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HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT SEMINAR

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AGENDA

DAY ONE - INTRODUCTIONS, AGENDA

Leadership
- Management vs. Leadership
- Leadership & Perception
- Early Theorists
  - Rensis Likert
  - Douglas McGregor
- Managerial Grid - Blake & Mouton
- Contingency Theory
- Situational Instrument
  - LASI Instrument

One Minute Manager
- Videotape - One Minute Manager
- One Minute Goal Setting
- One Minute Praisings
- One Minute Reprimands
- Putting the One Minute Manager to Work
- Leadership and the One Minute Manager
- The Situational Leader

DAY TWO

Group Decision Making
- Project Planning Situation
- How Groups Make Decisions
- Decision Making Styles
- Deciding on a Decision Making Approach
- Case Studies

Power and Influence
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- Power Bases Defined
- Coercive Power
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- Organization Influence Power
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- Expert Power
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- Dalton's Six Condition of Change

DAY THREE

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- Causes of Conflict
- Thomas - Kilman Instrument
- Methods of Managing Differences
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- The Win-Win Approach
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Communications
- Barriers to Communication
- Active Listening
- Case Studies
- "I" Messages
- Skill Practice

DAY FOUR

Staffing
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  - Identifying Candidates
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Peak Performers
- Missions That Motivate
- Results in Real Time
- Self Management Through Self Mastry
- Team Building/Team Playing
- Course Correction
- Change Management

CLOSURE

Management And Leadership: Concepts with an Important Difference

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As a management consultant/trainer, I have found it useful — to myself, to clients and to students — to develop comprehensive, conceptual frameworks in order to better arrange and relate the various elements in the management process. There are two conceptual distinctions that are of particular value. The first is the distinction between "managership" and "leadership." The second is the distinction between "style of leadership" and "leadership behavior." Although most people think of managership and leadership as synonymous, the difference between the two terms has been mentioned before in management literature,[1] and a case can also be made for further separating "style" and "behavior."

The Distinction between "Managership" and "Leadership"

Given the climate of an organization and the maturity (i.e., competence and motivation) of any particular group of followers, the manager's effectiveness will be a function of his or her: a) technical work competence, b) management work competence and c) leadership capability and compatibility.

Empirically speaking, enterprises are, and should be, increasingly looking at management work competence and leadership as well as technical expertise in selecting, assessing, rewarding, developing and promoting managers: that is, recognizing that each manager's job consists of "management work" as well as "technical work." These terms (i.e., technical work, management work and leadership) can operationally be defined as follows:

- **TECHNICAL WORK — Mental and physical effort directly applied towards providing a product or service. Technical work is performed when one performs one's technical specialty**
- **MANAGEMENT WORK — Mental and physical effort to coordinate diverse activities to achieve desired results. This work is identified as planning, organizing, staffing, directing and controlling.**
- **LEADERSHIP — Natural and learned ability, skill and personal characteristics to conduct interpersonal relations which influence people to take desired actions.**

Managership relates to coordination work performed by the manager; leadership relates to the effectiveness of the interpersonal relations between leader and follower(s). The essence of managership is coordination, while the essence of leadership is followship. It is the willingness of people to follow that determines the degree of leadership-effectiveness. Placed in a particular leadership role, a person could be a good "manager" but a bad "leader," or vice versa. Here are a few examples:

- **Ten years ago, Sam Wells cofounded Blake and Wells, Inc., a consulting engineering firm specializing in soils engineering. Sam is its president.**

  As the firm grew through the years, it devolved into three functions: engineering, marketing, and support services. These three

VARIOUS LEADERSHIP THEORIES/MODELS CATEGORIZED BY "STYLE OF LEADERSHIP" AND "LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR"

Style of Leadership	Leadership Behavior
Hersey-Blanchard: Situational Leadership Theory[4]	Tannenbaum-Schmidt: Continuum of Leadership Behavior[13]
Reddin: 3-D Theory[5]	Vroom-Yetton: Decision Process Flow Chart[14]
Blake-Mouton: Managerial Grid[6]	Maier: Group Decision Making[15]
Fiedler: Theory of Leadership Effectiveness[7]	
Miles: Traditional/Human Relations/ Human Resources Theory[8]	
Likert: Systems of Management (System 1-4)[9]	
Tagliere: Org Analysis[10]	
Carlisle: A Contingency Approach to Leadership[11]	
Allen: The Modes of Action[12]	

McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y,[16] since it deals with a leader's assumptions about people's willingness to work, is really a force operating within the leader and so is not treated here as a leadership theory or model. It will, of course, be a strong influence in determining a leader's basic style as well as behavior in a given situation.

perceived by those people.[2] (Italics added by author)

- **LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR—The amount and type of leader-follower(s) interaction arranged by a leader relating to a particular decision or course of action.**

Fred Fiedler also makes a distinction between leadership style and leadership behavior. His definitions, however, differ significantly from the two mentioned above. Fiedler uses leadership behavior to refer to "the particular acts in which a leader engages in the course of directing and coordinating the work of his group members." On the other hand, he defines leadership style as "the underlying need structure of the individual which motivates his behavior in various leadership situations."[3]

- **Jim McGrath is a general foreman. Reporting to Jim are seven first-line foremen. The group's mission is to construct and maintain large water mains. Four of the foremen supervise construction crews, two supervise maintenance crews, and the other foreman supervises the machine shop.**

In general, the foremen are a fairly mature group—experienced, competent, motivated. Appreciating their maturity, Jim tends to use a participative style in interacting with them, especially on new, different or significant matters.

For some time Jim has felt that the group could more effectively accomplish their mission if they were organized differently. Recently Jim has had time to do some data gathering and analysis relative to this concern. He is now convinced that a reorganization is in order. Rather than organize by function (i.e., construction and maintenance), he plans to give each foreman a geographical area and have him be responsible for both construction and maintenance in that area.

Having decided on the utility of such a reorganization and realizing that it may be difficult for most of the foremen to objectively evaluate such a proposal, Jim does not plan to "consult" them regarding this decision. In announcing the news to the foremen, Jim does plan to share his analysis and reasons for making the change and to answer any questions they may have. He also intends to involve them in developing action plans for implementation.

(Comment: Although Jim's leadership style is participative, in diagnosing the situational variables relating to this particular decision, he thinks that a more autocratic approach, i.e., leadership behavior, is appropriate in deciding whether or not to reorganize. The leadership behavior Jim plans on using relative to developing and implementing action plans more closely approximates his leadership style.)

Distinguishing between leadership style and behavior can also be of great use in synthesizing, implementing and teaching various leadership theories and models. Shown in the preceding table are some of the more popular leadership theories/models placed in "style" and "behavior" groupings. ■

McGregor's Theory X-Theory Y Model

The first acquaintance with "X" and "Y" for many of us was as unknowns in Algebra I. During the decade of the sixties "X" and "Y" took on some additional meanings for readers in the behavioral sciences and contemporary management thinking.

In 1960, Douglas McGregor published his *The Human Side of Enterprise*. This was to be a major force in the application of behavioral science to management's attempts to improve productivity in organizations. McGregor was trying to stimulate people to examine the reasons underlying the way they tried to influence human activity, particularly at work. He saw management thinking and activity as based on two very different sets of assumptions about people. These sets of assumptions, called X and Y, have come to be applied to management styles; *e.g.*, an individual is a theory X manager or a theory Y manager.

McGregor looked at the various approaches to managing people in organizations — not only industrial organizations but others as well — services, schools, and public agencies and concluded that the styles or approaches to management used by people in positions of authority could be examined and understood in light of those manager's assumptions about people. He suggested that a manager's effectiveness or ineffectiveness lay in the very subtle, frequently unconscious effects of these assumptions on his attempts to manage or influence others.

As he looked at the behaviors, structures, systems, and policies set up in some organizations, he found them contrary to information coming out of research at that time: information about human behavior and the behavior of people at work. It appeared that management was based on ways of looking at people that did not agree with what behavioral scientists knew and were learning about people as they went about their work in some, or perhaps most organizations.

THEORY X

The traditional view of man, widely held, was labeled "X" and seemed to be based on the following set of assumptions:

1. The average human being has an inherent dislike for work and will avoid it if he can.
2. Because of this human characteristic of dislike for work, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, or threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives.
3. The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, and wants security above all.

Of course, these assumptions aren't set out or stated, but if we examine how organizations are structured and policies, procedures, and work rules established, we can see them operating. Job responsibilities are closely spelled out, goals are imposed without individual employee involvement or consideration, reward is contingent on working within the system, and punishment falls on those who deviate from the rules as established. These factors all influence how people respond, but the underlying assumptions or reasons for them are seldom tested or even recognized as assumptions. The fact is that most people act as if their beliefs about human nature were correct and require no study or checking.

This set of assumptions about people may result in very contrasting styles of management. We may see a "hard" or a "soft" approach to managing, but both approaches will be based on these ideas set out above. One theory "X" manager may drive his men at their work because he thinks that they are lazy and that this is the only way to get things done. Another may look at his men in the same way, but he may think the way to get lazy people to work is to be nice to them, to coax productive activity out of them.

This view of man was characteristic of the first half of the twentieth century, which had seen the effects of Frederick Taylor's scientific management school of thought. His focus had been on man as an aspect of the productive cycle much like that of a piece of machinery, and it had allowed for advances in productivity. Yet it was out of this managerial climate that tended to view man as an interchangeable part of a machine—as a machine element that was set in motion by the application of external forces — that the "human relations" view grew and the behavioral science school developed.

I must hasten to add that the application of understandings of human behavior from the behavioral sciences is not an extension of the human relations focus of the 1940's and 1950's. These two grew up separately. One might construe that the human relations view of handling people prevalent at that time was manipulative and merely a "soft" theory "X" approach.

THEORY Y

Another view of man not necessarily the opposite extreme of "X" was called "Y" or theory "Y." This set of assumptions about the nature of man which influenced manager behaviors is set out below.

1. The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest.
2. External control and threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about effort toward organizational objectives. Man will exercise self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed.
3. Commitment to objectives is dependent on rewards associated with their achievement. The most important rewards are those that satisfy needs for self-respect and personal improvement.
4. The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept, but to seek responsibility.
5. The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.
6. Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized.

It is important to realize that this is not a soft approach to managing human endeavor. Examined closely it can be seen as a very demanding style: it sets high standards for all and expects people to reach for them. It is not only hard on the employee who may not have had any prior experience with the managerial behaviors resulting from these assumptions, but it also demands a very different way of acting from the supervisor or manager who has grown up under at least some of the theory X influences in our culture. While we can intellectually understand and agree with some of these ideas, it is far more difficult to put them into practice. Risk-taking is necessary on the part of the manager, for he must allow employees or subordinates to experiment with activities for which he may feel they do not presently have the capability. The learning and growth resulting from this opportunity may handsomely reward the risk.

The focus of a Y manager is on man as a growing, developing, learning being, while an X manager views man as static, fully developed, and capable of little change. A theory X manager sets the parameters of his employees' achievements by determining their potentialities in light of negative assumptions. A theory Y manager allows his people to test the limits of their capabilities and uses errors for learning better ways of operating rather than as clubs for forcing submission to the system. He structures work so that an employee can have a sense of accomplishment and personal growth. The motivation comes from the work itself and provides a much more powerful incentive than the "externals" of theory X.

A suggestion for your consideration is to make the same assumptions about others that you make about yourself, and then act in the appropriate manner. You might be pleasantly surprised.

Albert J. Robinson

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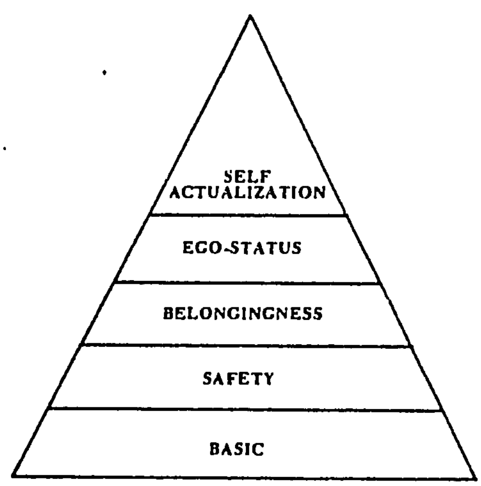
McGregor, Douglas. (Edited by Bennis, Warren G. and McGregor, Caroline.) *The Professional Manager*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967.

