping the participants develop those kinds of skills which increase the strength and competence to question, to examine, and to modify, The objectives of a laboratory are to help an individual learn to be able to reject that which he deeply believes is sinimical to his self-esteeem and to his growth-and this would include, if necessary, the rejection of the laboratory experience.

2. A laboratory is not an educational process guided by a staff leader who is covertly in control and by some magic hides this fact from the participants.

A laboratory means that people come together and create a setting where (as is the case in any laboratory) they generate their own data for learning. This means that they are in control and that any behaviour in the laboratory, includ ing the staff members is fair game for analysis.

I should like to suggest the hypothesis that if anything is a threat to the participants, it is not the so-called covert control. The experience becomes painful when the participants begin to realise the scope and depth to which the staff is ready "to turn things over to them." Initially this is seen by many participants as the staff abdicating leadership.

Those who truly learn come to realise that in doing this the staff is expressing, in a most genuine way, their faith in the potentiality of the participants to develop increasing competence in controlling more of their learning. As this awareness increases, the participants usually begin to see that their cry of "abdication of leadership" is more of a camouflage that hides from them how little they trusted each other and themselves and how over-protected they were in the past from being made to assume some responsibility for their learning.

3. The objective of laboratory education is not to suppress conflict and to get everyone to like one another.

The idea that this is the objective is so patently untrue that I am beginning to wonder if those who use it do not betray their own anxiety more than they describe what goes on in a laboratory. There is no other educational process that I am aware of in which conflict is generated, respected, and cherished. Here conflict, hostility, and frustration become motivations for growth as well as food for learning. It is with these kinds of experiences that participants learn to take risks - the kinds of risks that can lead to an increase in self-esteem. As these experiences are "worked through" and the learnings internalized, participants soon begin to experience a deeper sense of self-awareness and acceptance. These, in turn, lead to an increased awareness and acceptance of others.

And this does not necessarily mean liking people. Self-acceptance means that individuals are aware of themselves and care so much about themselves that they open themselves to receiving and giving information (some times painful) about their impact on others and others impact on them, so that they can grow and become more competent.

4. Laboratory education does not attempt to teach people to be callous, dis-respectful of society, and to dislike those who live a less open life.

If one truly begins to accept himself, he will be less inclined to condemn non-genuineness in others, but to see it for what it is, a way of coping with a nongenuine world by a person who is (understandably) a nongenuine individuals.

5. Laboratory education is neither psycho-analysis for intensive group therapy

During the past several years I have been meeting with a group of psychiatrists and clinical psychologists who are trying to differentiate between group therapy and everything else. One problem we discovered is that therapists define therapy as any change. The difficulty with this definition is that it means any change is therapy.

We have concluded that it may be best to conceive of a continuum, of "more" or "less" therapy. The more the group deals with unconscious motivations, uses clinical constructs, focuses on "Personal past history", and is guided in these activities by the leader, the more it is therapy. Therapy is usually characterized by high proportions of these activities, because the individuals who are participating are so conflicted or defensive that they are not able to learn from each other without these activities.

In my view, a T-group is - or should be - a group that contains individuals whose internal conflicts are low enough to learn by :

Dealing with "here and now" behavior (what is going on in the room.)

Using relatively nonclinical concepts and non-clinical theory.

Focussing on relatively conscious (or at most pre-conscious) material.

Being guided increasing less by the leader and increasingly more by each others.

Accomplishing this in a relatively (to therapy) short time (at the moment, no more than three weeks.)

This does not mean that T-groups do not, at times, get into deeper and less conscious problems. They do; and, again, they vary primarily with the staff member's biases. Usually, most educators warn the group members against striving to become "two bit" psychologists.

6. <u>Laboratory education does not have to be dangerous, but it must focus on feelings.</u>

Interpersonal problems and personal feelings exist at all levels of the organisation, serving to inhibit and decrease the effectiveness of the system. Does it seem to be logical (in fact, moral) for a company to say that it is not going to focus on some thing that people are already experiencing and feeling? The truth is that people do not focus on interpersonal problems every hour of the day. They simply do not do it openly.

Now for the argument that the laboratory program can hurt people and is, therefore, dangerous. The facts of life are that people are being hurt every day. I do not know of any laboratory program that did, or could, create for people as much tension as they are experiencing in their everyday work relationships.

It is true that laboratory education does require peoople to take risks. But does anyone know of any learning that truly leads to growth which does not involve some pain and cost? The value of laboratory education is that it keeps out the people who want to learn "cheaply" and it provides the others with control over how much they wish to learn and what they want to pay for it.

7. <u>The objective of laboratory education is to develop effective reality centered leaders</u>.

Some people have expressed concern that if an executives give through such a learning experience, he might somehow become a weak leader. Much depends on how one defines strong leadership. If strong leadership means unilateral domination and directiveness, then the individual will tend to become "weaker". But why is cuch leadership strong? Indeed, as I have suggested, it may be weak. Also it tends to develop subordinates who conform, fear to take risks, and are not open, and an organisation that becomes increasingly rigid and has less vitality.

Nor can one use the argument that directive leadership has worked and that is why it should remain. There are data to suggest that directive leadership can help an organisation under certain conditions (e.g. for routine decisions and under extreme emergencies.) But these conditions are limited. If directive leadership is effective beyond these relatively narrow conditions, it may be because of a self-fulfilling prophecy. Directive leadership creates dependence, submissiveness, and conformity. Under these conditions subordinates will tend to be afraid to use their initiative. Consequently, the superior will tend to fill in the vacuum with directive leadership. We now have a closed cycle.

The fact is that directive leaders who learn at a laboratory do not tend to throw away their directive skills. Rather, they seem to use directive leadership where and when it is appropriate. It cannot be emphasized too strongly that there is nothing in laboratory education which requires an individual to throw away a particular leadership pattern. The most laboratory education can do is help the individual see certain unitended consequences and costs of his leadership, and help him to develop other leadership styles if he wishes.

8. <u>Change is not guaranteed as a result of attendance</u>.

Sometimes I hear it said that laboratory education is not worthwhile, because some individuals who have attended do not change, or if they do change, it is only for a relatively short period of time.

Let me acknowledge that there is an immense gap in our knowledge about the effectiveness of a laboratory. Much research needs to be done before we know exactly what the payoff is in laboratory education. However, there are a few statements that can be made partially on the basis of research and experience and partially on the basis of theory.

One of the crucial learnings of a laboratory is related to the development of openness and trust in human relationships. These factors are not generated easily in a group. It takes much effort and risk. Those who develop trust in a group learn something very important about it. Trust cannot be issued, inspired, delegated, and transferred. It is an interpersonal factor which has to be <u>earned</u> in each relationship. This is what makes trust difficult to develop and precious to have.

Thus, it does not make very much sense to expect that suddenly an individual will act as if he can trust and can be trusted in a setting where this was never true. One executive was needled by the corporate president, who observed that he had not seen any change in the former's behaviour. The executive responded: "What makes you think I feel free to change my behaviour in front of you"?

This remark points up the possibility that if there is not any observable change, it could mean that the individual has not learned much. But it could also mean that he has learned a great deal, including the fact that he ought not to behave, differently when he returns. For, it must be emphasized, laboratory education is only a partial attack on the problem of organizational effectiveness. If the changes are to become permanent, one must also change the nature of the organizational structure, managerial controls, incentive systems, reward and penalty systems, and job designs.*

Impact on Organization

The impact of laboratory education on the effectiveness of an organization is extremely difficult to isolate and measure.@ Organizations are so complex, and their activities influenced by so many factors, that it is difficult to be precise in specifying the cause of the impact.

In one study that I conducted of the 20 top executives of a large corporate division, I did find a significant shift on the part of the experimental group toward a set of values that encouraged the executives to handle feelings

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* For a more theoretical discussion of this matter, see Chris Argyris, Integration the Individual and the Organization (new york, John Wiley & Sons. Inc. 1964).

@ Robert K. Blake and Jane S. Moution, "Toward Achieving Organization Execellence," in Organizational Change. edited by Warren Bennis (New York, , John Wiley & Sons, Inc, 1964). As this article went to press, I read an excellent manuscript of a speech evaluating the effectiveness of laboratory education, "The Effect, of laboratory education upon Individual Behavior," given by Douglas R. Bunker before the Industrial Relations Research Association in Boston on December 28, 1963.

and emotions, deal with problems of group maintenance and develop greater feelings of responsibility on the part of their subordinates for the effectiveness of the organization. This shift is quantified in Exhibit II.

As the exhibit shows, the impact of laboratory education continued at a high level for a period in excess of six months. However, during the tenth month a fade-out began to appear. This was studied and data were obtained to suggest that the executives had not lost their capacity to behave in a more open and trustful manner, but they had to suppress some of this learning because the corporate president and the other divisional presidents who were not participants in the liboratory, did not understand them.

This finding points up two important problems. Change is not going to be effective and permanent until the total organization accepts the new values. Also, effective change does not mean that the executives must lose their capacity to behave according to the pyramidal values. They do so whenever it is necessary. However, no they have an additional way to behave, and they use it whenever possible. They report that irrespective of the problem of acceptance by others, they find the pyramidal values are effective when they are dealing primarily with routine, programmed decisions. The new values and manner ofleadership seem to be best suited for decisions that are unprogrammed, innovative, and require high commitment.