THE MASLOW NEED HIERARCHY

Abraham Maslow theorized that experienced needs are the primary influences on an individual's behavior. When a particular need emerges, it determines the individual's behavior in terms of motivations, priorities, and action taken. Thus motivated behavior is the result of the tension — either pleasant or unpleasant — experienced when a need presents itself. The goal of the behavior is the reduction of this tension or discomfort, and the behavior, itself, will be appropriate for facilitating the satisfaction of the need. Only unsatisfied needs are prime sources of motivation.

Understanding behaviors and their goals involves gaining insight into presently unsatisfied needs. Maslow developed a method for gaining insight by providing categories of needs in a hierarchical structure. He placed all human needs, from primitive or immature (in terms of the behaviors they foster) to civilized or mature needs, into five need systems. He believed that there is a natural process whereby individuals fulfilled needs in ascending order from most immature to most mature. This progression through the need hierarchy is seen as the climbing of a ladder where the individual must have experienced secure footing on the first rung in order to experience the need to step up to the next higher rung. The awareness of the need to climb further up the ladder is a function of having fulfilled the need of managing the preceding rung, and only satisfactory fulfillment of this need will allow the individual to deal with the new need or rung. Inability to fulfill a lower-order need or difficulty in fulfilling a lower-order need may result in an individual's locking in on immature behavior patterns or may produce a tendency to return to immature behaviors under stress any time an individual feels a lower-order need not fulfilled to his satisfaction. The individual may also revert to behaviors which fulfilled lower-order needs when the satisfaction of higher needs are temporarily blocked. That is not to say that any need is ever completely satisfied; rather, Maslow indicates that there must be at least partial fulfillment before an individual can become aware of the tensions manifested by a higher-order need and have the freedom to pursue its fulfillment.



A HIERARCHY OF NEEDS

The 1972 Annual Handbook For Group Facilitators

The Maslow Need Hierarchy is presented in the illustration above. The Basic level represents needs which reflect physiological and survival goals. At this level are such factors as shelter, clothing, food, sex, and other necessities. In a culture such as ours, where these basic needs are almost automatically met, there is not likely to be any need tension concerning the fulfillment of Basic needs. However, individuals adapt this basic level upward to include such needs as avoidance of physical discomfort, pleasant working environment, or more money for providing creature comforts.

The second level of the hierarchy consists of Safety needs. When the individual has at least partially fulfilled the Basic needs, he will experience the tensions relating to needs of security, orderliness, protective rules, and general risk avoidance. These needs are often satisfied by an adequate salary, insurance policies, a good burglar alarm system for his business, a doorman for his apartment building, etc.

When Safety needs have been met, the individual will become less preoccupied with self and will endeavor to form interpersonal relationships. The relative success of this need for Belongingness will result in his feeling accepted and appreciated by others. Thus the third level needs concern family ties, friendship and group membership.

When an individual feels secure in his relationships with others, he will probably seek to gain special status within the group. His need tension will be associated with ambition and a desire to excel. These Ego-Status needs will motivate the individual to seek out opportunities to display his competence in an effort to gain social and professional rewards.

Because Ego-Status fulfillment is greatly dependent upon the ability of others to respond appropriately to the individual's efforts to perform in a superior way, they are the most difficult to fulfill satisfactorily. However, if the individual has gained satisfaction on level four, he may be able to move up to level five — Self Actualization. At this level, the individual is concerned with personal growth and may fulfill this need by challenging himself to become more creative, demanding greater achievement of himself, and, in general, directing himself to measure up to his own criteria of personal success. Self-Actualizing behaviors must include risk-taking, seeking autonomy, and developing freedom to act.

Sandra L. Pfeiffer

Reference: A. H. Maslow. *Motivation and Personality*. 2nd ed. N.Y.: Harper and Row, 1970.

JOB ENRICHMENT

The motivation-hygiene theory, underlying what is known as job enrichment, grew out of research on job attitudes conducted by Frederick Herzberg. In establishing his theory, Herzberg draws heavily upon the hierarchy of needs developed by Abraham Maslow. Herzberg stresses that the factors which truly motivate the work are "growth" factors, or those that give the worker a sense of personal accomplishment through the challenge of the job itself. In other words, motivation is in the content of the job, the internal dynamics that the worker experiences in completing his task.

On the other hand, Herzberg maintains that the context, or environmental factors (hygiene), which surround the job cause dissatisfaction when they are in unhealthy condition. These dissatisfiers may be classed as "deficit" needs in that their importance is felt only in their absence. For example, good working conditions rarely motivate workers. However, bad working conditions are frequently cited by workers as sources of dissatisfaction.

MOTIVATION FACTORS (JOB CONTENT)	HYGIENE FACTORS (JOB ENVIRONMENT)
SATISFIERS	DISSATISFIERS
Work Itself	Company Policy & Administration
Achievement	Supervision
Recognition	Working Conditions
Responsibility	Interpersonal Relations
Growth and Advancement	Salary

A simple example might be the telephone installation man who is given the list of places to cover during the day and asked to order them in the way he believes will be most efficient, rather than having been given an itinerary preplanned by the manager who doesn't "know the territory" first-hand the way the installer does.

PRACTICAL APPLICATION

In the years that I have been assisting organizations in the implementation of job enrichment I have witnessed results that are not only dramatic from an economic viewpoint, but, equally important, imply that it has stimulated management awareness, growth and effectiveness. Although not originally designed to fulfill the role, job enrichment has been significantly effective in assisting supervisors to improve their management styles. The organization development applications of job enrichment is popular because 1) it can easily be adapted by all levels of management, 2) payoff (results) can be realized in a relatively short time span and, 3) it can be measured in specific terms.

The primary purpose of this paper is to present an example of a practical model that I have found effective in implementing job enrichment. The model has been utilized in large and small business organizations as well as a medium sized civic organization.

When I first enter the organization or "family" group within an organization, I have two primary objectives in mind. First, I attempt to give a thorough interpretation of job enrichment and my role in it. Secondly, I try to assess the level of management commitment. I point out the possible consequences of inadequate commitment which can affect the supervisor-subordinate relationship in the areas of trust and respect.

After understanding and commitment have been established, management "family" groups attend a two-day job enrichment workshop, preferably removed from the work locale. The workshop is designed to 1) teach the participants the theory behind job enrichment, 2) allow them to witness how others have utilized it, 3) enable the group members to experiment with each other in applying job enrichment and, 4) assist the participants in realizing how the implementation of job enrichment will affect their own jobs as well as the jobs of their subordinates.

Immediately after the workshop, I will either pass out a job reaction survey to everyone in that family organization, management and non-management, or personally interview each person. I receive permission from each person being interviewed to allow me to tape-record the interview for the purpose of playing the tape back to the supervisor. In this manner, the interview feedback has full value in that the supervisor is able to sense the feelings associated with the subject being discussed as the employee describes his reaction to his job. Incidentally, although I prefer the taped interview, it should be noted that it is time-consuming and, therefore, more expensive. It is ideal for small and medium-sized groups. NOTE: In my experience, 75% of those interviewed wanted increased responsibility and autonomy in their job. Their main concern was that their intrinsic talents and interests are not being activated and utilized at work.

The taped interview is played back to the supervisor, and appropriate notes are taken by both of us as we listen. After he has heard all the interviews, he develops a "plan of action" which is a positive reaction to the expressed desires of each individual subordinate. It is essential at this point that the supervisor recognize and accept how the implementation of job enrichment will change the focus of his job and that he begins to deal with new behaviors for himself when interacting with his subordinates.

As soon as possible after hearing the interviews, the supervisor meets with each subordinate separately to mutually decide how best to bring about the changes the subordinate has asked for. This is a key meeting which has the potential for substantially "bridging" the relationship between the two. When handled properly, former "hidden agendas" are surfaced and positively dealt with in a trusting and open discussion.

After this initial stage has been implemented, the supervisor must be on the alert for appropriate opportunities to provide valid, helpful feedback. The amount and appropriateness of feedback will determine how well job enrichment is integrated into the organization. A lack of feedback can be a cause of failure.

From three to five months after the start of the effort, I randomly interview a representative number of employees to determine the degree to which there is a "fit" between how managers are assessing the effort and how subordinates feel about it. Pointing out any differences of opinion is helpful to both. It is also a good opportunity to determine what effects the implementation of job enrichment is having on such areas as the climate of the organization, the management style, other departments, customers, etc.

SOME PAYOFFS

Earlier I alluded to the positive results that I have seen job enrichment bring about. In one clerical office employing a total force of approximately 125 people, turnover was reduced from an average of 14 per month to an average of 4 per month. (This took place prior to the 1969 economic downturn.) The recruiting, training, and production savings in this instance amounted to $141,000.00 annually.

In every successful effort, turnover and absenteeism have been significantly reduced because employees see the job as the vehicle for self-actualization. Union grievances in one organization dropped from four per month to zero. In some cases, suggestions from employees that led to job restructuring resulted in the same production being accomplished by 10% fewer people. The quality of work has improved in all the organizations that I have witnessed that have committed themselves to high effort.

Employees are involved in some interesting experiences as a result of job enrichment. Many of the more capable ones have replaced their supervisors while they were on vacation or at conferences. The "temporary boss" has full responsibility and is paid a differential during the period. Employees are also paid to assist in the training and coaching of new employees and people on new assignments. Where appropriate, employees are given as much freedom and latitude as is possible. External double-checks, such as traditional quality control, are eliminated, and the quality control is internalized within the employee.

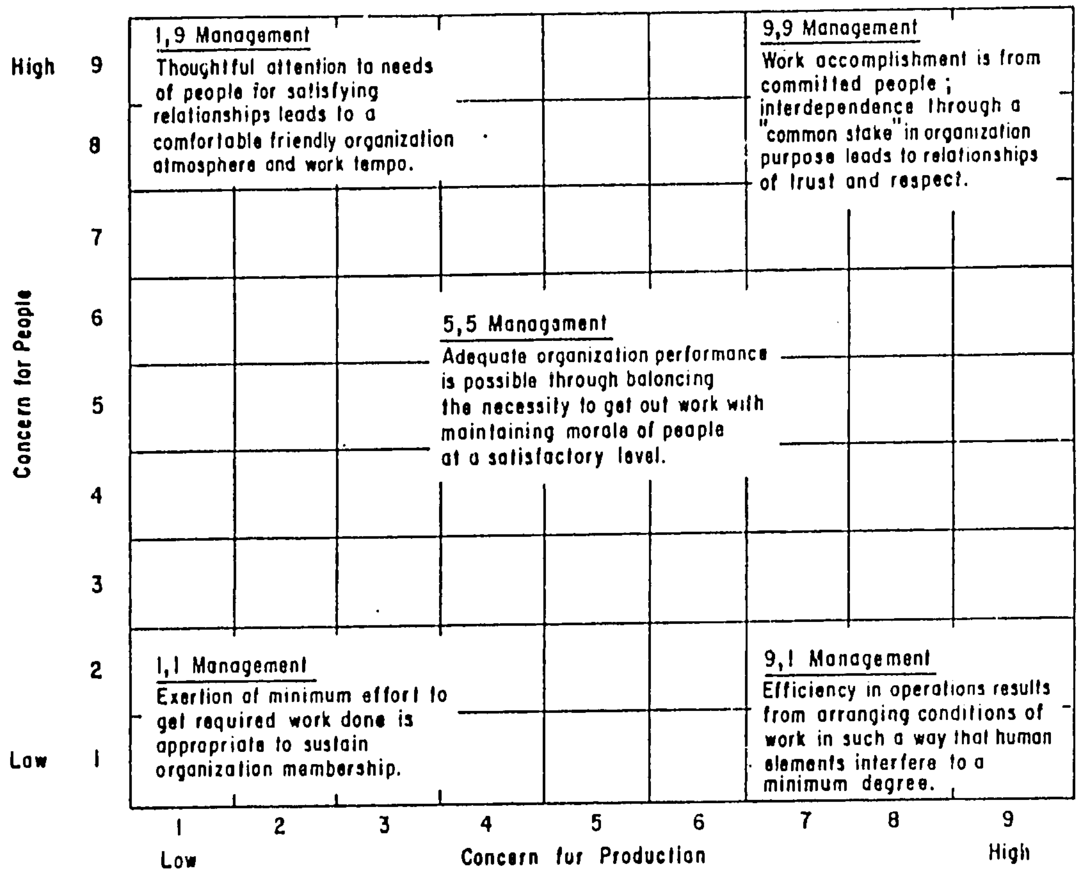
The emphasis changes from "management knows best" to the individual himself determining what is best for him in any given situation. The consequences are unlimited. The worker regains the sense of being treated as a unique and talented adult. The supervisor regains the respect of his subordinates. The organization gain is in providing satisfying jobs for employees to increase the organization's effectiveness and health.

Francis V. Jessey

Frederick Herzberg. *Work and the Nature of Man*. Cleveland: World, 1966.

THE MANAGERIAL GRID

In the Managerial Grid, five different types of leadership based on concern for production (task) and concern for people (relationship) are located in four quadrants.



As the above diagram illustrates, concern for production is illustrated on the horizontal axis. Production becomes more important to the leader as his rating advances on the horizontal scale. A leader with a rating of nine on the horizontal axis has a maximum concern for production.

Concern for people is illustrated on the vertical axis. People become more important to the leader as his or her rating progresses up the vertical axis. A leader with a rating of nine on the vertical axis has maximum concern for people.

The five leadership styles are described as follows:

Impoverished. Exertion of minimum effort to get required work done is appropriate to sustain organization memberhip (1,1).

Country Club. Thoughtful attention to needs of people for satisfying relationships leads to a comfortable friendly organization atmosphere and work tempo. (1,9).

Task. Efficiency in operations results from arranging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree (9,1).

Middle-of-the-Road. Adequate organization performance is possible through balancing the necessity to get out work while maintaining moral of people at a satisfactory level (5,5).

Team. Work accomplishment is from committed people; interdependence through a "common stake" in organization purpose leads to relationships of trust and respect (9,9).

The One Minute Manager

The One Minute Manager's "Game Plan"

How to give yourself & others "the gift" of getting greater results in less time.
SET GOALS; PRAISE & REPRIMAND BEHAVIORS; DEVELOP PEOPLE; SPEAK THE TRUTH; LAUGH; WORK; ENJOY
and encourage the people you work with to do the same as you do!

Start

with

Set New Goals

Review, Clarify & Agree On The Goals

ONE MINUTE GOALS
(on 1 sheet & read in 1 minute)

- agree on goals
- look at goals
- look at your behavior
- see if behavior matches goals
- discuss problems

Goals Achieved (or any part of the goals)

You Win!

Proceed to

Goals *Not* Achieved

You Lose!

Go Back to Goals once Then Proceed To

ONE MINUTE PRAISINGS
- praise the behavior (with true feelings)
- do it soon
- be specific
- tell the person what they did right
- and how you feel about it
- encourage the person (with true feelings)

Proceed With Success

ONE MINUTE REPRIMANDS
- reprimand the behavior (with true feelings)
- do it soon
- be specific
- tell the person what they did right
- and how you feel about it
- encourage the person (with true feelings)

Return To Start

The Three Secrets of The One Minute Manager

One Minute Goal Setting . . .

The first secret to being a One Minute Manager is One Minute Goal setting. Unless managers and their staff meet to establish and agree upon goals, objectives, or milestones, there cannot be a clear understanding of areas of accountability and job performance standards. Also, without goal-setting, there is no basis for One Minute Praisings or One Minute Reprimands.

How to Establish One Minute Goals

1. Meet with your manager and/or subordinate(s) to discuss the tasks associated with your/their job. Then, believing that eighty percent of a person's performance comes from twenty percent of their activities, the manager and subordinate should select 3 to 5 key areas that need attention and together, agree upon performance standards.
2. Write out your goals (5-6) on a single sheet of paper using less than 250 words for each.
3. Both manager and subordinate should read and reread the goals for clarity, understanding, agreement and brevity. Reading each goal should take less than one minute.
4. Take a minute every once in a while out of your day to compare your performance against your goals.
5. See whether or not your behavior matches your goal. If unsure, meet with your manager to discuss any problems.

One Minute Praisings . . .

The second secret is One Minute Praisings. Praisings are extremely effective with all of your people whether newly assigned, in training, in transition from one position to another or the most experienced. Do remember, however, that when people are learning new tasks, you may have to praise performance which is approximately right rather than waiting for it to be exactly right. And yet, exactly right is made up of a whole series of approximately rights. Praisings will reinforce behavior if given when their performance is approximately right.

How to Give One Minute Praisings

1. Praise people immediately; trainees, when performance is approximately right; experienced people, when performance is exactly right.
2. Tell people what they did right — be specific.
3. Tell people how good you FEEL about what they did right — be specific.
4. Stop for a moment of silence to let them "feel" how good you feel.
5. Encourage them to do more of the same.
6. And reaffirm that you think well of them and their performance.

One Minute Reprimands . . .

The third secret of One Minute Management is One Minute Reprimands. Reprimands are extremely effective with experienced and competent people who have previously demonstrated the proper behavior and results. Caution is needed when considering reprimands for personnel who have just been hired, are in training, or are experienced but learning a new task. In these cases a One Minute Manager will go back to goal setting rather than reprimand. If no improvement is observed after going back to goal-setting several times, a discussion of alterate career planning might be in order.

How to Deliver a One Minute Reprimand

1. Reprimand people immediately.
2. Tell people what they did wrong — be specific.
3. Tell people how you FEEL about what they did wrong — and in no uncertain terms.
4. Stop for a few seconds of uncomfortable silence to let them feel how you feel.
5. Remind them how much you value them.
6. Reaffirm that you do not think well of their performance in this situation, but you think well of them.
7. Realize that when the reprimand is over, it's over.

When to Reset Goals
AND
When to Reprimand

If a person:
CAN'T DO something → Go Back to Goal Setting *(A Training Problem)*

If a person:
WON'T DO something → Reprimand *(An Attitude Problem)*

The term:

A	B	C
Activator	**Behavior**	**Consequence**

What it means:

What a manager does before performance	What someone says or does	What a manager does after performance

Examples:

One Minute Goal Setting • Areas of Accountability • Performance standards • Instructions	**Performance** • Writes report • Sells shirt • Comes to work • Misses deadline • Types letter • Makes mistake • Fills order	**One Minute Praising** • Immediate, Specific • Shares feelings **One Minute Reprimand** • Immediate, Specific • Shares feelings • Supports individual **No Response**

The ABC's of management will help you to develop an understanding of how you can directly influence improved performance on the job and in your life.

A = Activators

Activators are all those things, events and people that affect employees' performance,--BEFORE they do or do not do their jobs. Activators play a major part in shaping the work environment. They can serve to inspire and motivate when used effectively. However, when misused, they will serve to inhibit and suppress.

Effective activators are those that provide a person with a clear understanding of what is expected and the resources necessary to succeed.

EXAMPLES: Outlining areas of accountability, providing training, discussing company policies and procedures and performance standards.

Ineffective activators are those that intimidate people, stifle creativity, limit communications, set up and contribute to a non-productive atmosphere.

EXAMPLES: Unclear or vague instructions, outdated procedures, inflexible management, withholding information and low level of trust.

Managers are activators. They serve the organization best when they set the examples through effective role modeling and the day to day training of personnel.

B = Behavior

Behavior is what a person says or does. It is a result of an individual's reaction to thoughts, feelings, needs, instincts, self esteem, recognition, etc. In the work setting, the primary influences in determining a person's behavior are what happens before they do something (activators), what happens after they do something (consequences), what they see others do and what appears to be the accepted norm. Behavior (performance) on the job must be observable and measurable in order to create a motivational environment where people receive feedback on results.

EXAMPLES: Creating schedules, making products, conducting research, writing reports, providing a service, selling a product.

= Consequences

Consequences are what is done or said,--AFTER someone's performance. The three most common consequences are positive, negative, and neutral. Consequences are open to individual differences; what is seen as positive by one person may be negative to another. The correct consequence at the proper time is the single most influential factor in people continuing to work well or improving their performance. A positive consequence, such as praising, tends to increase the frequency of future similar behavior; on the other hand, a negative consequence like a reprimand or a neutral consequence like being ignored or receiving no response decreases frequency of similar behavior in the future.

EXAMPLES: Promotion, a verbal recognition of a job well done, some monetary reward and a new challenging assignment.

The Price System is a five step management tool to improve employee performance. It works best when used consistently.

The PRICE SYSTEM is: P = Pinpoint--Determine the performance area of interest. R = Record--Measure current performance level on a graph. I = Involve--Agree on performance goals and strategies for coaching and evaluation. C = Coach--Observe performance and manage consequences. E = Evaluate--Track performance progress and determine future strategies.

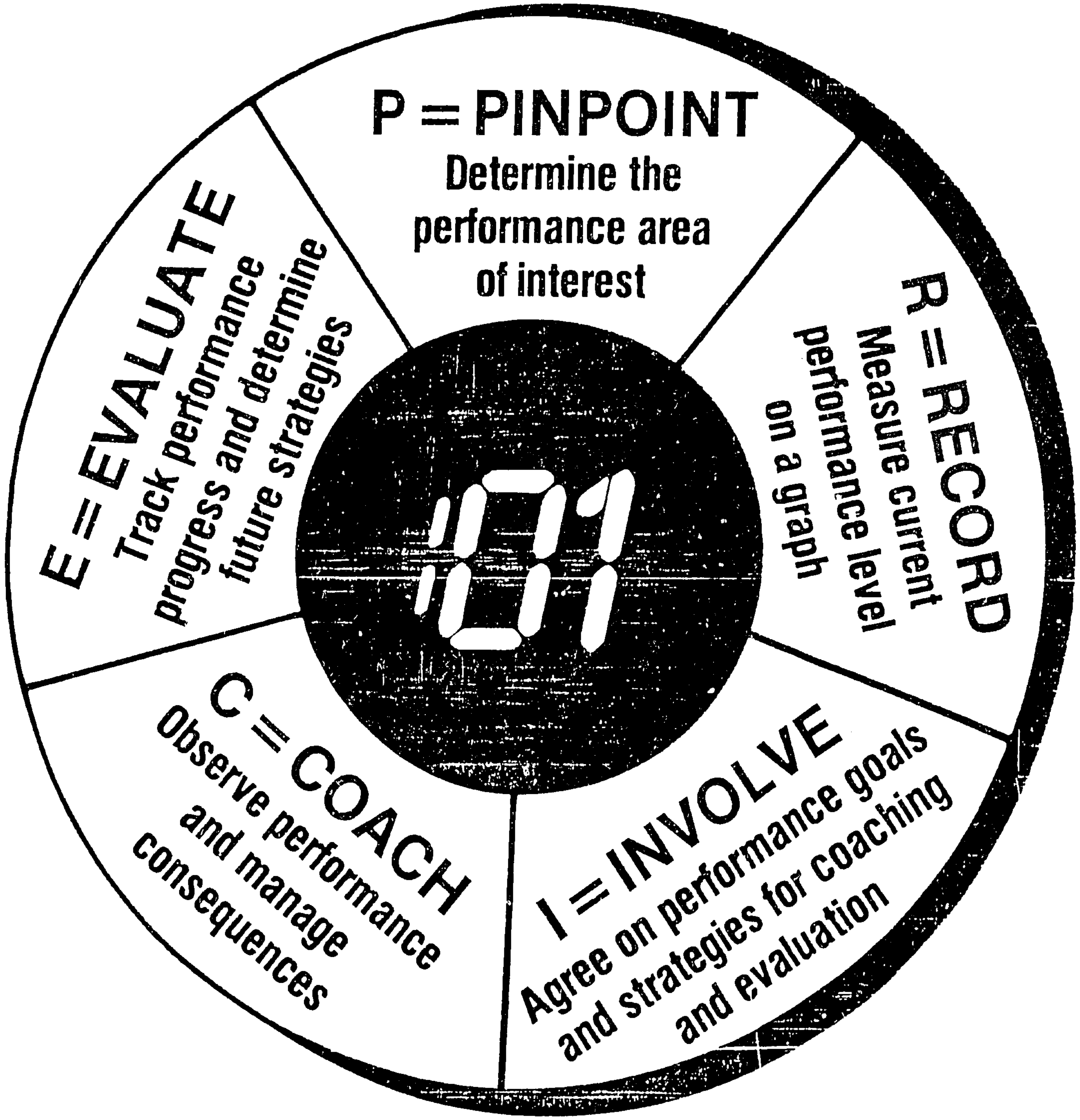
To **Pinpoint** you would:
- Identify key employee performance areas
- Prioritize those areas in order of importance
- Communicate what is expected of employees

To **Record** you would:
- Provide relevant information about present employee performance
- Provide decision making information

To **Involve** you would:
- Set observable, measurable goals for employees
- Determine what kind of supervision and support employees need
- Make sure employees know how they will be evaluated

To **Coach** you would:
- Praise progress
- Reprimand or redirect undesired employee performance
- Catch people doing things right

To **Evaluate** you would:
- Let people know how they are doing
- Promote employee self confidence
- Determine future strategies for performance improvement



P = PINPOINT
Determine the performance area of interest
R = RECORD
Measure current performance level on a graph
I = INVOLVE
Agree on performance goals and strategies for coaching and evaluation
C = COACH
Observe performance and manage consequences
E = EVALUATE
Track performance progress and determine future strategies

HOW GROUPS MAKE DECISIONS

In evaluating any decision made by a group, two factors must be considered. First, is the decision sound and sensible, based on the best data and estimates we can make? Second, is the decision one that people will accept and commit themselves to? No matter how sound a decision is, if people are not willing to put their shoulders to the wheel and implement it, the decision is worthless. Such decisions are apparent, not real. They are reached because people say "Yes" when they really feel "No" inside themselves. Those who helped make the decision are not really committed to it.