It is important to emphasize that laboratory education does not tell anyone what type of leadership to select. It does not urge him always to be more "democratic" or "collaborative." A successful laboratory helps the executives realize the unintended costs of the "old", develop "new" leadership behaviour and philosophies, and become competent in utilizing whatever leadership style is appropriate in a given situation. A laboratory helps an individual increase his repertory of leadership skills and his freedom to chosse how he will behave. If it coerces the executive, it is for him to become more reality-centered.

Another way of describing the impact of a laboratory program on an organization is for me to offer your excerpts from a type of a meeting where the executives discussed the difficulties as well as successes that they were having 30 days after the program. The first part of the tape contains a discussion of examples of of concrete changes which the members felt were a result of the laboratory.

Here is a sample of the changes reported :

(1) Executives reported the development of a new program for certain pricing policies that could not be agreed upon before, and laid part of the success to their new ability to sense feelings.

(2) One executive stated, "We are consciously trying to change our memos. For example, we found a way to decrease the 'win-lose' and 'rivalries.'.

(3) The personnel director reported a distinct improvement in the sensitivity of the line managers to the importance of personnel problems, which before the laboratory seemed to have a second-class status. He said he was especially pleased with the line executives new awareness of the complexity of personnel problems and their willingness to spend more time on solving them.

The rest of the tape is excerpted and presented in Exhibit III.

Conclusion

While I do not hold up laboratory education as a panacea to remedy all organizational problems, I do feel that six conclusions can fairly be drawn:

(1) Laboratory education is a very promissing educational process. Experience to date suggests that it can help some organizations to <u>begin</u> to overcome some of their problems.

(2) Laboratory education is <u>not</u> a panaces, nor is it a process that can help every organization. Furthermore, it must be followed by changes in the organization, its policies, managerial controls, and even, technology. Not all organizations can profit from it; nor do all organisations need similar amounts of it. All these factors should be carefully explored before becoming involved.

(3) Not all laboratory programs are alike. Some focus more on interpersonal learning, some on intellectual problem solving, some on small groups, some on intergrousp, and some on varying combinations of all of these. Again a careful diagnosis can help one to choose the right combination for the organization, as well as the appropriate educators. Nor are all

laboratory programs equally effective. The competence of the eductors can very tremendously, as well as the receptivity of those who attend. The best thing to do is to attempt to attend a laboratory program conducted by competent professionals.

(4) Openness, trust, commitment, and risk-taking grow only where the climate is supportive. A one-shot program, even at its best, can only begin the process of unfreezing the executive system. For optimum results, repeat or "booster" programs will be necessary.

(5) Although I personally believe that a laboratory program with the "natural" or actual working groups has the greatest probable payoff, it also has the greatest risk. However, one does not have to begin the process this way. There are many different ways to "seed" an organization, hoping to-develop increasing trust and risk-taking. The way that will be most effective can best be ascertained by appropriate study of the executive system.

(6) Finally, if you ever talk to an individual who has had a successful experience in a laboratory, you may wonder why he seems to have difficulty in describing the experience. I know I still have difficulty describing this type of education to a person who is a stranger toit.

I am beginning to realize that one reason for the difficulty in communication is that the meaningfulness of a laboratory experience varies enormously with each person. Some learn much; some learn little. I find that my learning has varied with the success of the laboratory. Some can hardly wait until it is over; others wish that it would never end. Anyone who understands a laboratory realizes that all these feelings can be real and valid. Consequently, to attempt to describe a laboratory (especially a T-group) to an individual who has never experienced one is difficult because he may be one of those persons who would not have enjoyed the process at all. Therefore, an enthusiastic description may sound hollow.

Another reasons why it is difficult to communicate is that the same words can have different meanings to different people. Thus one of the learnings consistently reported by people who have completed a laboratory is that the trust, openness, leveling, risk-taking (and others) take on a new meaning-a meaning that they had not appreciated before the laboratory. This makes it difficult for a person who found laboratory education meaningful to describe it to another. He may want very much to communicate the new meanings of trust, risk-taking, and so on, but he knows, from his own skepticism before the laboratory, that this is a difficult undertaking and that it is not likely to succeed.

The point to all this is that the results of laboratory education are always individualistic; they reflect the individual and the organization. The best way to learn about it is to experience it for one's self.

Exhibit I

THE PYRAMIDAL VALUES

There are certain values about effective human relationships that are inherent in the pyramidal structure of the business organization and which successful executives (understabdably) seem to hold. Values are learned commands which, once internalized, coerce human behavior in specific directions. This is why an appreciation of these values is basic in understanding behaviour.

What are these "Pyramidal" values? I would explain them this way.

1. The important human relationships-the crucial ones- are those which are related to achieving the organization's objective, i.e. getting the job done, as for example:

   " We are here to manufacture shoes, that is our business, those are the important human relationships; if you have anything that can influence those human relationships, fine."

2. Effectiveness in human relationships increases as behaviour become more rational, logical, and clearly communicated; but effectiveness decreases as behavior becomes more emotional. Let me illustrate by citing a typical conversation:

" Have you ever been in a metting where there is a lot of disagreement?"

*All the time".

"Have you ever been in a meeting when the disagreement got quite personal?"

"Well, yes I have, but not very often".

"What would you do if you were the leader of this group?"

" I would say, 'Gentlemen, let's get back to the fact,' or I would say, 'Gentlemen, let's keep personalities out of this.' If it really got bad, I would wish it were five O'clock so I could call it off, and then I would talk to the men individually."

3. Human relationships are most effectively motivated by carefully defined direction, authority, and control, as well as appropriate rewards and penalties that emphasize rational behaviour and achievement of the objective.

If these are the values held by most executives, what are the consequences? To the extent that executives believe in these organisational values, the following changes have been found to happen.

(1) There is a <u>decrease</u> in receiving and giving information about executives' interpersonal impact on each other. Their interpersonal difficulties tend to be either suppressed or disguised and brought up as rational, technical, intellectual problems. As a result, they may find it difficult

to develop competence in dealing with feelings and interpersonal relations. There is a corresponding decrease in their ability to own up to or be responsible for their ideas, feelings, and values. Similarly there is a dropping off or experimentation and risk-taking with new ideas and values.

(2) Along with the decrease in owning* openness, risk-taking, there is an <u>increase</u> in the denial of feelings, in closeness to new ideas, and in need for stability (i.e., "don't rock the boat"). As a result, executives tend to find themselves in situations where they are not adequately aware of the juman problems, where they do not solve them in such a way that they remain solved without deteriorating the problem-solving process. Thus, if we define interpersonal competence as (a) beingaware of human problems, (b) solving them in such a way that they remain solved, without deteriorating the problem-solving process, these values serve to decrease inter-personal competence.

(3) As the executives' interpersonal competence decreases, conformity, mistrust, and dependence, especially on those who are in power, increase, Decision making becomes <u>less effective</u>, because people withhold many of their ideas, especially those that are innovative and risky, and organizational defensses (such as management by crisis, management by detail and through fear) <u>increase.</u> So do such "protective" activities as "JIC" files (just in case the president asks), "information" meetings (to find out what the opposition is planning), and executive politicking.

If this analysis is valid, then we must alter executives' values if we are to make the system more effective. The question arises as to what changes can and <u>should</u> be made in these values.

But since executives are far from unknowledgeable, why have they clung to these pyramidal values? First, because they are not necessarily wrong. Indeed, they are a necessary part of effective human relationships. The difficulty is that alone they are not enough. By themselves they tend to lead to the above consequence. What is needed is an additional set of values for the executives to hold. Specifically there are three.

1. The important human relationships are not only those related to achieving the organization's objective but those related to maintaining the organization's internal system and adapting to the environment, as well.

2. Human relationships increase in effectiveness as all the relevant behaviour (rational and interpersonal) becomes conscious, discussable, and controllable. (The rationality of feelings is as crucial as that of the mind.)

3. In addition to direction, controls, and rewards and penalties, human relationships are most effectively influenced through authentic relationships, internal commitment, psychological success, and the process of confirmation. (These terms are clarified in the body of the article).

Exhibit II

BEFORE AND AFTER VALUES OF 11 EXECUTIVES WHO EXPERIENCED LABORATORY EDUCATION

	In an administrative situation, whenever possible.	before T-group	Six months After
1a.	The leader should translate interpersonal problems into rational intellective ones.	100%	10%
1b.	The leader should deal with the interpersonal problems.	0	81
2a.	The leader should stop emotional disagreement by redefining the rational purpose of the meeting.	90	10
2b.	The leader should bring out emotional disagreements and help them to be understood and resolved.	6	81
3a.	When strong emotions erupt, the leader should require himself and others to leave them alone and not deal with them.	100	18
3b.	When strong emotions erupt, the leader should require himself and offer others the opportunity to deal with them.	0	82
4a.	If it becomes necessary to deal with feelings, the leader should do it even if he feels he is not the best qualified.	100	9
4b.	The leader should encourage the most competent members.	0	90
5a.	The leader is competely responsible for keeping the group "on the track" during a meeting.	100	
5b.	The group members as well as the leader are responsible for keeping the group "on the track".	0	100

Exhibt III

DISCUSSION OF ATTITUDE CHANGES BY T-GROUP MEMBERS

The excerpt presented here mirrors the tone of the entire meeting. I have not purposely selected only that section in which the men praised the laboratory. If the men had criticised the laboratory, such criticism would have been included. As you may see, the researcher actually pushed the group for more negative comments.