On the other hand, sometimes decisions that are not particularly sound from a logical point of view can have satisfactory consequences because people are truly committed to the decision. Even when some errors of estimation are made, a group that wants a decision to work can make it work. Thus, when deciding on methods of increasing sales or decreasing production costs, it is often hard to evaluate the future consequences of a particular method. There are many unknown and unexpected events. Consequently, a poor method with full group commitment will often achieve better results than an excellent method with poor group commitment.

We shall examine the decision making techniques used by groups from the standpoint of how fully members are committed to the decisions reached by the group. In other words, we are interested in looking at decisions from the standpoint of how to decrease apathy and resistance and increase motivation and personal involvement.

I. Decisions made by a single person with power.

In this kind of decision making a leader collects information and opinions and announces the decision. He may attempt to "sell it" or to persuade others to accept it. The mere fact that "selling it" is often resorted to indicates clearly that the leader realizes that he does not have full commitment to a decision just because he had announced it. Nor does the fact that a decision is the "best" decision always command commitment. The meaning of "best" varies from person to person, depending upon what they believe will happen to them as a result of the decision. It is commonly believed in organizations that employees accept the decision and influence of their supervisors. While there is some truth in this, this kind of commitment is rarely strong.

When a manager announces decisions that his subordinates do not like, there is a very easy way for them to defeat the manager and take away any favorable result the decision could have: simply carry out the decision accordingly right to the letter. No decision is perfect or perfectly worded. It is usually possible to expose its weakness by strictly adhering to the letter of the decision rather than its spirit.

Another type of unilateral decision is that made by a single member of a group who is not a designated leader and who decides to attempt to influence others without the support of anyone. If, as it often happens, he fails in the attempt he has laid a "plop". Both publicly and privately, all are aware of the failure to accept his decision.

II. The handclasp.

In groups that are building their own authority structure or where the authority structure is not clear, it often happens that a decision is made by two people, one of whom supports the other. A typical example from a committee meeting is this: One member says, "I think one of the first things that we ought to do is appoint a chairman." Another member from across the table replies, "That's a good idea, Jim; you go right ahead" and Jim falls for the trap and assumes the role of chairman. Actually he did not check with <u>other</u> people in the group to find out whether this decision was satisfactory or not. Support from one member, the handclasp across the table, was enough to make him think that he had full support of the group. In almost every instance of this kind, it will be found that some people had resented his action and others accepted it in a passive but unenthusiastic way.

I. Decision by minority.

This technique is often called "railroading". A small portion of the total group unites to force a decision. Ridicule, name-calling, accusations of obstructing progress, and similar tactics are used to silence at least a portion of the majority. Votes are not taken but the minority frequently repeats its support for the decision in such a way as to make the others bored, fatigued, and resigned. Obviously, in this kind of decision making, the majority has no real private commitment to the decision despite its public silence.

IV. Decision by majority.

This is a widely accepted method, but has severe drawbacks. Some of these drawbacks stem from the fact that majority voting often includes making a motion and debating it before voting. This process has the effect of dividing the group into those who are for and those against the motion. This technique permits no middle ground for creative compromise and leaves the neutral, undecided person with no influence in the discussion. An equally serious drawback arises from the willingness to permit a simple majority to make the decision. Thus, in a group of ten people, four may be opposed yet overruled by the other six. In essence, this means that the group has lost forty percent of its potential push for success. The common belief that the minority can close ranks after the voting and accept a position simply because they were out-voted is not well founded. At the most, a minority may not interfere with the implementation of the decision, but they will not push hard to make the decision successful either. Groups often recognize this right away and if they have developed some flexibility in their procedures, will often reconsider decisions that are made by a slim majority.

V. Decision by consensus.

In this kind of decision making, issues are freely raised, debated, and modified until the members of the group share a common feeling that the group is ready to act. Only when each person in the group freely offers his opinion and a decision is hammered out by the public examination of all ideas is a true consensus likely to be reached. This means that the group atmosphere must be one in which people feel free to speak up and which is characterized by considerable respect among the members. Members of the group can tell when consensus has been reached by the fact that most of the members feel that the group is truly committed to a course of action, both publicly and privately. This does not mean that it has been unanimous agreement. Rather, it means that those who still oppose the decision will help to implement it because they feel they have been fairly treated and listened to. Furthermore, those in opposition are less strongly opposed than in majority voting because they have helped reach creative compromises and modifications in the proposals. In achieving consensus, all proposals are tentative except the last one.

Since achieving genuine consensus requires considerable time, many people feel that it is wasteful. They see no reason for considering trivial and apparently illogical objections. Yet the charge of wastefulness must be balanced against the fact that decisions reached by consensus are more likely to be carried out with vigor and dispatch than those reached by other methods.

In an effort to save time, some groups occasionally resort to "false consensus". In this case, a decision that has apparently been reached is announced as final "unless anybody has some strong objection". This technique of interpreting silence as consent can result in a very misleading assessment of the group's true feelings. Even worse, it does not encourage the full participation and contribution of ideas that could make for a creative and workable decision.

I. Basic consensus

Oftentimes pressures and emergencies of the dynamic business situation do not permit an opportunity to obtain consensus on all decisions. Then, too, the total number of decisions to be made may be so great that consensus cannot be achieved in any practical way. There is also the fact that people are often not available for consultation or meetings when decisions are to be made. What can be done about these problems?

Basic consensus is not something which is established for any given decision. Rather, it is a contract or mutual understanding that has gradually developed among the members of the group. In an organization it represents an understanding between work groups that involve varying degrees of status and authority. This basic understanding has come about because people have learned to know and trust one another in the course of making many previous decisions. Essentially, the basic consensus represents these kinds of agreements to which people have given their assent:

A. In our work together, people count. Their ideas and their feelings are to be respected and listened to. Whenever possible these feelings and ideas will be considered, discussed, and utilized in arriving at our final decision.

B. Work pressures and travel schedules may prevent holding a meeting. Then unilateral action may be taken by the person responsible for the problem area. Since he knows the attitudes and feelings of the group, he can act in accordance with their probably views and tentative consent.

C. Such unilateral decisions are open to examination and discussed after they have been made. This applied equally to decisions made by the leader or by members. In this discussion, the group develops a deeper understanding of policies, and other considerations which will apply to future unilateral decisions.

D. Arriving at a basic consensus requires that all data relevant to the group's area of responsibility has been shared. Withholding of relevant information makes it impossible for the group member to make unilateral decisions that accord with the group's views.

Basic consensus depends upon trust, full information, and the ability of group members to commit themselves to decisions. Both these qualities, once achieved, will not last forever. Inevitably, situations will arise that increase tension and decrease understanding. That means that the basic consensus is weakening. New work to re-establish the basic consensus will be required if the group is to operate as well as it did formerly.

APPROACHES TO MANAGEMENT DECISION-MAKING AND PROBLEM-SOLVING

Styles	Definition
1	You solve the problem or make the decision yourself, using information available to you at that time.
2	You obtain the necessary information from your subordinate(s), then decide on the solution to the problem yourself. You may or may not tell your subordinates what the problem is in getting the information from them. The role played by your subordinates in making the decision is clearly one of providing the necessary information to you, rather than generating or evaluating alternative solutions.
3	You share the problem with relevant subordinates individually, getting their ideas and suggestions without bringing them together as a group. Then you make the decision which may or may not reflect your subordinates' influence.
4	You share the problem with your subordinates as a group, collectively obtaining their ideas and suggestions. Then you make the decision which may or may not reflect your subordinates' influence.
5	You share a problem with your subordinates as a group. Together you generate and evaluate alternatives and attempt to reach agreement (consensus) on a solution. Your role is much like that of chairman. You do not try to influence the group to adopt "your" solution and you are willing to accept and implement any solution which has the support of the entire group.

DECIDING ON A DECISION-MAKING APPROACH

We have placed a great deal of emphasis on the fact that there is no one best style of leadership. The contingency model claims that the best leadership approach is often dependent upon the situation a manager faces. The same type of generalizations can be made when dealing with the various approaches to decision making.

The best approach to decision making often depends upon the answers that one gets when asking questions around the following issues:

DO I NEED A HIGH QUALITY DECISION?

INFORMATION

a) Do you have the necessary information or expertise to make an effective decision?

(Structure) Where and how to obtain and analyze it.

TIME

a) If many people have the information you need to make an effective decision the more time it will take to make a decision.

b) The more participative you want to make the decision the more time you (the group) will need to make it.

c) Remember, the issue is the time it takes to make the decision - not to implement it.

ACCEPTANCE

a) The extent to which the people who must implement the decision accept that decision and are motivated and committed to making the decision work.

Do I need commitment?

Will they commit w/o participation?

b) Are subordinates likely to be in conflict with each other?

SUBORDINATE GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

a) The extent to which the process of making the decision contributes to the development of subordinates or the team of subordinates who might in the future be able to perform more effectively as a result.

b) Can subordinates be trusted to identify with the goals of the branch, division, or organization. (Goal Congruence)

In summary, the quality of a decision, that is, the decision effectiveness is highly dependent upon the approach that one uses. In turn, the most effective decision approach one uses is highly dependent on the answers one receives when asking questions around the issues of INFORMATION, TIME, ACCEPTANCE and SUBORDINATE GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT. Take the time to consider these issues before choosing an approach.

Decision Effectiveness (Quality) $\xrightarrow[\text{upon}]{\text{depends}}$ Decision Approach (1, 2, 3, 4, 5,) which $\xrightarrow[\text{upon}]{\text{depends}}$ INFORMATION
TIME
ACCEPTANCE
SUBORDINATE DEVELOPMENT

CASES

Case I

You are manufacturing manager in a large electronics plant. The company's management has always been searching for ways of increasing efficiency. They have recently installed new machines and put in a new simplified work system, but to the surprise of everyone, including yourself, the expected increase in productivity was not realized. In fact, production has begun to drop, quality has fallen off, and the number of employee separations has risen.

You do not believe that there is anything wrong with the machines. You have had reports from other companies who are using them and they confirm this opinion. You have also had representatives from the firm that built the machines go over them and they report that they are operating at peak efficiency.

You suspect that some parts of the new work system may be responsible for the change but this view is not widely shared among your immediate subordinates who are four first-line supervisors, each in charge of a section, and your supply manager. The drop in production has been variously attributed to poor training of the operators, lack of an adequate system of financial incentives, and poor morale. Clearly, this is an issue about which there is considerable depth of feeling within individuals and potential disagreement between your subordinates.

This morning you received a phone call from your division manager. He had just received your production figures for the last six months and was calling to express his concern. He indicated that the problem was yours to solve in any way that you think best, but that he would like to know within a <u>week</u> what steps you plan to take.

You share your division manager's concern with the falling productivity and know that your men are also concerned. The problem is to decide what steps to take to rectify the situation.

Case II

You are general foreman in charge of a large gang laying an oil pipeline. It is now necessary to estimate your expected rate of progress in order to schedule material deliveries to the next field site.

You know the nature of the terrain you will be traveling and have the historical data needed to compute the mean and variance in the rate of speed over that type of terrain. Given these two variables it is a simple matter to calculate the earliest and latest times at which materials and support facilities will be needed at the next site. It is important that your estimate be reasonably accurate. Underestimates result in idle foremen and workers, and an overestimate results in tying up materials for a period of time before they are to be used.

Progress has been good and your five foremen and other members of the gang stand to receive substantial bonuses if the project is completed ahead of schedule.

Case III

You are supervising the work of twelve engineers. Their formal training and work experience are very similar, permitting you to use them interchangeably on projects. Yesterday your manager informed you that a request had been received from an overseas affiliate for four engineers to go abroad on extended loan for a period of six to eight months. For a number of reasons, he argued and you agreed that this request should be met from your group.

All your engineers are capable of handling this assignment, and from the standpoint of present and future projects there is no particular reason why any one should be retained over any other. The problem is somewhat complicated by the fact that the overseas assignment is in what is generally regarded in the company as an undesirable location.