Except for minor editing, these are direct quotes :

No. 4 (after reporting that his superior, a member of the experimental group, had made a decision which should have been left to him): I was really fuming. I was angry as hell. I walked into his office and I said to myself, "No matter what the hell happens, I am going to tell him that he cannot do that any more". Well, I told him so. I was quite emotional. You know it floored me. He looked at me and said, "You are right; I made a mistake, and I won't do that again." Well I just don't think he would have done that before.

No. 7 : The most important factor in motivaing people is not what you say or do; it's giving a person the opportunity to express his views and the feeling that one is seriously interested in his views. I do much less selling butit sure takes longer.

No. 2 : I'have had a problem. I now have a greater need for feedback than before, and I find it difficult to get. The discussion on internal commitment made much sense to me, and I try to see if I can create conditions for it.

The thing that bothers me is that I try to handle it correctly, but I don't get feedback or cues as to how well I'm doing, as I used to at the lab. The meeting is over, and you don't know whether you've seored or not. So after each meeting I've got 10 question marks. The things that before were never questions are not question marks.

You don't get feedback. You ask for something and they respond, " I know what you(re trying to do". They think I've something up my sleeve. All I want is to get feedback. It was obvious to me they were all waiting for me to make the decision. But I wanted them to make it. This was their baby, and I wanted them to make it. Two days later they made it. Fine, in this case I got feedback. The point was that their decision was a severe reversal, and I realize it was difficult for them to make. But they made it. Before, I simply would have pointed out the facts, and they would have "agreed" with the reversal, but down deep inside they would have felt that they could have continued on. As it is now, it's their decision. I think they now have a greater sense of internal commitment. People are now freer to disagree.

No. 11 : my list of decisions to be made is longer. I am hoping that they will make some decisions. I now know how much they wait for me.

No. 11 (after telling how he wrote a note which in effect damed No. 2 and maintained his own correctness, then reread it and realized how defensive he was): Before I wouldn't have even seen this.

No. 2 : One of our most difficult jobs will be to write our feelings and to write in such a way that others can express their feelings.

No. 3 : I have some difficulties in evaluating this program. What have we gotten out of this? What are we able to verbalize about what we got out of this? Do others of you have difficulty in verbalizing it?

No. 2 : I have the same difficulty. I have been totally ineffective describing the experience.

No. 8 : Each time I try I give a different answer.

No. 1 : I don't have too much difficulty. One thing that I am certain of is that I see people more as total human beings. I see aspects of them that I had never seen before.

No. 9 : I'm frustrated because I now realize the importance of face-to-face communication. I'm so far from the general managers that it is not so hot. Has anyone tried to write memos that really get feelings brough out?

I find myself questioning much more that I ever did before. I have a more questioning attitude. I take into account more factors.

No. 4 : We 've been talking about things as if we've slowed down a bit. We haven't. For example, remember you (No. 1) and I had a problem? I'm sure Arden House was very helpful. If I hadn't been there, my reaction to you would have been different. I would have fought you for hours.

No. 1 : I know we can talk to each other more clearly. It 's not a conscious way. It 's spontaneous.

No. 3: I have to agree we can make some decisions much faster. For example, with No. 2 I simply used to shut up. But now I can be more open. Before the laboratory, if I had an intuitive feeling that something was wrong, but I wasn't sure, I'd keep quiet until things got so bad that then I'd have a case to go to the boss. How I feel freer to talk about it sooner and with No. 2.

I now feel that we are going to say exactly how we feel to anyone. You(the president), for example, don't have to worry, and, therefore, question, probe, and draw us out.

PRESIDENT: Yes, and today I found No. 1, who told me that he simply would not agree with me. And I said to myself, "God bless you, He really is open now".

No. 1 : I agree, I would not have expressed this feeling before being in this group. It's obvious that one should but I didn't.

(No. 2 and No. 1 show real insight into how they are being manipulated by people outside and above the group. They are much more aware of the manipulative process. "This kind of manipulation is dynamite. It burns me up.").

No. 1 : Yes, it's really horrible to see it and not be able to do anything about it.

No. 7: In this case it seems to me you've got to really hit hard, because you're dealing with an untrained man (laughter)..................I think I now have a new understanding of decision making. I am now more keenly aware of the importance of getting a consensus so that the implementation is effective. I am not trying to say that I do this in every meeting. But I do strive more to give opportunity for consensus.

No. 1 : One of the problems that I feel is that the "initiated" get confused so they don't play the game correctly. Sometimes I feel walked upon, so I get sore. This is difficult. (Many others expressed agreement).

No. 6 : Does it help to say, "I trust you?" I think it does.

No. 11 : For example, No. 2 you went to a meeting where you admitted you had made a mistake. Boy, you should have heard the reaction. Boy, Mr. ____________________ admitted a mistake. Well, wonderful; it helped to get these guys to really feel motivated to get the job done.

No. 9 : Yes, I heard that many took on a deeper feeling of responsibility to get the program on the right track.

No. 7 : I'd like to come back to what No. 6 said. I used to say to people that I trusted them, that I was honest, and so on. But now I wonder if people really believe me, or if they don't begin to hink if I'm not covering that I'm not honest.

No. 3: Another example which I am now aware of is the typical way we write memos. We start off: "I have confidence in your judgement to handle this question," and so on. Few more paragraphs. Then fifth paragraph read: "Please confirm by return mail exactly what you have done and what controls have been set up."

No. 2 : I agree. We do an awful lot to control people. Although I think that we're trying.

(No. 7 gave examples of how he st[illegible]ed making a few phone calls to exert pressure. Other agreed).

THE RESEARCHER : Aren't there negative comments?

No. 11: We have one man who has chosen not to be here. I wonder why?

No. 3: Well, really, to me that is a sign of health in the group. He feels he would still be accepted even if he didn't come. It certainly would be easy for him to come and just sit here.

No. 1 : Yes, he wouldn't go to the trouble of avoiding a meeting that you didn't think was imporatnt.

No. 3 : The only negative that I can think is: *What can you tell me that actually increases effectiveness? ?" I am not sure, but I must agree that there is a whole of a of a different climate.

No. 7: Well, I'd like to develop a list of things that we feel we have gotten out of this program so far. How do others of your feel? All agreed, "Let's try.").

(ALL GROUP MEMBERS REPORTING THEY REACHED THE FOLLOWING CONCLUSIONS):

(a) All of us begin to see ourselves as others see us.... a real plus.

(b) A degree of greater confidence in oneself in meetings and in interviews. Beginning to be more comfortable with self.

(c) Greater confidence in associates. We feel more secure that you're telling what you think.....Greater feeling of freedom of expression to say what you really think.

(d) Individuals have a greater understanding and appreciation of viewpoint of associates.

(e) Greater appreciation of the opposite viewpont.

(f) An awareness of what we do and others to that inhibits discussion.

(g) More effective use of our resources..... getting more them, and they feel this----patient to listen more.

(h) Meetings do not take longer and implementation is more effective. Internal commitment is greater.

(i) We have had a great realization that being only task-oriented, we will not get the best results. We must not forget worrying about the organization and the people.

(j) We get more irritated to infrengement of our jobs and unique contributions.

(k) Fewer homemade crises.

No. 6 : One of the difficult things about the list is that when you look at it, you wake up to the fact that you have'nt really been using these principles. When you tell someone else who doesn't realize the gap between knowing something and actually doing it he doesn't realize.

No. 7 : But I think I really did learn and do care. Now when I think what I used to do , because that was the way. Today I realize that I could have had three times as much if I had known what I know how.

WHO LEARNS FROM T-GROUP EXPERIENCE ?

People who learn in T-groups seem to posses at least three attributes :

1. A realntively strong ego that is not overwhelmed by internal conflicts.

2. Defenses which are sufficiently low to allow the individual to hear what others say to him (accurately and with minimal threat to his self), without the aid of a professional scanning and filtering system (that is, the therapist, the educator).

3. The ability to communicate thoughts and feelings with minimal distortion. In other words, the operational criterion of minimal threat is that the individual does not tend to distort greatly what he or others say, nor does he tend to condemn others or himself.

This last criterion can be used in helping to select individuals for the T-group experience. If the individual must distort or condemn himself or others to the point that he is unable to do anything but to continue to distort the feedback that he gives and receives, then he ought not to be admitted to a T-group.

To put this another way, T-groups, compared to therapy groups, assume a higher degree of health - not illness-- that is, a higher degree of self-awareness, and acceptance. This is an important point. Individuals should not be sent to the laboratory if they are highly defensive. Rather, the relatively healthy indivudals capable of learning from others to enhance their degree of effectiveness are the kinds of individuals to be selected to attend.

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rawat/--
19.5.1974.

MANAGERIAL GRID FOR BETTER PERSONNEL PERFORMANCE

-- S. K. Screwvala

The question that is constantly asked is "what type of leadership behaviour produces organizational excellence?"

Admittedly the greatest single variable factor is the behaviour of the management team. One of the challenges of modern times is to develop greater managerial capability. Every manager has the responsibility of showing human problems associated with achieving maximum results through"Productive Utilization of People". In the total organizational complex, there are various blends of leadership styles such as autocratic, democratic, participative, production-centred, people-centred etc.

If we look at the three characteristics of an organization namely: (1) Purpose (Production of goods, services, profits), (2) People (No organization is without them), (3) Hierarchy (Some people are bosses others are bossed); we will realise that the problem of boss-subordinate relationship is far more complex than can possibly be pictured by any job-description.