Case IV

You are the head of a research and development laboratory in the nuclear reactor division of a large corporation. Often it is not clear whether a particular piece of research is potentially of commercial interest or merely of "academic" interest to the researchers. In your judgment, one major area of research has advanced well beyond the level at which operating divisions pertinent to the area could possibly assimilate or make use of the data being generated.

Recently, two new areas with potentially high returns for commercial development have been proposed by one of the operating divisions. The team working in the area referred to in the previous paragraph is ideally qualified to research these new ideas. Unfortunately, both the new areas are relatively devoid of scientific interest, while the project in which the team is currently engaged is of great scientific interest to all members.

At the moment, this is, or is close to being, your best research team. The team is very cohesive, has a high level of morale, and has been very productive. You are concerned not only that they would not want to switch their efforts to these new areas, but also that forcing them to concentrate on these two new projects could adversely affect their moral, their good intra-group working relations, and their future productivity both as individuals and as a team.

You have to respond to the operating division within the next two weeks indicating what resources, if any, can be devoted to working on these projects. It would be possible for the team to work on more than one project but each project would need the combined skills of all the members of the team, so no fragmentation of the team is technically feasible. This fact, coupled with the fact that the team is very cohesive, means that a solution which satisfies any team member would very probably go a long way to satisfying everyone on the team.

Case V

You will leave on Sunday night to attend a four-week course at one of the leading business schools. One of your subordinates must be selected to act for you in your absence. You can arrange to phone the office two to three times a week, but whoever acts for you may need to make a number of important decisions.

The prinicipal responsibilities of your replacement are to coordinate the work of your other subordinates. In this area he will need to rely, as you do, on persuasion rather than formal authority. If the group lacked confidence in the person chosen, productivity would definitely suffer.

You have two people in mind who could handle the assignment. The one thing about which you are uncertain is the nature of their work loads for the next month. The nature of the work does not easily permit a redistribution of work among members of the group and the person chosen cannot be one who already has a heavy volume of work to be carried out during this period.

The person who assumes your position during your absence would acquire some status within the group and, for this reason, each person would want the job. On the other hand, each of your subordinates realizes that it is critical for the job to be done well, and they all want to prove to you that the operation can continue to be effective during your absence.

On the two previous occasions when you have had to be absent for significant periods, the people you selected were accepted by everybody and performed the job conscientiously and well. It appears that once you have decided who should do the job, your judgment is accepted without question.

Case VI

As a result of declining profits, all departments in the company have been asked to trim non-essential expenditures. As office manager, you have decided to investigate the office's need for its present large, fast, and highly flexible copier. If it could be replaced with one of several cheaper machines on the market a substantial cost saving could be effected. You have the specifications for both the present and smaller machines, and the salesmen have advised you of various factors governing choice of machine--including utilization rates, number of copies required, and fidelity of reproduction necessary. The office personnel can easily provide you with this data.

The office personnel would like to retain the present machine. They are much less concerned than you about costs, and are very cognizant of the many advantages the larger machine offers in ease of operation. If you installed the smaller machine, the personnel might need to improvise on some jobs or take the work over to another department which would waste a lot of time. The personnel could make life difficult for you by using any excuse to go over to the other department. The potential waste of time involved would mean that you would have to rule on each individual case, as no general set of regulations could be established to cover all contingencies.

Even though they will obviously be affected, all the personnel know what a substantial amount of money is involved and believe that making these decisions is what you are paid for. It is an office joke that none of them would want your job and its responsibilities.

POWER AND INFLUENCE

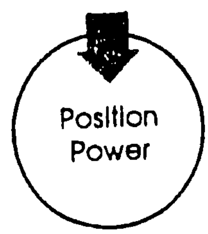
A discussion on leadership would not be complete without examining power, because leadership is essentially an attempt to Influence. Power is influence potential. It is the resource that allows the leader to gain compliance or commitment.

If you are going to attempt to influence the behavior of others, you must understand your potential to do so.

Power has been characterized as having two basic elements. Each is distinct from the other, but an important interdependence exists between them.

<u>Position power</u> is defined as the extent to which you as a leader have rewards, punishments and sanctions which you can bring to bear in reference to your subordinates. This is the authority which has been delegated to you by your superiors.

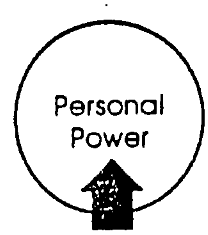
Position power is not inherent in an organizational office. Managers occupying positions in an organization may have more or less position power than their predecessor or someone else in a similar position in the same organization. It is not a matter of the office having power, but rather the extent to which those people to whom Managers report are willing to delegate authority and responsibility down to them. So position power tends to flow down in an organization.



Position Power comes from above

<u>Personal Power</u> is the extent to which you gain the confidence and respect of your people...your ability to generate cohesiveness and commitment among the people you are attempting to lead.

Personal power in an organizational setting comes from the followers. Thus one must be careful in saying that some leaderes are charismatic or have personal power that flows from them. If that were true, Managers with personal power could take over any department and have the same commitment and rapport they had in their last department. It is known that that is not true. Although Managers certainly can influence the amount of personal power they have by the way they treat their people, it is a volatile kind of power. It can be taken away rapidly by followers. Make a few dramatic mistakes and see how many people are willing to follow. Personal power is a day-to-day phenomenon - it can be earned and it can be taken away.



Personal Power comes from below

In summary, those individuals who understand power and are willing to use it are more effective than those who do not or will not. Individuals who are able to induce other individuals to do a certain job because of their position in the organization are considered to have position power; individuals who derive their power from their followers are considered to have personal power. Some individuals can have both types of power. Effective leaders don't rely on either power base...They draw from both appropriately.

INTERDEPENDENCE BETWEEN BASES

There is a very important interrelationshiup existing between position power and personal power. Personal and position power are interdependent to the following extent:

- o The amount of position power delegated to you by superiors depends to a great extent on their perception of how much personal power you have, i.e., the extent to which your people will follow your lead.

- o The amount of personal power given to you by your subordinates depends to a great extent on their perception of how much position power you have, i.e., the amount of rewards, punishments and sanctions you are able to exercise as a result of Management's trust in you.

Perception

When considering power, it is not reality that evokes behavior on the part of superiors or subordinates...it's their perception of reality that evokes behavior.

Therefore, as you attempt to influence behavior, the people above and below you need sufficient data to know that your position and personal power bases exist. You have to get the data out where they can see it and form the perceptions that will evoke behavior. It's not enough to have authority from Management and commitment from your people; you must let each group know that you have power bases.

POWER AND INFLUENCE

PURPOSE: To examine how people get and use power and influence with other people and groups.

I. Power Defined

A. Power/influence is the ability to get things done, to mobilize resources, to get and use whatever it is a person needs for goals he/she is attempting to meet.

B. The powerful are the ones who have access to tools for action.

II. Power Bases

A. Coercive (Punishment) - the leader's ability to punish.

B. Reward - the leader's ability to provide rewards (salary increases, promotions, public recognition).

C. Organization Influence (Up and Down) - based on both the position held and personal factors (abilities, skills, personality).

D. Attraction - based on admiration of a person's abilities, traits, and reputation.

NOTE: Usually works with admirers - not with neutrals or detractors (examples: rock stars, John Kennedy).

E. Expert Power - based on an individual's personal expertise, skill, and knowledge.

F. Exchange - often outside the organization

G. Information - access to valuable information.

III. Importance of Power and Influence

A. Gets, for the group, a favorable share of the resources (machines, people), opportunities (projects, promotions), and rewards.

B. The combination of good human relations and power/influence produces high morale.

C. A very important characteristic of effective managers is credibility - competence plus power/influence - the known ability to get results.

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IV. Sources of Power - "How to Get It"

A. Formal position power plus competence.

B. Outstanding performance, provided the tasks completed are:

1. Extraordinary
2. They are visible
3. Related to pressing organizational problems

C. Reorganize

D. Alliances

1. Sponsors
2. Peers
3. Subordinates

V. Without Power/Responses

A. Powerless managers who are insecure about their organizational status tend to give the least freedom to subordinates and to personally control their department activities much more tightly than powerful managers.

B. Sometimes low power managers and supervisors take over the task and try to do or direct closely the work of subordinates instead of giving them a free hand, because technical mastery of job content was one of the few areas in which they feel powerful.

C. The powerless inside the authority structure often become rule minded in response to the limited options for power in their situation - they use rules as power tools.

D. As protection and a defense the psychologically powerless turn to control over others. They want to be right all the time and are irritated at being proven wrong. They cannot tolerate disagreement. They become critical, bossy, and controlling. Some degree of power, in the sense of mastery and control over one's fate, is necessary for feelings of self-esteem and well being.

POWER

Notes from <u>Men and Women of the Organization</u> by Rosabeth Moss Kanter

Definition of Power

- Power is the ability to get things done, to mobilize resources, to get and use whatever it is a person needs for goals he/she is attempting to meet.
- When more people are empowered, that is, allowed to have control over the conditions that make their actions possible, then more is accomplished.
- The true meaning of power is closer to autonomy than to domination or control over others.
- The problem with absolute power lies in the fact that it renders everyone else powerless.
- Empowering more people through generating more autonomy, more participation in decisions, and more access to resources, increases the total capacity for effective action rather than increases domination.
- The powerful are the ones who have access to tools for action.

The Importance of Power for Leadership Functions

- Power (outward and upward) makes a difference in leadership in the ability to get for the group a favorable share of the resources, opportunities, and rewards possible through the organization.
- The combination of good human relations and power produces high morale.
- Power begets power. People who are thought to have power already and to be well placed in the hierarchies of prestige and status may also be more influential and more effective in getting the people around them to do things and feel satisfied about it.
- More important than any other characteristic of effective managers is credibility - competence plus power - the known ability to get results.
- Credibility upward rather than downward - that is, wider system power - renders managers effective. To have it downward, with subordinates, managers must first have it upward, with their own superiors and the people with whom their tasks are interwoven.

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- The preference for association with the powerful and the degree to which this preference motivates members of organizations is a function of the degree of dependency built into the organization itself. The large, complex hierarchical corporation fosters dependency. (Call this interdependence). An uncomfortable feeling of dependency is also the psychological result when the problems of getting approval, being recognized, or moving resources through multiple check-points make people see one another as threats, roadblocks, or hindrances rather than as collaborators.

- Power in an organization rests in part on the ability to solve dependency problems and to control relevant sources of uncertainty.

- The most power goes to those people in those functions that provide greater control over what the organization finds currently problematic.

- People become dependent on those who can help them make their way through the system or provide the means to bypass rules that are behaviorally constraining or inappropriately applied. They become dependent on those with discretion over necessary resources; and to the extent that the system cannot be perfectly rationalized, with pockets of uncertainty remaining, those who control important contingencies remain a strong basis for personal power.

- People who can influence promotion and placement decisions have a source of power to the extent that people feel dependent because of the uncertainties in their careers.

Organization Politics and the Sources of Power

- Along with the useful classifications of the bases of social power, that is French and Raven's proposed five: reward power, coercive power, expert power, reference power, and legitimate power, there are also a number of bases of power that are specifically organizational.

- The accumulation of formal position power in the hierarchy is very important, and competence within the position is also a major factor.

- The number of power bases in an organization increase with the number of uncertainties or contingencies it faces.

- Changing business climate is known to shift the relative position of functions with respect to one another and to account for the balance of power between people who depend on each other across function.

Activities as a Route to Power

- Power can be accumulated as a result of performance - the job related activities people engage in. For activities to increase the power of the persons engaging in them, they have to meet three criteria: 1) they are extraordinary, 2) they are visible, and 3) they are relevant - identified with a solution to a pressing organizational problem

- Extraordinary activities - excellent performance on tasks where behavior is more or less predictable may be valued, but it will not necessarily add to power. Performance requiring discretion is more likely to be noticeable, and noticeability increases power. The edge in a bargaining relationship is held by the person whose behavior is not predictable.

- Reorganizations are common ways to manipulate the structure to increase power.

- Pulling off extraordinary risks is also power enhancing - a classic source of the awe inspired by charismatic leaders.

- Visibility - for activities to enhance power, they have to be visible to attract the notice of other people. Jobs that straddle the boundaries between organizational units or between the organization and its environment tend to have nore noticeable activities. It is also possible to gain noticeability through participation on task forces or committees.

- Relevance - extraordinary and visible activities would not necessarily build power if they failed the relevance test: whether or not they could be identified with the solution to pressing organizational problems. Relevance is similar to what other theorists have termed immediacy.

<u>Alliances: Power Through Others</u>

- In large, complex systems, it is almost a necessity for power to come from social connections especially those outside of the immediate workgroup. Such connections need to be long term and stable and include sponsors (mentors and advocates upward in the organization), peers and subordinates. (Remember: A sponsor also has a political responsibility to themselves).

- Sponsors are often thought of as teachers or coaches whose functions are primarily to make introductions or to train a young person to move effectively through the system.

- There are three important functions that generate power for the people sponsored: 1) sponsors are often in a position to fight for the person in question, 2) sponsors often provide the occasion for lower level organization members to bypass the hierarchy: to get inside information, to short-circuit cumbersome procedures, or to cut red tape, 3) sponsors also provide an important signal to other people, a form of reflected power. Sponsorship indicates to others that the person in question has the backing of an influential person, that the sponsor's resources are somewhere behind the individual.

- Identification with a sponsor is important. People (Boy) Wonders rise under certain power structures. They are recognized by a powerful person because they are very much like him/her. They see themselves, a younger version, in that person.

- Peers - the accumulation of organizational power rests also in the developing of strong peer alliances. The support and assistance of peers are vital to the success of individuals. Strong alliances among peers can also advance the group as a whole.

- Subordinates - the accumulation of power through alliances is not always upward oriented. That is, juniors or peers one day could become a person's boss the next. So it could be to a person's advantage to make alliances downward in the hierarchy with people who look like they might be on the way up.

Accountability Without Power: Sources of Bureaucratic Powerlessness

- People who have authority without system power are powerless. People held accountable for the results produced by others, whose formal role gives them the right to command but who lack informal political influence, access to resources, outside status, sponsorship, or mobility prospects are rendered powerless in the organization. They lack control over their own state and are dependent on others above them - others whom they cannot easily influence - while they are expected by virtue of position to be influential over those parallel or below.

- First line supervisors in highly scrutinized functions are often functionally powerless. They have little chance to gain power through activities. They have few rewards to distribute.

- Occupants of certain staff jobs are similarly powerless. They have no line authority and are dependent on managers to implement their decisions and carry out their recommendations.

- Regardless of function, people can also be rendered powerless if their own management does not extend opportunities for power downward. Superiors who solve problems themselves or try to do the job themselves disempower the managers or professionals under them.

- Considered ideal, is the manager who never gives anyone an answer; but when you walked out of their office, you had it because they asked you the questions that made you think of it.

- Anyone who is protected loses power, for successes are then attributed to the helpful actions of others, rather than the person's own actions.

- Being in a position where decisions are reviewed and authority could be under-cut also creates powerlessness.

- Nothing diminishes leaders power more than subordinates knowledge that they can always go over their heads, or that what they promised has no real clout.

- Powerlessness is a general condition of those people who cannot make the kinds of powerful alliances that help to manage the bureaucracy. People without sponsors, without peer connections, or without promising subordinates remain in a situation of bureaucratic dependency. Formal procedures, routine allocations of rewards, communications that flow through a multi-layered chain of command, and decisions that must penetrate innumerable veto barriers are conditions that result.

Behavioral Responses to Powerlessness

- As protection and a defense the psychologically powerless turn to control over others. They want to be right all the time and are irritated at being proven wrong. They cannot tolerate disagreement. They become critical, bossy, and controlling. Some degree of power, in the sense of mastery and control over one's fate, is necessary for feelings of self-esteem and well being.

- People respond to the restrictiveness of their own situation by behaving restrictively toward others.

- Powerless managers who are insecure about their organizational status tended to give the least freedom to subordinates and to personally control their department activities much more tightly than powerful managers.

- Sometimes low power managers and supervisors take over the task and try to do or direct closely the work of subordinates instead of giving them a free hand, because technical mastery of job content was one of the few areas in which they feel powerful.

- The powerless inside the authority structure often become rule minded in response to the limited options for power in their situation - they use rules as power tools

Overcoming Resistance to Change

Overview

You don't have to think very hard to realize how fast change takes place. Just think back to the way things were when you were a child and the way things are today.

Fortunately, most individuals can change with the times. But because a business organization is made up of many individuals, its ability to change is slower and more difficult than that of a single individual. The important thing, however, is that the organization has the ability to change. If it doesn't, it will not survive.

One of the reasons people resist organizational change is that it comes from "upstairs." A person who chooses to change jobs is usually positive about that change because he or she knows what's involved, and knows the way in which the new job is going to be different. But when an employee is told he or she must change jobs, the reaction is often negative because the employee isn't sure how the change will affect day-to-day work—or work in the future.

The professional supervisor understands that many employees will be threatened by change. The professional supervisor also understands that if this threat isn't removed, proposed changes may very well not take place and the organization will suffer.

Overcoming resistance to change involves eliminating the fear of the unknown which causes such resistance. As a professional supervisor you'll need to prepare yourself to bring about change in a way that creates as few problems and fears as possible.

Before you communicate a proposed change or changes, analyze carefully how each of these changes will affect your employees today and tomorrow. Put yourself in your employees' shoes and try to foresee the questions they'll ask. That way, you'll have most of the answers. They'll need to be reassured that the proposed changes will affect them positively.

The most effective way of overcoming resistance to change, of course, is to involve people in the process of analyzing where and why change is needed. When people are involved in this process, they understand why change is needed and how it will affect them.

UNIT 11

Overcoming Resistance to Change

Key Actions

Here are the five Key Actions you should follow to overcome resistance to change.

1) **Describe the reasons why the change is required.**
Example: The new contract we negotiated requires us to keep very detailed records of our costs and expenses. If we continue to use our present bookkeeping methods, we aren't going to be able to process the amount of data we're receiving. We're also not going to get the kind of accurate, timely reports we now need.

2) **State the specific changes that are required.**
Example: The most efficient way of handling this problem is to computerize our accounting system. To do this, we're going to buy a small computer and send two bookkeepers to a computer training course. After they've gone through the training, they'll receive promotions. The other two bookkeepers will be given positions in Personnel with no loss of pay. We're making these changes to improve our company and to make sure that no one loses his or her job.

3) **Ask for employee reaction.**
Example: O.K., that's the basic plan. What are your reactions? Where do you see the plusses and where do you have concerns?

4) **Clear up misunderstandings and fill in information gaps.**
Example: I really mean it when I say there won't be any layoffs. That's a company commitment. The bookkeepers we send to the training course will practice what they learn before they return to their new jobs. They'll also have job aids to help them back here with their new tasks. Learning how to use the computer may take a little time, but it won't be that difficult.

5) **Ask the employee to support the change—even if he or she disagrees.**
Example: I understand your concerns about using a computerized accounting system when you've been using a manual one for 14 years. I know you think the computer may create new problems. But I want to ask for your support even if you don't agree. We feel that the problems caused by making this change will be less than the problems we'll have if we don't make a change. And we need your support to make it work. Can I count on you?

4) Clear up misunderstandings or fill in information gaps.

When change is planned or announced, it is easy for misunderstandings to occur. It is therefore important to clear up misunderstandings and fill in needed information before misinformation is spread and undue fears are aroused.

5) Ask the employee to support the change—even if he or she disagrees.

You may find certain employees will just not agree with the necessity of the proposed changes. If this occurs, your task is not to argue or become defensive, but to accept the fact there may be an honest difference of opinion. If this occurs, acknowledge that the difference exists, and then openly ask for the employee's support. Management must often ask for a commitment to effect change even though it's clear that not everyone agrees.

Overcoming Resistance to Change

Rationale

Let's look at the five Key Actions more closely.

1) **Describe the reasons why the change is required.**

   Change should be prompted by logical reasons. If you can explain these reasons to your employees, they will understand why the changes are being made. Usually such an understanding leads to acceptance.

2) **State the specific changes that are required.**

   You achieve two objectives by being specific about the changes that are required. First, you sketch the depth and breadth of the entire change. This allows employees to know which areas of their work will be affected and which areas won't be. Second, specific information fills in information gaps. Without specific information, you can be sure those gaps will be filled with rumors. And rumors are the enemy of change because they create uncertainty.

3) **Ask for employee reaction.**

   This is where the professional supervisor can really exhibit management skills. Don't be afraid of negative comments. You'll get them, but the atmosphere of openness you'll create by asking for reactions will far outweigh the effect of any negative comments. In fact, if the initial reaction of your employees is positive, come right out and ask if they see any negative aspects of the changes required. And, conversely, if the initial reaction is negative, let your employees have their say and then ask for positive aspects of the changes. Remember, the objective of this meeting is to get the employees to accept, or at least support the changes, not to force them down their throats. Listen carefully to what they say. In several instances, employees have convinced management that proposed changes would do more harm than good, and have helped their companies avoid costly and time-consuming mistakes.

CONSTRUCTIVE CONFLICT IN DISCUSSIONS: LEARNING TO MANAGE DISAGREEMENTS EFFECTIVELY

Many cases of ineffective decision making on a national level can be cited: the lack of preparation for the attack on Pearl Harbor; the stalemate in the Korean War; the Bay of Pigs invasion; the repeated and unsuccessful escalations in the Vietnam War; the decision to cover up the Watergate break-in. The faulty decisions reached in these instances were a result of an inadequate process of discussion that did not allow members to voice disagreements and to engage in significant conflict of ideas. If conflict is stifled in groups of national policy makers, it is even more likely to be so in lower-level decision-making groups.

To understand why conflict is so often suppressed in problem-solving groups, it is necessary to consider our conceptions of conflict. Webster (1967) defines conflict as "disagreement . . . war, battle, collision, emotional tension . . . the opposition of persons. . . ." Some typical student definitions of conflict concur: "Conflict happens when members of a group are too closed minded to compromise." "It occurs when someone wants his own way in the group." "Hostility among members." "When there is conflict in a group, somebody loses and somebody else wins." These definitions suggest that conflict is regarded as somewhat negative in nature and, perhaps, as something to be avoided. It is unfortunate that such negative connotations have become associated with conflict because, when it is well managed, conflict is highly constructive; in fact, it is essential to effective problem-solving discussions.

There are, of course, both constructive and disruptive methods of dealing with conflict. Its value in a problem-solving discussion is realized or defeated by the participants' skills in managing it. Learning how to disagree productively is a primary consideration for the training of effective discussants.

CONFLICT AS A POSITIVE FORCE

Reaching consensus on a solution to a shared problem is a major goal of problem-solving discussions. Before a group can achieve consensus, however, the views of different members must be heard, given fair consideration, and critically evaluated. Conflict or disagreement is a natural and essential part of this process. The very idea of discussion, in fact, presupposes the existence of differing viewpoints regarding the "best" method of resolving a common problem or concern.

Although many textbooks have drawn a distinction between argumentation (which is claimed to be appropriate for public speaking) and cooperative, reflective talk (which is associated with problem-solving discussions) (Brilhart, 1967; Wagner & Arnold, 1965), such a separation is misleading. Argumentation in discussion is important, indeed essential. Sound decisions, the goal of problem-solving discussions, depend on an atmosphere that is conducive to the expression of differing opinions, to the rigorous scrutiny of evidence and implications, and to the thorough consideration of all possible alternative courses of action. A group should encourage these activities, which include disagreements, in order to increase its chances of making sound and well-considered decisions. If a group discourages these activities and muffles disagreements, it is more likely to make superficial or unwise decisions.

Most decisions must be made under uncertain conditions. Relevant information may be unavailable and knowledge about future consequences or implications of the problem and its possible solutions may be, at best, speculative. Making decisions under these conditions is difficult. However, it is possible to increase the probability of making sound choices by realizing that good decisions must grow out of the clash and conflict of divergent ideas and out of the serious consideration of differing alternatives.

The traditional dictum for reflective cooperative talk is, of course, useful, but to rule out the argumentative aspects of discussion is to deny the intensity of deliberation that is necessary for sound decision making.

OUTGROWTHS OF CONFLICT

There appear to be at least three noteworthy reasons for encouraging conflict in problem-solving discussions:

1. By entertaining diverse ideas and perspectives, it is possible to gain a broadened understanding of the nature of the problem and its implications.
2. By encouraging the expression of different ideas, a group has potentially more alternatives from which to select a final solution.
3. The excitement that comes from conflicting ideas stimulates healthy interaction and involvement with the group's task.

The first two reasons affect the group product—decisions; the third reason affects the group process.

A Broadened Understanding

In problem-solving discussions the first objective is to agree on the problem or concern that prompted the meeting of the group. Although many people assume that this is a simple matter, it is a significant phase in the process of decision making. Superficial attention to this first phase often leads to backtracking later or to conclusions that are based on an inaccurate assessment of the problem and that do not address the *real* problem.