Therefore the question is, "How are organizational purposes achieved through people by bosses". There are a variety of theories regarding managerial behaviour on the above characteristics which are described as :

(a) Concern for production
(b) Concern for people
(c) Boss-subordinate relationship.

The word "concern for" does not mean the amount of production in quantity or productivity nor does it reger to the degree in which the needs of the people are met such as salary, benefits etc. It means total involvement of the individual with the organization goals. The supervisors' or managers, concern for people, problems, work situation and how they inter-twine.

In chart 'A' the horizontal axis indicates concern for production (purpose) while the vertical axis indicates concern for people. Each is a 9 pt. scale. 1 represents minimum concern and 9 represents maximum concern. There are five theories which define a definite set of assumptions of how individuals orient themselves in different situations. Furthermore we may not be aware of our behaviour and assumption that guide our actions in dealing with production people. This may be due to such pressures which arise from:

(1) Inside oneself
(2) Immediate external situation
(3) From characteristics of the organisation including traditions.

The purpose of this theory is to acquire more knowledge about our own assumptions and how to manage better.

9: Managerial Style

In the lower right hand corner of the chart is 9:1 style. At this position a high concern for production (9) is coupled with low concern for People (1).

In the 9:1 Managerial style the assumption is that somehow there is an inevitable contradication between organizational needs and personal needs. If one is to be met the other must be sacrificed. The 9:1 orientation seeks to resolve the dilemma by arranging conditions of work which minimise interference of human feelings with efficiency and output. The 9:1 manager is an exacting task master. He drives himself and his people with one thought: "Action to Produce Results". The 9:1 manager is an autocrat authoritarian. He will plan and the subordinates will execute the plan. People must do what they are told to do--no more, no less.

The relationship of a Supervisor to a Subordinate is along the lines of authority and obedience. A Subordinate must do what he is told to do and ask no questions. The assumption of a 9:1 manager is that subordinates don't like to work therefore, they must be constantly pushed and told what they should do.

Secondly if they were intelligent enough, they wouldn't be in that subordinate position. Thirdly the assumption is that subordinates are like children who need constant watching. Due to these assumptions the 9:1 manager feels that only exercise of authority will result in production.

In 9:1 mistakes are viewed very seriously. They are attributed to human error. The supervisor must find out who is responsible and immediate action must be taken against subordinates. People in the organisation must be alert, errors are not tolerated,

Here the managers' goal is likely to be very high, while goals of subordinates are more or less ignored. Subordinates have no part in setting targets but have to achieve it by whatever means necessary.

There is no team approach. The supervisor or manager bosses over his subordinates. Produce or perish is the reality to recognise.

Communication system resembles a military pattern. Office bulletins, notice boards convey orders. Communication upwards is limited to reporting on actions accomplished and deviations from expected results.

On the other side of the coin-the subordinate's attitude to his boss is. "I must prove myself via production figures". The subordinate gets his reward on performance so he exerts pressure below to get results. He extends no sympathy and asks for no liniency.

In 9:1 style morale needs constant watching. If out of hand it can play havoc. The attitude is that if men are supervised strictly, seeing that they have plenty to do with clear high quality instructions, leaves no time for them to gripe. The morale problem can only arise due to soft leadership.

Conflict, illogical disagreement, win loose arguments, evidence of emotional tension, etc. cannot be allowed to permeate the work situation. Leverage strategies and subtle coercion are also used to make unwated people miserable.

New or better ways of doing old things, innovations that from material progress towards better living is not encouraged from below. The boss will say "New ideas will come fromme". As a result, the creative abilities of people at the bottom are not always stifled but get stimulated in other directions to defeat the system and prevent it from working well, e.g. antiorganisation activity, damage to property; hiding tools, short circuiting assembly lines, etc.

The 9:1 manager who is committed to his style feels no tension in pushing himself and others as he chooses. The subordinate however just does what is expected of him, no more, no less. The result is that individuals recognise helplessness and join together for common strength and security. (Formation of unions).

Here the selection is made from persons with a good military record willing to sacrifice. As regards induction, the newcomer is thrown into the thick of things. Training in human relations is not given as that would make people soft.

The 9:1 style adults may have their parents demand an acceptable conduct in childhood. The child though seeking love and affection narely found it. Punishment was the swift consequence of idleness and misconduct. The parents strict attitude lives within the child and they become their own.

Due to competition, there is greater pressure for controls on performance. It is widely recognised that 9:1 management can achieve results. Directive leadership creates dependence, submissive behaviour and consequently the subordinates fill the gap with directive leadership to their subordinates.

However, significant factors, changing social values, unionisation etc., have begun to shift management thinking in other directions than 9:1.

<u>1:9 Managerial Style</u> :

In the upper left hand corner is the 1:9 managerial orientation. Here a low functional concern (1) for production is coupled with high concern for people (9). To the 1:9 style manager the attitudes and feelings of people are important. Here the manager avoids pressing for production and some of the decisions that disturb people. He gives broad assignments to his subordinates and conveys his confidence by congratulating them in group meetings which are held frequently. The motto here is "Don't say anything if you can't say something nice". In other words, 1:9 style focuses attention on the comfort, ease and security of the people. Here the subordinates should be aided, guided, supported, rather than goaded or commanded. In return the manager expects loyalty and devotion, not responsibility or accountability. The manager uses gentle persuation, requests and so on. The reaction of the subordinate is that "While I don't know if I respect may boss, at least I do like him".

Mistakes are not viewed seriously. The assumption is that pressure or disciplinary action only stirs up subordinates. As a result of this there is frequent looseness in the organisation in respect of performance, discipline, arrival time, lunch breake and occasional absence.

It is a demogratic atmosphere. Targets which everyone can support and agree on are set. As a result. there is no strong sense of stake in organisational success.

Contrary to 9:1 concept of isolation the 1:9 theory stands for togetherness. The work unit is one big happy family.

Here frequent meetings are held, ideas and thoughts are shared. The communication system is informal, it provides and outlet for social and emotional aspects of relationship.

Here the conflict is not suppressed, it is smoothed over. If subordinates question or challenge decisions, the manager tries to present it in another way. Acceptance by associates is important. Fashions, copying boss behaviour, is often found, People don't change jobs often here.

Selection is done on personal characteristies, manners, sociability, dress, hobbies, etc. Contrary to the 9:1 inducation of swim or sink, the 1:9 approach is to give the new employer the best possible picture of the organisation. Training is directed towards broadening the outlook.

The characteristics of a 1:9 style manager is to be a good guy and acceptance by others and good relationship is important. The result is that he is rarely in an initiating, exerting, leadership role.

Parents wanting their children to be loved, give affection as a means of moulding the child. Under these circumstances children learn that fighting is bad, acting in ways to please others is good.

The 1:9 style organization is promoted only where a company is operating on a cost plus basis where profits are inevitable and efficiency, tight controls, competition do not force the company to operate efficiently.

<u>1:1 Managerial Style</u> :

Here low concern for Production is coupled with low concern for people. The manager in this style experiences no dilemma as he is unconcerned and more of less out of it. He is described as "lost among".

Anomalous as it may seem, there are many managements today where supervision is pictured as 1:1. This approach is an accepted defeat, low involvement, minimum effort and contribution.

They act more or less as message carries. They would say"I talk to my boss and he tells me what to do next". He fills the supervisory position in a superficial way.

Here the manager does not exercise his powers or authority. His imprint is like the shadow on the sand and it leaves no permanent footprint. He sticks by the rules of minimum exposure and accountability.

A typical example is of 1:1 style manager returning from a monthly meeting where changes in policies and procedures where discussed. Each manager was told to make appropriate changes in his own area of responsibility. This is what he did. He called his five subordinates and mechanically read out the points noted at the meeting. He ticked each point as he read and later made a note that he had communicated completely and filed the notings. When asked by a subordinate, "How and when these changes are to be affected?" The manager replied "They didn't tell me clearly".

The manager here relieves himself of responsibility and is ever ready to blame his subordinate.

The manager under 1:1 style has no goals for accomplishment. He looks after his own security and retirement benefits. Position and status mean nothing to him.

In contrast to 9:1 and 1:9 style he isolates himself from both his boss and his subordinate. The 'count me out' attitude is adopted.

The subordinate's reaction is "The less I see my boss, the more comfortable I feel". Inability to get any decision from the boss eventually lands with the withdrawal of effort at all stages.

Communication is like the strictest form of message carrying.

The solution of the manager operating under 1:1 is to avoid conflict by literary withdrawing from the situation. In difficult situations he ignores it completely and does not act as a boss.

In this style creativity is lacking, observations point out that managers under 1:1 preserve interest in family life, community etc. The result is that lack of interest is likely to dampen efforts operating under and around such a manager. If he is ambitious, he won't remain long in a 1:1 organisation.

He goes along in a passive way and follows the rules of conduct. He avoids taking sides. He would say, "Bullets that fly over me don't hurt". He floats like a jellyfish responding to the motion of the waves without direction of his own.

Some parents allow their children to sulk and leave them in solitude (Go to your room and stay there alone). It is just one step forward for a frustrated adult to accommodate to organisational presure and tension by withdrawing.

The circumstances are likely to come from a simple matter of failure to be able to meet the demands placed on him e.g. Government organisation of where a person is repeatedly bypassed in promotion or in situations where monotonous repetition and unchallenging work exists.

The manager under 1:1 can be described as "Being present, yet absent".

5:5 Managerial Style

The middle of the grid identifies 5:5. It is where intermediate concern for Production (5) is linked with moderate concern for people(5).

Rather than resolving the issue in the direction of production as in 9:1 or of people as in 1:9 or leaving the field as in 1:1 the 5:5 style is a compromise process. Extreme positions are avoided.

People are not driven, pushed or disregarded but the approach is to request, to sell and motivate people to want to work. The manager under 5:5 says, "I never give orders without explaining why and testing to see if people accept". It is a carrot and stick approach.

Here a fair but firm approach is taken. The carrot part is, "You can't blame a person if he wan't informed properly".

The stick part is, "Make it clear that recurrence will require disciplinary action".
The organizational purpose is to return profits but it also to provide satisfaction and security to people.
The relationship here is on a 'give and take' basis. Group meetings are frequently held, open suggestions are invited. This ayoids organizational tension.

The 5:5 approach is not to conflict head on. A lot of people don't know but a loser in a fight is a potential enemy when the next battle shapes up. Conflict is solved by keeping parties separate until a solution can be found.

There is not much enthusiastic creativity. Hence the subordinate tries to think like his boss.

Children are reared in such a way that they are concerned with right and wrong, good and bad habits, etc.

In the absence of a true and sound managerial base 5:5 is seen as superior to 9:1 system which generates intense warfare.

It is also superior to 1:9 approach of sweetness to people who become ineffective.

Many pressures are promoting trends in the directions of 5:5

Union management agreements in themselves tend to reinforce 5:5 problem solving because they give security in exchange for some managerial flexibility.

<u>9:9 Managerial Style</u> :

In the upper right hand corner is located 9:9, high concern for production coupled with high concern for people. Unlike other orientations, the approach here is towards discovering the best and most effective solution. Accomplishment and contribution are the critical aspects of organizational performance.

In management under 9:9 people and production are intercounnected. He views his responsibility to see that planning, directing and controlling are accomplished soundly. The 9:9 manager would say "My job is not only to make good decisions but surely to see that sound decisions are made and carried out". People are made to understand the problem and have a stake in the outcome.

The 9:9 assumption is that individuals must be aware of the organizational goals such as profit/loss figures, future policies etc; then direction and control is no longer necessary as authority and obedience.

Here the approach is an educational ohe. When mistakes occur it is embarrasing but the thing is to study the problem and learn from it.

Here individuals are conformed to achieve production goals which they embrace because they understand and agree with them. The individual and organizational purposes merge.

There is team action and synchronised effort by all like in a football team.

Here communication is actually understanding between people, exchange of information which stimulates trust and respect.

Although emphasis is on unity of effort, however, in the course of operations conflicts may be caused, tension and disagreement are inevitable. Here the approach is directly facing the conflict getting it out across the table and assessing the reasons involved. Conflict can also promote innovations, creativity and development of new ideas.

The word commitment in 9:9 style does not mean with holding disagreement, nor does it mean going along because it is expected. Commitment here is a personal desire to countribute to the organizational success for which one has accepted responsibility.

A realistic assessment of the man's capabilities and limitations, strength and weaknesses are properly ganged. Management training is part and parcel of 9:9 management. Development begins with the top team and then moves down to lower levels.

He is a real starter in the sense of initiating action motivation and contribution.

Here the child is driven by the parents to prove himself, his convictions, and demonstrate adequacy of self respect through discipline. The child must be confident of his acceptance and sound reasoning. The child as it grows to be an adult has been exposed to independent behaviour and derives confidence.

The condition promoting 9:9 is due to the upward shift in the general education of the people. Persons possessing skills and mature judgement can do longer be expected to work under conditions of strict authority and obedience or unchallenging condition or slow moving where there is no opportunity. The consequences are that :

1. It adds to organizational prosperity.

2. Improvement of inter group relations.

3. Stimulates creativity.

4. Meets the basic needs of people.

Managerial Facades :

The word facade in architectural language means the false front of a building. It hides what actually exists behind. Management Facade obscures the true intensions and is deceptive.

A facade character is a cover for intrigue, trickery etc. He avoids revealing the contents of his mind, yet gives the impression of doing so. He avoids initiating discussion that invites probing, he witholds his own reactions, he expresses others opinion and he speaks outright lies.

When it comes to punishment a facade strategy is never to be a direct agent or punishment. A facade character disregards social ethics and his objectives are gained by trickery and deceit. There are two types of facade guys :

1. Pursuing good cause type, e.g. praising others.

2. Aggressive tough guy-aggressive with intent to cover weakness and rejection by others.

Men enter public corporations of today somewhere near the base of the organizational pyramid. Most stay at the base or shift three or four steps up-wards. Very few reach the top. The question therefore is "What personal factors and characteristics account for career development ?"

1. True education- depth of knowledge.

2. Motivation- those who succeed are those who want to succeed with a drive for achievement.

3. Politics- it is not what you know but who you know that counts.

4. Managerial style - How men use themselves and how they manage others. Decision-making capacity, handling conflict, standing on one's own convictions, etc.

Improvements in individual managerial competence are inevitable when men understood more fully how to utilise themselves in getting work done, with, and through, others. If you can interpret your own managerial style and behaviour, it will provide an opportunity to think whether you wish to change your managerial style and in what direction. The following purposes can be achieved for organizational development.

1. To increase individual involvement, commitment and creativity towards sound problem solving.

2. To replace unproductive thought within individuals with mental attitudes that result in better solutions to problems.

3. To create inter-personal communication that can sustain sound deliberations and prevent inter-group blockages.

4. To replace old organizational traditions, precedents which stifle productive effort with new ideas which promote innovations.

Although the general strategy for organizational development may be simple, its execution is quite complex.

The first step is to diagnose all major organizational problems such as long range planning, union management relations, promotional policy, etc. Secondly, what unit of behaviour needs changing? Is an industdual the target of development or is it the organization as a whole?

Thirdly, what goals does an organization want to achieve? The theoretical consideration is that behaviour is dependent on environment of the total situation. The expression of how production and human relations interact in actual practice will provide a possible answer to "change from what to what"?

A sound way to accomplish team development is to start with the top team of senior managers, exploring their individual managerial style in a concerete and personal way so that it can replace assumptions with sound thinking.

The following changes in self characteristics are likely to occur:

1. Self appraisal of personal characteristics in one's own field of performance.
2. Managerial effectiveness will show a change towards better understanding such as (a) Improved listening, (b) Readiness to face conflict, (c) Increased rejection of compromise for decision making.
3. Improved relationship betwen boss/subordinate.
4. Better control over outdated past practices and traditions.

When dealing with people let us remember that we are dealing with creatures of logic, full of emotion, bristiling with pre judices, motivated by pride and vanity.

Organization development is no tune-up job, it needs a thorough overhaul.

Summarising therefore, 9:1 attitude is pessimistic, 1:9 is idealistic, 1:1 is impossible, 5:5 is practical, and 9:9 is matured and meaningful.

INDUSTRIAL TIMES: Vol. X, No. 12, June 15, 1968.

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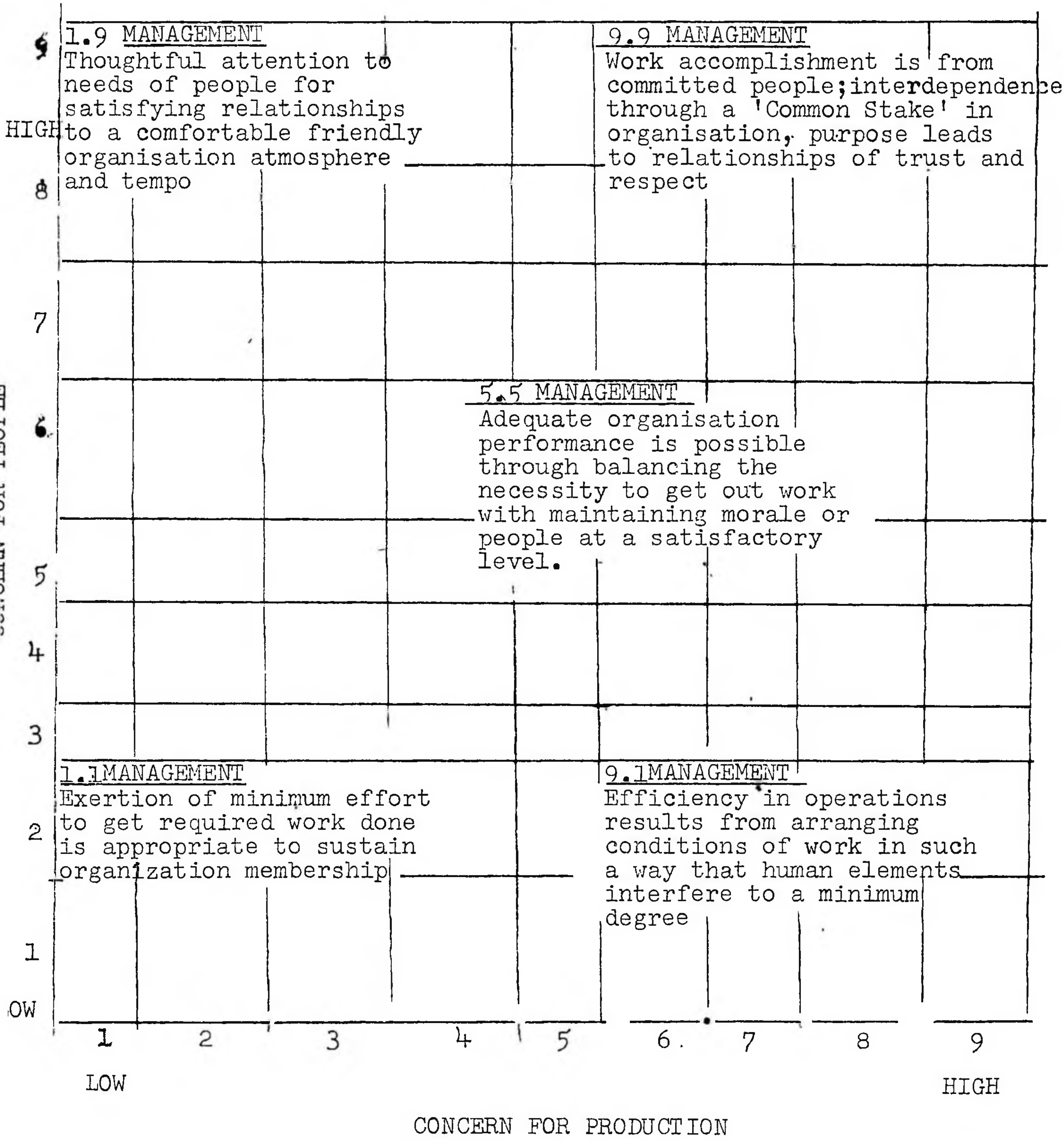
rawat/---
22.5.1974.