Thus, in the process of determining the problem, conflict should be urged. It allows for differing perceptions and opinions and, thus, results in a broadened perspective on the problem. Walter and Scott (1973) strongly advocate disagreement during the initial stage of problem solving.

> Disagreement is a prerequisite for purposive discussion, and it may often contribute important junctures during discussion from which the participants can build toward better understanding of problems. . . . Disagreements represent various interpretations to weigh and choose; potentially, therefore, they provide profitable inquiries to pursue. (p. 253)

Only when diverse ideas are encouraged can the group hope to achieve the maximally broad understanding of its problem, and this is fundamental to the remainder of the problem-solving process.

Increased Alternatives

A second reason for encouraging conflict in discussions—perhaps the most recognized and accepted rationale—is that through disagreements members can develop more possible solutions from which to make a final selection. Premature commitment to a solution without adequate awareness or consideration of alternative possibilities is all too frequent—it characterized the national fiascos mentioned earlier. A group whose norm precludes disagreement is not likely to have an array of possible solutions from which to select. In this case, the group's decision or solution is not one that grows out of serious and open-minded deliberation; rather, it is a careless gamble resulting from superficial discussion. Peter Drucker (1973), who has studied decision making in organizations, maintains that one of the most important functions of disagreement is that it *alone* can provide alternatives to a decision, and alternatives are necessary for anything other than rash decision making. When a group does not have alternatives, it cannot make a reasoned decision; instead, it simply ratifies the only idea that has been allowed to surface. Sound decisions grow out of the consideration—earnest, reflective consideration—of alternatives, and this may occur only when disagreement and conflict are accepted as a constructive part of the discussion process.

Member Interaction and Involvement

The final reason for advocating conflict in discussions is that it serves to stimulate members' interest in the group and the shared problem. Conflict implies vigorous interaction over ideas, and this increases participants' involvement with the task and enhances the process of decision making. A frequently cited value of discussion as a means of making decisions is that it allows for greater creativity in considering and solving problems. This value, however, rests on the assumption that various opinions and values will be invited and seriously considered by all participants so that creative combinations of ideas may occur. Healthy, noncombative disagreements provide a free and open atmosphere for discussion, and, therefore, members' creative energies are loosed for the good of the process. Extensive observation of organizational decision-making groups has led Hoffman, Harburg, and Maier (1962) to conclude that conflict results in more creative thinking, greater member commitment to a decision, and a higher quality decision. Creativity seems to thrive on constructive conflict.

Thus it should be clear that conflict is not to be avoided in discussions. On the contrary, it seems to be a positive force that can enhance both the process and the products of problem-solving discussion.

MANAGING CONFLICT EFFECTIVELY

Despite the fact that conflict has some significant values for discussion, everyday experience also tells us that conflict can be dangerous—it can destroy a group, lead to stalemates rather than decisions, and cause major interpersonal hostilities. Whether conflict enhances or subverts discussion depends on how the conflict is managed. There are both ineffective and effective methods of dealing with it.

Disruptive Conflict

Distributive or disruptive conflict occurs when participants do not understand the value of conflict and do not have or do not use constructive means of channeling it into deliberations. In a distributive situation there is a competitive climate; members perceive the disagreement as a game in which someone will win and others must lose. There is no integration toward a common goal, no sense of team spirit in which all ideas belong to all participants. "Getting my own way" is more important than finding the best understanding of and solution for the group's common problem. In distributive situations members tend to employ such defense mechanisms as aggression, withdrawal, repression, or projection of blame onto others. Members also tend to become locked into their own viewpoints and are unwilling even to consider the possible value of others' ideas. Frequently, in distributive situations, members will resort to personal attacks instead of focusing their disagreement on the issues.

In this type of situation there are naturally some undesirable effects. The group may form cliques or subgroups within itself. Members will be less likely to understand (or even to try to understand) one another's motives and opinions because hostility and distrust are high. When disruptive conflict penetrates discussion it may be impossible to reach any decision because the group becomes deadlocked and no member is willing to shift his position. Even if the group does manage to reach a decision, members will seldom be satisfied with it. Distributive conflict, then, is negative in its nature and its effects: it is the kind of conflict that should be avoided since it leads to nothing constructive in the process or products of discussion.

Constructive Conflict

By contrast, integrative or constructive conflict develops when members understand the utility of disagreement and when they have acquired methods of managing conflict effectively. In integrative situations there is high team spirit and commitment to group goals. Members assume that their disagreements stem from sincere involvement with the common problem and that by discussing the differing ideas they will eventually come to an agreement that is better than any one individual's initial suggestions. In integrative situations members are cooperative toward one another. They tend to be supportive of others' ideas and open to considering the merits of opinions different from their own. Disagreements are confined to the issues and do not involve personalities.

The effects of integrative conflict are desirable. Group cohesion is usually increased because members have survived some "rough waters" and have emerged with a sound solution; they also have learned that they can trust one another to be fair and open-minded. Through integrative conflict, members usually are able to reach decisions that they are proud of—the cumulative result is a process and a product that satisfies the whole group. Integrative conflict, then, is highly positive in nature because it improves not only the decisions of a group but also the process by which those decisions are made.

SUMMARY

Conflict is a necessary and integral part of realistic and effective problem-solving discussion. It is the essence of sound decision making because disagreement is the best vehicle for broadening perspectives, discovering alternatives, and stimulating creative interaction among members. The effects of disagreement, however, depend on how it is managed by participants. Conflict can be distributive and disruptive or it can be integrative and constructive. When mismanaged, conflict can destroy a group's effectiveness; when handled well, it can greatly increase the quality of a group's work and make members feel proud of their work in the group.

Training in the nature of conflict and the methods of managing it is a pressing need for all people who participate in problem-solving groups. We need to dispel the negative associations of conflict and replace them with more realistic conceptions that make the legitimate distinction between constructive and disruptive conflict. When participants see that conflict can be a positive force in discussion, they are better prepared to adopt effective personal attitudes and behaviors in problem-solving situations. Further, the differences between distributive and integrative conflict can help them learn how their own behavior contributes to the climate of the group to which they belong.

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HANDLING GROUP AND ORGANIZATIONAL CONFLICT

In any group, conflict is inevitable because different people have different viewpoints. In a work group or organization, particularly, group members see the needs of the organization differently because of their different job orientations.

A sales representative and a manufacturing manager, for example, have different jobs: the sales rep wants to promise speedy delivery (a key point in making a sale), which means large inventories in many field locations. The manufacturing manager, on the other hand, wants to keep inventories low since they tie up materials, storage space, and production schedules. A natural conflict exists between the marketing and manufacturing divisions, and management must find a way to handle these differences productively.

Some members of a church congregation may want the church to concentrate on aiding the poor, while other members think the church should focus on the spiritual needs of the congregation. The minister is caught in the middle of these factions and must resolve the conflict.

Even in marriage—the "group" that, logically, should be most intimately concerned with mutual help and love for its members—there are disagreements and differences. Few married people will testify that their marriage is free from conflict.

HEALTHY CONFLICT

Since much conflict is natural, the goal of a group is not to eliminate conflict, but to view it as essentially healthy. It can be healthy if it is handled and resolved constructively. The group or organization is enhanced by exploring differences; new ideas and new learnings result. Usually when conflict arises and is dealt with openly, people are stimulated to creativity, alternatives are considered, better ideas come forth, and a better course of action results.

WAYS OF DEALING WITH ORGANIZATIONAL CONFLICT

There are five common ways of dealing with organizational conflict. Any one method of dealing with conflict will not apply to all situations or all personalities. The leader in a group must consider when to employ what style, and with whom. If a leader has used one method successfully, he may use it to excess. Learning about the alternative means of handling conflict gives us a wider choice of actions to employ in any given situation and makes us better able to tailor the response to the situation.

Denial or Withdrawal

With this approach, a person attempts to "get rid of" conflict by denying that it exists. He simply refuses to acknowledge it. Usually, however, the conflict does not "go away"; it grows to the point where it becomes all but unmanageable. When the issue or the timing is not critical, denial may be the most productive way of dealing with conflict.

Suppression or Smoothing Over

"We run a happy ship here." "Nice people don't fight." A person using suppression plays down differences and does not recognize the positive aspects of handling the conflict openly. Again, the source of the conflict rarely goes away. Suppression may, however, be employed when it is more important to preserve a relationship than to deal with an insignificant issue through conflict.

Power or Dominance

Power is often used to settle differences. The source of the power may be vested in one's authority or position (including referral to "the system," higher supervision, and so on). Power may take the form of a majority (as in voting) or a persuasive minority. Power strategies, however, result in winners and losers, and the losers do not support a final decision in the same way that winners do. Future meetings of a group may be marred by the conscious or unconscious renewal of the struggle previously "settled" by the use of power. In some instances, especially where other forms of handling conflict are clearly inappropriate, power is effective. Voting is used in national elections, for example, and "the law" applies equally to all.

Compromise or Negotiation

Although often regarded as a virtue in our culture, compromise ("You give a little, I'll give a little, and we'll meet each other halfway") has some serious drawbacks. Bargaining often causes both sides to assume an inflated position, since they are aware that they are going to have to "give a little" and want to buffer the loss. The compromise solution may be watered down or weakened to the point where it will not be effective. There is often little real commitment by any of the parties. Yet there are times when compromise makes sense, such as when resources are limited or it is necessary to forestall a win-lose situation.

Integration or Collaboration

This approach requires that all parties to the conflict recognize the abilities and expertise of the others. Each individual's position is well prepared, but the emphasis of the group is on trying to solve the problem at hand, rather than on defending particular positions or factions. Everyone fully expects to modify his original views as the group's work progresses. Ultimately, the best of the group's thinking will emerge. The assumption is that the whole of the group effort exceeds the sum of the individual members' contributions. If this approach is allowed to become an either/or settlement, or if the conflict is resolved—due to lack of time, money, or understanding—by a form of power, the final decision will suffer accordingly.

CONCLUSION

Knowing some of the different methods of dealing with conflict is extremely useful to anyone working with groups or organizations. If a group leader is aware of these methods and their advantages and disadvantages, he will be more effective in handling conflict.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITY

See Structured Experience 186, "Conflict Styles: Organizational Decision Making," in the Structured Experiences section of this *Annual*.

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[1]See also the earlier works of Mary Parker Follett, who laid down a most important foundation upon which others have built.

THE WIN/WIN APPROACH

(A Deeper Look into the Concepts and Applications)

Influencing or persuading another person to accept your ideas, decision, priorities, or operating procedures is an integral part of a manager's job. There are many different ways a person can influence another. Most of these variations of the "hard sell", (push, command, argue, interrupt, threaten, etc.), or the "soft sell", (pull, coax, promise rewards, manipulate, etc.). Both the "hard sell" and the soft sell" are examples of the Adversary or Win/Lose Approach; i.e., one person wins; the other person loses. Use of the Adversary Approach is often signaled by the words, "Yeah, but . . ." and the word, "However . . . ." Frequently, verbal "ping pong" ensues between the conflicting viewpoints of the two parties. Although these approaches may work at times, they leave "debris" in the form of smoldering resentment, hurt feelings, damaged egos, and a strong desire by the loser to "get even". In situations where continuity of a cooperative relationship is essential, use of the Adversary Approach can be very destructive. Consequently, another approach is needed which enables both parties to "win"; i.e. a Win/Win Approach.

The Win/Win Approach is based upon a fundamental principle of behavior; peoples' actions are based upon their own perceptions. That is, in order to change someone else's mind or opinion, that person must perceive things differently. The basic objective of the Win/Win Approach is to integrate as much as possible the needs, interests and objectives of both parties. In attempting to influence others, managers are most successful when the other people are able to convince themselves of the merits of the manager's idea or proposal. The key to success is satisfying the other person's needs. It requires being able to answer the two fundamental questions which are on the other person's mind: "How will it affect me?", and "How will I benefit?" To achieve this objective, the manager must attempt to understand the attitudes, feelings and opinions of the other person.

The Win/Win Approach can be used in any situation where the manager is dealing with another person: his or her boss, subordinate, members of other departments, representatives of outside organizations, etc. In each case, the approach consists of the following five steps:

1. State the purpose - the problem - the proposal

Tell the other person what you have ~~in mind~~, the objectives or purpose of your discussion and how you believe it will benefit him or her. Because the other person may not even understand why you are bringing up the matter, it may be necessary to briefly summarize the problem or event which prompted your investigation and your resulting proposal.

Your opening presentation should be clear and understandable to the other person. This means that technical or trade jargon should be eliminated if the other person is not familiar with it. Stress the benefits, advantages and help it can provide so that the other person can see what he or she gains by accepting your proposal.