CHART 'A'


1.9 MANAGEMENT
Thoughtful attention to needs of people for satisfying relationships to a comfortable friendly organisation atmosphere and tempo
9.9 MANAGEMENT
Work accomplishment is from committed people; interdependence through a 'Common Stake' in organisation, purpose leads to relationships of trust and respect
5.5 MANAGEMENT
Adequate organisation performance is possible through balancing the necessity to get out work with maintaining morale or people at a satisfactory level.
1.1 MANAGEMENT
Exertion of minimum effort to get required work done is appropriate to sustain organization membership
9.1 MANAGEMENT
Efficiency in operations results from arranging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree
HIGH
OW
1
2
3
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9
LOW
HIGH
CONCERN FOR PRODUCTION

TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS MOVES INTO CORPORATE TRAINING

A new theory of interpersonal relations becomes a tool for personnel development

The personnel development function in business organizations has a history of eclecticism-even, some critics might add, of opportunism and faddism Methods, tools, devices and techniques from a variety of sources have been adapted by training and development specialists for incorporation into company programs intended to improve human and organizational effectiveness. Sometimes the training techniques have come from the most unlikely sources-for example, sensitivity training developed from group dynamics research, sharing many of its techniques with group psychotherapy.

Transactional analysis (TA)-a system of psychotherapy based on the examination of a single unit of social interaction (a"transaction") or on chains of transactions-is still another instance of business adopting a technique originally designed for use in group therapy.

The technique has some roots in the psychoanalytic schools of personality theory; it stresses early experiences and maturational influences on the formation of a person's life style and resultant behavior, and it acknowledges unconscious motives in human behavior.

TA also shares with the stimulus-response or behaviorist school of psychology a strong emphasis on dealing with behavior in the here-and-now as a means of understanding and improving it in a rational, observable context. Indeed, TA uses the stimulus-response model for analyzing transactions.

TA also joins with the reality therapy school of psychology in a concern for facing situations on a responsible, mature basis, to help people avoid getting bogged down with distorted perceptions or the denial, avoidance or misplacement of motives.

Beyond this, TA has much in common with the several sub-schools of psychology that stress the significance of social or interpersonal influences in forming basic personality and in determining the directions behavior takes.

Source: By Harold M.F. Rush, Phyllis S. McGrath, RECORD, Vol.X.No.7,July 1973 issue, pp.38-44.

When it began to evolve as a psychotherapeutic tool about 20 years ago, only a few therapists were experimenting with it. Today it boasts a large number of adherents[1] and has even given birth to several divergent schools of thought. Indeed, it probably should be referred to now as a movement. But although TA has steadily infiltrated the treatment rooms of group psychotherapists, it is only recently that some corporate personnel development specialists have begun to incorporate it in their programs.

It is believed that hte first planned application of TA in a business organization took place as late as 1969, but there is evidence that TA is now gaining in popularity,[2]

THE LANGUAGE OF TA:

Transactional analysis is both a system for defining and analyzing what transpires between people when they attempt to communicate, and a theory of personality. The fundamental theory holds that a personality is constituted of three ego states-an ego stat being a consistent pattern of behavior based upon prior feelings and experiences. The ego state in control at a particular time governs the individual's reaction to a particular situation.

The three ego states are: the Parent, the Adult, and the Child. When a transaction is examined in terms of the three ego states, TA practitioners say they are engaging in structural analysis.

Transactional analysis theory posits that, as the personality develops, an individual "programs" into his system certain attitudes, postures, and behaviors that correspond to the individual's perceptions and experiences throughout his life. The Parent is learned from his actual parents and other persons who guided his early experiences. Regardless of whether the parent is rebuking, nurturing, punitive or consoling, the parent is still an authority figure, and the Parent ego state is one of superiority, authority and command. The Parent likes to be in control and to be right.

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1 The rather rapid rise in popularity of TA can be greatly attributed to two books, written in laymen's language. Each had been in print for some time before it received much notice actually "sleepers" that became best-sellers:Eric Berne,Games People Play (New York, Grove Press, 1964); and Tomas A.Harris I'm OK-You're OK: A Practical Guide to Transactional Analysis (New York, Harper & Row, 1967).

2 A forthcoming research report from the Conference Board Organizational Development: A Reconnaissance by Harold M.F.Rush, shows that of the 147 United States & Canadian Companies participating in the study, the number of companies reporting use of TA with the various hierarchical levels to be: 8 for top management;23 for middle management; 26 for lower management; 9 for scientific and professional nonmanagerial employees; and 8 for rank-and-file employees.

The Child ego state grows out of one's early experiences as a child, as a dependent and, in many ways, inadequate or incomplete person. Whether rebellious, complaint or passive-aggressive, the Child represents an immature ego state. The Child ego state also is one of irresponsibility and sometimes playfulness.

The Adult ego state is the mature, objective, reality-based thining state. It is also the "computer" that processes the date from previous experience and the present situation so as to arrive at a rational,"sane" basis for initiation of or response to stimuli in social interaction.

In TA theory, the Parent and Child ego states feel and react directly, While only the Adult ego state thinks or processes transaxtional date logically before acting. Therefore, in most situations, the ideal sought is an Adult stimulus, followed by an Adult response This grows out of the premise that the Adult-Adult transaction represents psychological maturity on the part of the initiator of the transaction and of the respondent.

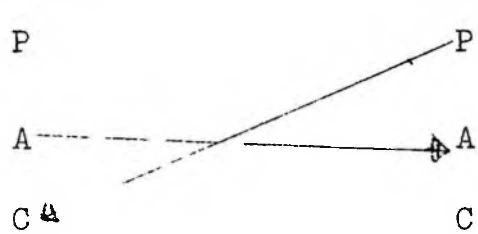
However, more important to an on-going relationship than achieving the Adult-Adult stimulus and response is the matter of seeking parallel transactions rather than crossed transactions. For example, an Adult stimulus ideally elicits an Adult response. But if the Adult stinulus gets a Child or Parent response, a crossed transaxtion takes place. On the other hand, paralledl transactions enclude any complementary stimulus-response combinations-for example: Parent-Child, Child-Child, or Parent-Parent, as well as Adult-Adult.

As long as the transaxtion is parallel, dialogue or transaction can go on indefinitely. But real communication is short-circuited whenever a crossed transaction occurs. Using the Parent-Adult-Child model, the following situations are analyzed in terms of the respective stimulus-response transactions:

Employee: "I'd like to be considered for a promotion".

Boss: "You can't handle the job you now have.

Employee (Stimulus) Boss (Response)



= crossed

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Manager A: "These kids think an M B.A. makes' them ready to tackle any job".

Manager B: "You're right, they need on-the-job experience".

A (<u>Stimulus</u>)	B (<u>Response</u>)	
P	P	
A	A	= parallel
C	C	

* * *

Boss: "Aren't these reports due this morning?"

Employee: " I've got so much to handle already that I can't meet every unimportant deadline".

Boss (<u>Stimulus</u>)	Employee (<u>Response</u>)	
P	P	
A	A	=crossed
C	C	

* * *

Employee A: "We've finished the project. Let's celebrate."

Employee B: "Yeah, it's such a beautiful day. Let's goof off."

A (<u>Stimulus</u>)	B (<u>Response</u>)	
P	P	
A	A	= parallel
C	C	

* * *

Boss: "Shouldn't that report be done today"?

Employee: " I've had interruptions, but I'll try to finish it thisafternoon".

Boss (<u>Stimulus</u>)	Employee (<u>Response</u>)	
P	P	
A	A	= Parallel
C	C	

Since a parallel transaction, can continue indefinitely, it leaves communication channels open for further exploration of the relationship or resolution of the matter being discussed, even if the initial response doesn't include all the information sought by the initiator of the transaction.

PEOPLE AT PLAY:

Central to any consideration of TA is the concept of stroking, which initially refers to the physical touch that an infanct receives from parents. In adults a stroke is some kind of psychological recognition from another person. Strokes may be either positive or negative, but whenever two or more persons are engaged in a transaction they are, in TA language, exchanging strokes.

Sometimes the exchange of strokes is not intended to produce any real or meaningful communication, in which case the transaction is called a ritual, and the language used is, like ritual language in the field of logic, predictable in its outcome. For example:

Stimulus: "Nice weather we're having,is n't it?"

Response: " Yeah, not too hot or too cold".

Although this ritual transaction wasn't an in-depth communication, it still contained strokes, since both the stimulator and respondent each said, in effect, "I am aware of you".

On the other hand, transactions that are intended to convey something of substance between the transactors not only are ideally parallel or complementary, but they are also appropriate to the situation and the respective roles of the persons involved. What TA seeks to instill in people is a facility in dealing with other people on a straightforward, responsible, authentic basis.

When the relationship is authentic, a kind of trust and intimacy exists between people. As simple as this may sound, it is often difficult to achieve, even between people who ostensibly are close to each other, such as husband and wife, or a boss and a subordinate who have worked together for a long time. This is due, according to TA theory, to ego defensiveness and lack of trust that cause people to avoid intimacy.

Whenever, for whatever reason or motive, people want to avoid intimacy, they do not communicate in a forthright, honest manner with each other. Instead, they may resort to any one of several series of transactions which can range from relatively innocent or innocuous rituals or pastimes to extremely harmful games.

In TA parlance a game is a recurring set of transactions, often repetitious and superficically plausible but with an ulterior motive-a series of moves with a snare or gimmick. The essential feature of each game is the culmination or payoff for the person who initiated the game. All games represent an attempt to avoid honest, open communication.

The lore of transactional analysis includes many games, with themes and variations on each. In fact, there are persons whose manner of coping with life is to carry out a game until it becomes a life style or life plan. TA calls this kind of elaborate gaming a script, which, like a script for a play or movie, is carried out in character throughout most encounters and experiences.

The situations in TA that are termed games are numerous, but three examples, Wooden Leg; Now I've Got you, You S.O B. and Why Don't You-Yes But, will serve to illustrate what games are about and what ulterior purposes they serve for the players. The examples will be readily recognizable by business executives.[3]

WOODEN LEG:

> Charlie is a district sales manager for a large consumer products company. Early last year he and his boss agreed upon the annual sales quota for his district and mapped out strategies to reach the quota At the time, Charlie showed symptoms of a drinking problem, and the problem grew worse as the year progreseed. Because of his alcoholism, Charlie managed his sales force poorly and neglected his own job.

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[3] These games are selected from the many examples in Berne's Games People Play. For this article the authors have translated the transactions into business situations in order to illustrate their applicability.

> At the end of the year, his district had fallen for short of its quota, and when his boss called him in to explain it, Charlie "copped out" by using his increased problem with alcohol to explain his poor performance: "I've been trying to cut down on the drinkings, but the increased pressure of the job makes it hard to do. What with my problem, which I'm trying to control, I've had a rough time this year, and I've not been able to devote as much time and energy to the field salemen, and we couldn't meet the quota "

What Charlie was saying was, in effect, "What do you expect from a man with a serious problem as a handicap?" or, "What do you expect from a poor guy with a wooden leg?"

The reaction here is a defensive, irresponsible Child ego state. According to TA, the gimmick is the drinking problem and the payoff is failure. TA theory holds that the disapproval and reprimand from his boss fulfills Charlie's masochistic needs, in that it lowers his self-esteem, and drinking more is an attempt to escape his feelings of inadequacy-a vicious cycle.

NOW I'VE GET YOU, YOU S.O.B.:

This game has been likened to situation that sometimes happens in poker. Player A has an unbeatable hand, say a royal flush, but his motivation is to keep the other two players in the game and completely at his mercy by pretending to have only a fair hand. After luring players B and C into building up the pot, he pounces and wins.

In business situations, an insecure manager may use this game to keep people in a Child state in order to maintain his superiority and always to have the upper hand. Or he may play the game to find an outlet for his aggression and hostility, so he creates situation in which he can "Get" the other person and justify his aggression (the pay off)
The game is initiated by the aggressor, and the victim may knowingly or unknowlingly play along. Sometimes the issues that the aggressor use to "get" the victim are relatively unimportant. For Example:

> The boss sees an employee arrive late for work; and later he calls the employee into his office on some other pretext and casually asks the employee if he saw something happen that morning-"at about 9.05 outside your office". The boss may trap the employee into lying about the occurence, or if the motive is evident, by admitting that he didn't see what happened the employee incriminates himself. Either way, the boss then "dumps" on the employee about his tardiness-a variation of "Now, I've Got You, You S.O B." (NIGYYSOB)

But NIGYYSOB certainly isn't restricted to such an innocuous transaction. In fact, many TA specialists point out, it is a vicious game that can have serious implications for the victim, even the loss of his job or the destruction ofhis career. For example:

J.B., a senior officer of a manufacturing firm, proposes to Tom, an ambitious middle manager, that he accept a transfer and promotion to become plant manager of one of the company's older plants. J.B. explains that the plant has been losing money for the past few years, a fact he attributes to the plant's poor local management, but "if someone with your brains and capability were at the helm, it could be a profitable plant again. Besides its being a great challenge, it could really be a way for you to make your mark and get ahead fast in this company".

Of course, J.B. knows that the plant equipment is mostly obsolete, that militant local unions are forever sabotaging any attempt s to make better utilization of manpower, and that market forecasts predict that within a few years the plant's principal products will be drags on the market. In other words, there is no way for Tom (or anyone else, for that matter) to succeed in the assignment, and by removing him from his present line of progression within the company to another promotional ladder, J.B. is virtually ensuring Tom's career failure. But ambitious and trusting Tom accepts the job, and predictably he fails to carry off the plant's "operation bootstrap".

Later, when Tom asks J.B. for a transfer out of the unprofitable plant, he is told that he could hardly expect to be moved into another position of responsibility when, obviously he failed in the "biggest opportunity" he could ever have. (NIGYYSOB)

Why Don't You-Yes, But

Milton: "I'm bored with this job. What I'd really like is to get into computer programming".

Susan: " You could take a course in programming".

Milton: "Yes, but tuition is very expensive".

Susan: "Why don't you go to school under the company's tuition reimbursement plan?"

Milton: "Yes, I could, but I have to work full time to support myself"

Susan: "There are night school classes in programming".

Milton: "Yes, but where I have is a long way from the schools".

Susan: "Why don't you go right after work while you're in town?"

Milton: "But I have to take two trains and a bus to get home and it is too late at night by that time".

Ostensibly Susan is offering helpful suggestions, but Milton counters each with a reason whi it won't work, thereby rejecting each suggestion. In this transaction Milton is assuming a Child ego state-that of a child looking for attention and reassurance because he is inadequate to meet the problem straight on. He forces Susan to play the role of wirse and helpful Parent; thus his Child "Wins" the game.

THE FOUR LIFE POSITIONS:

TA holds that in most instances the ideal transaction is Adult-Adult, without games. Yet all three basic ego states (Parent, Adult, Child) are programmed into a person from his experiences. Any state may emerge under the right circumstances. However, very early in life an induvidual makes certain assumptions about himself, and based on these assumptions he develops predominant patterns of behavior toward other people. These assumptions about one's self in relation to others are called life positions.

Every individual seeks recognition - prefereably positive recognition but at least some kind of recognition. The child who misbehaves and knows he is misbehaving is seeking negative recognition, i.e., strokes, from his parents or p rent substitutes; he does so feeling that negative strokes are better than no strokes at all. So it is with many adults who re ert to the Child in social transactions, thereby thrusting other persons into a parental role, nurturing or disapproving.

This life position in transaction - in which the child predominates - is referred to as "I'm not OK - You're OK", because the real child is small, awkward, confused and inexperienced in a world of adults who appear large, confident, and knowing. The child is dependent and his character is being developed by his parents or parent substitutes, who are forever telling him what to do and frequently telling him that what he is doing is worng. These experiences are programmed into the person and become the Child ego state when he becomes an adult.

The reverse, "I'm OK - You're not OK", is the p rent ego state, wise, experienced, guiding, corretting, controlling. When an adult assumes the Parent ego state in dealing with another person it usually is the result of the perental behaviors that he has learned and prgrammed into his personality from his own parents or other authority figures.

The life position "I'm not OK - You're not OK" is a pathological one, growing outof mental illness, extreme depression, suicidal states, and some criminal states.

The fourth position is the ideal on which authentic, game-free, relationships are formed: "I'm OK - You're OK", the Adult-Adult position.

TA IN BUSINESS:

Despite the increasing use of transactional analysis in business, this approach to improving the quality of human interaction is not without its critics, both laymen and professionals. Its detractors often cite the tendency of users of TA to treat theprocess as something akin to a parlor game, and critics sometimes state that the TA model has the tendency to get people so caught up with the labels they put on particular transactions that they miss some of the important underlying causes and motivations for the behavior being analyzed.

Champions of TA for company training acknowledge these possibilities, and thus far have used TA only in combination with other programs and techniques. They present the theory to potential users as something that can be helpful to most people, but not as a cure-all an organization's ills. In fact, most company training and development specilists stress that special care must be taken to avoid a panacea approach.

The Bank of New York began using TA in 1970 as a part of the bank's first formalized supervisory training program, along with theoretical inputs from the works of behavioral scientists, principally McGregor and Herzberg. A personnel officer state, "Transactional analysis is clearly not thesalvation of the organization, so we've never introduced it as such. But we are convinced after nearly three years of experience with TA that it can be a useful tool for both personal and organizational growth".

The program, designed for fist-line supervisors, runs a total of 40 hours. Four hours are deveted to explanation of TA theory and experices to teach supervisors to use the techniques in their daily managing, including some structural analysis of transactions. To date, the bank has trained about 250 of its first-line managers and about 50 middle and senior divisional managers in TA.[4]

The bank has recently begun to expand TA training to include the senior vice president level, as well as some customer-contact personnel. Among these are trust officers who say that TA has helped them "considerably" in dealing with their clients.[5]

Summarizing his reactions to the bank's use of TA, the personnel officer concludes: "Sure, there's a tendency to be too simplistic or glip in describing behaviors in Parent-Adult-Child construct, but it is a relatively uncomplicated means of increasing sensitivity and imporving human communication. Most importantly, TA is something that people can grasp easily within a short time of exposure and relate it to their everyday lives, on the job and off",

AMERICAN AIRLINES' director of training and development agrees that the payoff from TA is great compared to the investment of training time devoted to it. He says, "I'm convinced that TA can create greater sensitivity to one's own behavior and to the bahavior of others much more quickly and with much more permanence than any other training tool that I'm aware of. Certainly it is more easily carried out from seminar to the job than laboratory training".

American Airlines was one of the first companies to use TA in its internal training and development programs.

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[4] Of a randomly selected sample of seminar alumni surveyed to test retention of TA concepts, approximately 80% were able to recall specifics from the TA inputs in the training program, though they could not recall some central points from other behavioral science theories. And more than half reported that they are consciously trying to apply the TA concepts in their jobs.

[5] While most prefer to be dealt with on an Adult-Adult basis, a client may look to the trust officer to assume a parental role, especially if the client is inexperienced in handling fairly large sums of money or is suffering extreme grief or shock over the death of the benefactor.

So far, more than 8,000 employees have been through TA workshops.[6] Unlike the Bank of New York's program, which is largely manger-oriented, the TA training at American Airlines has focused on customer-contact personnel. It felt that something more than the usual "head-level" training on the importance of efficiency and courtesy was needed, since most such training lacks a direct tie to actual experience-at least it does not provide a practicable framework for employees to relate their own behavior to the varied moods, demands, and needs of customers.

The stimulus for AA's entry into TA came from the company's analysis of mail from customers, when it realized that about 75% of the letters, both negative and positive, were actually referring to what TA now calls strokes-or lack of strokes-from AA emp;oyees. The director of training and development investigated TA and attended some TA workshops before edciding to adopt the program on a large scale in 1969.

More than 3,500 ground service personnel (e.g.,in-town) and airport ticket sales persons, ticket-takers at airport gates, terminal hostesses) and more than 4,500 flight service employees (e.g.,cabin attendants and flight service directors), in addition to the supervisors of these employee groups, have received TA training. The workshops rely heavily on audio-visual presentations of theory and vignettes of transactions, but background reading is also included. The two basic workshop programs, which last about four hours, are each tailored to the kinds of on-the-job situations that the respective groups-ground and air customer service-are likely to encounter. And, like The Bank of New York's TA program, American Airlines involves the p rticipants in structural analysis of transactions that do occur in the course of their jobs.[7]

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[6] TA concepts and their applicability to business are discussed in more detail in P-A-C At Work by Lyman K.Randall (American Airlines, 1971).

[7] For example, one scene shows a woman ticketing representaive at an airport counter working out an intinerary for two men, while a woman customer is standing in line behind them, growing increasingly impatient. The customer berates the ticketing representative for keeping her waiting so long while she "flirted with those men", which, as the film clearly shows, wasn't the case. The reaction of the customer was childish, but she took the stance of a disapproving Parent in lecturing the AA employee, who, rather than yell back at the customer, tried to change the transaction to an Adult-Adult one by saying something like, "I'm very sorry that you were inconvenienced by having to wait in line. Is there some way that I can help you?"

The aim of the airline's TA program is not to teach responses, but to teach employees how to recognize what feelings and perceptions motivate a custo er's behavior and to analyze what is wrong in the traınsaction, whether caused by employee or customer, and to try to correct the situation.[8]

The company reports the effectiveness of its TA training program is difficult to measure but of the more than 8,000 employees who have gone through it, 99% reacted favorably, and 86% feel more positive and confident in their job roles.

Another TA program that concentrates on customer contact applications isthat of Associated Merchandising Corporation, a retail service organisation whose member firms number many of the country's larger department stores, including filene's in Boston, Foley's in Houston, and Woodward & Lothrup in Washington,D.C. in 1971,A.M.C. began to offer TA training for sakes persons, adjusters, credit interviewers, and other public contract employees. Today 16 different stores are using TA as a part of their training programs.

According to A.M.C 's director of store personnel, the venture into TA grew out of dissatisfaction with traditional training for retail customer-contact personnel. This had usually included a film/discussion/ role-play format, offering little opportunity for the trainees to "lock in" concepts or lessons which weren't sufficiently rooted in experience. Even when the role playing in the classroom was "good", new employees might mimic the behavior of longer-service sales persons once they got on the job, and not always themost satisfactory ones.

Believing that TA was a viable alternative to traditional training, A.M.C. tried it out with two groups of employees as an experiment. It was judged to be a useful approach in that an employee could easily identify his own experiences in TA terms, and relate it directly to actual workaday encounters. Even so, that proved successful was it introduced to the other 15.

A.M.C.'s TA program differs from those of American Airlines and The Bank ofNew York. Instead of a one-shot exposure and workshop,A.M.C. gives TA training in five three-hour

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[8] American Airlines calls its program "Transactional Analysis in Customer Treatment", or TACT, an acronym that was selected for obvious reasons, considering the kinds of jobs covered and the training objections.

sessions, spread over five weeks. This allows people to try TA out on the job and to feed back their experiences in subsquent training seminars. Additionally, TA is approached within a larger framework of "awareness" training, and the seminar content is only about one-third devoted to theory. The rest of the time is spent in analyzing actual on-the-job exprences of the participants, along with group discussion of the roles they play in customer contract.[9]

At the request of senior executives, A.M.C. has also developed a more intensive series of seminars for executives, which has been field tested with three groups so far.[10] These seminars are designed for "cousings" groups managers who are at approximately the same hierarchical level.

So far, about 10,000 employees in A.M.C.'s member stores have had at least initial training in TA, but accurate figures are difficult to obtain, since the use of the program is strictly a matter oflocal option, and various participants are at different stages in the program.

Regardless of the kind of company, the personnel executives employing TA generally agree that they aren't trying to get people to parrot canned transaxtions or even to teach people to be more sensitive and aware of thedynamics of interaction-including their own ego states as well as those of others-so they will apply the TA concepts to their own total life style, as well as to individual, often fleeting, transactions. Secondly, rather than teach specific behaviors, they are trying to help people to realize that there are other options available to them whenever they find themselves in nonuseful transactions.

NO OVERSELL INTENDED:

Despite the emphasis on helping people to use the TA model in a life style sense, and although the technology of TA is borrowed and adapted from psychotherapy, most

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[9]Because A.M.C. approaches TA as a part of a larger, heightened awareness effort, the program for customer service personnel is called AURA, for "Awareness, Understanding, Responsibility, Action".

[10]The "Transactional Analysis Program for Executives" (TAPE) is more complex and in-depth, including theoretical inputs from other behavioral science technologies, and exercises to increase listening abilities and to develop other interpersonal skills.

(though not all) proponents of TA for business applications strenuously avoid perating in the therapeutic mode. A.M.C.'s director of store personnel agrees: "We have very definite eithical concerns about what is relevant and appropriate between an employee and the company. We have no business acting as ar-chair psychologists by trying to help people work out their personal problems-that belongs in the therapy room, not in a company's training program. We are not in a position to offer in-house therapeutic help to people. Our only legitimate concern is how a person feels about his job and the way he performs it. We aren't going to invade his personal life.

Another concern often voiced by company users of TA is the tendency to look upon it as a discrete and miraculous phenomenon to change an organization. The Bank of New York personnel officer says, "While I'm convinced that TA exposure is use ful for most people in most situations, it alone isn't enough. For it to be used properly, it must be an integral part of a larger, organisation development effort. Otherwise you get people- particularly some training and development types-who treat it as the latest magic gimmick and it becomes a fad. And that's the last thing TA should become".

Even when TA is used as a component of a more comprehensive developmental effort, TA specialists stress that its usefulness is highly dependent upon the kind and quality of the interpersonal relations that already characterize the working environment. Otherwise tranxational analysis, like so many other techniques could become just another "human relation" fad.[11]

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[11] Several recent books indicate continuing interest in the TA movement: Eric Berne, What Do You Say After You Say Hello? (New York, Grove Press, 1972); Muriel James and Dorothy Jongeward, Born to Win, Transactional Analysis with Gestalt Experiments (Reading, Massachusetts, Addison-Wesley, 1971); Ira J. Tanner, Lonlines: The Fear of Love: An Application of Transactional Analysis (New York Harper & Row, 1973).