One of the dilemmas a manager faces is whether to make the opening presentation long and involved, or short and concise. In most cases, it is better to err on the side of brevity. Most people don't like long-winded presentations. Besides, it enables the other person to get involved early in the discussion by asking for additional data or by voicing his or her reaction. In this way, the manager knows that the other person is listening. It gives the manager a better clue as to the other person's needs and interests at that moment. If the presentation is too long, the other person may actually resist the idea early in the presentation, stop listening, and spend the remaining time developing a rebuttal.

When the nature of the discussion involves a problem caused by someone else's behavior, such as the discussion a manager may have with a subordinate regarding his or her poor performance, extra care must be taken. The factor that makes this sort of discussion more difficult for the manager is the defensive reactions of the subordinate. Here the manager must use great care in presenting the problem in a descriptive, rather than in an evaluative manner.

Most persons can more objectively discuss their activities, job and work problems than they can talk about themselves. When soneone says: "Two reports are late", it tends to beget less defensiveness than when the

the manager says: "You are careless when it comes to meeting deadlines". If the manager puts a value judgment ~~on something~~ the subordinate does, in effect, he or she is criticizing - attacking - the subordinate's ego. When criticism occurs, the subordinate engages in efforts to protect his or her ego. The subordinate does this by becoming defensive or by becoming hostile.

In essence, the manager should describe the problem rather than evaluate the person. For example:

Evaluative	Descriptive
"You don't plan well."	"When you plan, I notice you do it on a daily basis, but do not work out a weekly list of priorities."
"You don't communicate well".	"When you talk with people, you often cut them off in the middle of the sentence."

In the two examples above, the manager makes the point - in the evaluative approach the manager attacks the person; in the descriptive method the manager describes the situation. It is the difference in these two ways of talking about a subordinate's problem that, in large measure determines the amount of resistance the manager encounters to an open and fruitful discussion of the problem.

2. Get his/her side

Once the manager has made his or her opening presentation, the next step is to find out how the other person sees it. To get this underway, the manager merely has to ask a simple question: "What do you think of my proposal?" To gain a full understanding of the attitudes, feelings and opinions of the other person, the manager must do more than merely accept the other person's first response. The manager must continue to draw out the other person. There are several techniques which are helpful in doing this:

a. Ask an open question

A question is a good way to get another person to tell more. An open question is one which cannot be answered by a "yes" or "no". It is the sort of question that asks: what, where, when, why, who and how. For example:

"What do you think we can do about the problem?"

"How can I be of more help?"

b. Ask a directed (or linking) question

A directed question is one which relates directly to an earlier comment made by the other person. It contains a word or phrase the person used and essentially asks for further amplification. An example is:

Person: "That certainly puzzled me".

Manager: "What aspects of it were particularly puzzling to you?"

c. Remain silent

Remaining silent is a very helpful technique; yet, it is extremely difficult for many people to do. There are two occasions when silence is particularly appropriate. One is after you have asked a question - keep quiet. Too often managers ask a question, then before the other person can think through an answer, the manager asks a second question. The other person hasn't even had a chance to assemble his or her thoughts on the first question.

The second occasion where silence is helpful is after a person has said something. Instead of jumping back into the conversation, it is helpful if the manager merely pauses. When the other person experiences a pause, there is a tendency for the person to go on and say something more. Often this additional comment is a more accurate reflection of how that individual truly feels.

d. Acceptance

There is a "neutral response" which is expressed by the nod of the head and such common phrases as: "uh-huh", "ummm-hmm", "yeah", "oh really", "I see", etc. This type of reply indicates neither agreement nor disagreement; instead, it merely tells the speaker that you heard what was said and that you are interested in hearing more.

e. Restate or reflect what was said

Restatement and reflection are a mirroring back of what the other person said. Words like, "you feel", "you think", "you believe", "in other words, you . . ." are often helpful started for restating or reflecting what a person has said. Restatement has to do with the content of what a person said; reflect has to do with the feeling expressed. Examples are:

Restatement

Person: "It may look good on paper, but I just don't think it will work."

Manager: "You feel it has some flaws."

Reflection

Subordinate: (Expressed with emotion) "I just can't get these reports done on time."

Manager: "It's discouraging for you the way the work is piling up."

In both cases, the manager indicates he or she neither agrees nor disagrees. It is merely a neutral restatement or reflection of the message the other person was sending. It tells the other person that the manager has heard and enables that individual to go on and amplify what he or she really means. For example, in the first restatement case, the person might reply as follows:

Person: "Well, not really flaws. I just don't think these calculations make sense."

Manager: "You believe we've made some errors in our figures."

Person: "Not really errors: I don't think you've taken into consideration the fact that the Boston office has two new men in it. They're not experienced enough to get this data assembled in the time you've indicated."

Now the manager knows what the other person really meant when he indicated ". . . I don't think it will work".

3. Identify areas of common agreement

Basic agreement is built upon those areas where the two parties share common interests, ideas, beliefs and needs. Therefore, if a bridge is going to be built between two people, it must start with those aspects of the discussion where the two parties are in agreement, rather than emphasizing those areas where differences exist. There is a normal tendency for many people to highlight differences rather than similarities. Instead of bringing people closer together, this tends to divide them. The more areas of agreement there are, the easier it is to handle the remaining differences. The end result is to find ways in which both parties can benefit by the action. Breaking out areas of agreement helps to get the bridgework of understanding underway.

To accomplish this step, it is helpful if the manager breaks out the areas of agreement from the areas of remaining differences. An easy way to do this is for the manager to summarize his or her perception of the whole situation. The manager might say, for example, "Let's see now where we stand. As I understand it, you agree to A, B, C, and D, but we are still apart on E and F. Is that right?"

Once the differences are sharpened in this way, one of two things will happen. The other person will say, "Yes, that's right". If this occurs, the manager can move on to Step 4. On the other hand, the person may say, "No, that's not exactly right. There are some problems here with C and D, as well as E and F." If this is the response the manager gets, it is a signal to the manager to go back to Step 2 and draw out the other person further.

In counseling situations, this step may require great patience and extra effort on the part of the manager, for unless the subordinate sees that his or her behavior is really a "problem " the subordinate will make no effort to change. Both the manager and the subordinate must finally agree on the "real problem" before they can move on to Step 4.

4. Develop alternatives

Having identified aspects of the situation where there is agreement and areas where some differences still exist, the manager can then ask the other person to suggest alternative solutions. The manager may also suggest alternative approaches at this point. By examining alternatives, the other person may come to see that the manager's suggestion is, in fact, the best. On the other hand, the other person may develop some ideas that would work just as well, or even better, than the manager's. The key is to provide the opportunity for the other person to explore the idea in some detail and without having to defend his or her original response. By doing so, many of the apparent differences between the two parties may actually begin to disappear.

5. Help the person to sell himself/herself

Having enabled the other person to express his or her views without being attacked and having given that person the opportunity to thoroughly examine the situation from various angles, the manager can now help that individual select the solution that seems to best meet his or her needs and the agreed-upon objectives. Actually, the manager has created a climate which enables the other person to sell himself or herself. The final agreement may not be exactly what the manager originally proposed. At times, the manager may have to settle for something that is less than ideal. The manager may also have to settle for doing it in stages rather than all at once. But, if the final objective will still be attained in the end, the manager will be better off to have accomplished it through the willing support of others than by having force it to be done.

Once an agreement has been reached, both parties can then determine action steps which should be taken to implement that agreement. Each person leaves the discussion knowing what he or she is to do.

In Summary

At first impression, the five-step approach outlines above may seem as though the manager has abdicated his or her responsibilities and has turned over the whole matter of what to do and how to do it to others. A closer examination will, however, show that the overall approach rests upon the findings of motivational research concerning why people behave as they do.

We have learned that people act in an attempt to satisfy needs. How they act is based on how they see themselves and the situation they are in. No one really accepts some-one else's logic, facts or reasoning. Each person must have a chance to make it his own. Trying to get another person to do things by using the Adversary Approach usually has a very limited effect. Therefore, if a manager is going to negotiate with or influence another person, he or she must find ways by which what the manager wants done will meet the needs of that other individual. And, in addition, the manager must utilize an approach which will enable the other person to see things in a different light. Both elements exist in the Win/Win Approach.

Acquiring skill in using this approach requires a great deal of practice. It can't be developed just by reading about it or trying it out in a one-day workshop. It take conscientious application day in and day out. It takes self-control and self-confidence for a manager to let another person express himself or herself and to have some influence over the final decision - even to the point of changing the manager's proposed idea or plan. However, the end point is to win the cooperation and support of the other person. The thinking manager will have a better chance of obtaining that if he or she has created the proper climate for agreement.

BARRIERS TO COMMUNICATION

- EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT
  - Poor equipment, lighting, heat/cold
  - Not enough time
  - Illegible documents
- BIAS
  - "I already know that"; Disbelief; "It's impossible".
  - Stereotypes of: Males, Females, Race, Religion
- REJECTION OF THE SOURCE/RECEIVER
  - Educational background
  - Job title: Scientist, Engineer, Trainer
- LACK OF PRESENTATION SKILLS
  - Ambiguous directions
  - Vocabulary
  - Language
  - Voice inflection, volume
  - Grammar
  - Pace, body language, eye contact
- EMOTIONAL STATE
  - Commitment and/or desire to communicate
  - Distractions - Personal problems
  - Anger, hostility, frustration
  - Insecurity about oneself or others
- PHYSICAL STATE
  - Tired, asleep
- CLIMATE
  - "You should do....."
  - "The way I do it is....."
  - "I hear you"
  - "Why did you do it that way?"
- FAILURE TO UNDERSTAND/KNOW PURPOSE
- DIFFERENT PERCEPTIONS = DIFFERENT POINTS OF VIEW
- IN APPROPRIATE MEDIUM

METHODS TO EASE COMMUNICATION

METHOD	RATIONALE	MOST EFFECTIVE TIME TO USE
1) Being aware of the many barriers to communication and how they impact:	Awareness allows you to plan for preventive measures.	All the time
o the situation in general	Plan to eliminate or minimize things in your control.	All the time
o a person in particular	Allow for a more productive relationship.	All the time
2) Active (Reflective) Listening	To improve the overall effectiveness of communicating	When understanding the total meaning of the message is important
o Perception checking	Allows one to give and receive feedback on the emotional part of the message	To check on the "feeling" dimension of the communication
o Paraphrasing	Sharpens listening skills and contributes to feedback	To check on the "content" of what is being said
o Clarifying questions	Adds insights and dimension to a message	When additional information is needed
o Empathizing comments	Actively lets the other person know you're trying to understand what it's like to be in their position or situation.	When emotions act as a barrier for communication
3) "I" messages	Confronts unacceptable behavior in a non-threatening manner	When a person "owns" a problem and wants to make a change in another person's behavior

ACTIVE LISTENING

What To Do:

Just what does active listening entail? Basically, it requires that we get inside the speaker, that we grasp, from their point of view, just what it is they are communicating to us. More than that, we must convey to the speaker that we are seeing things from their point of view. To listen actively, then, means that there are several things we must do.

Listen For Total Meaning:

Any message a person tries to get across usually has two components: the content of the message and the feeling or attitude underlying this content. Both are important, both give the message meaning. It is this total meaning of the message that we must try to understand. For example, a clerk comes to his/her boss and says: "I've finished that report". This message has obvious factual content and perhaps calls upon the boss for another work assignment. Suppose, on the other hand, that the clerk says: "Well! I'm finally finished with your damned report!" The factual content is the same, but the total meaning of the message has changed--and changed in an important way for both supervisor and worker. Here sensitive listening can facilitate the work relationship in this office.

Now, on the other hand, suppose the supervisor were to respond, "Glad to get that over with, huh?" or "That was a rough one, wasn't it?" or "Guess you don't want another one like that again," or anything that tells the worker that s/he heard and understands. It doesn't necessarily mean that the next work assignment need be changed or that s/he must spend an hour listening to the worker complain about the problems s/he encountered. S/he may do a number of things differently in the light of the new information s/he has from the worker -- but not necessarily. It's just that extra sensitivity on the part of the supervisor that can transform an average working climate into a good one. This is called empathy.

Respond To Feelings

In some instances the content is far less important that the feeling which underlies it. To catch the full flavor or meaning of the message one must respond particularly to the feeling component. If, for instance, our clerk had said, "I'd like to pile up all those carbons and make a bonfire out of them!" responding to content would be obviously absurd. But to respond to his/her disgust or anger in trying to work with the report recognizes the meaning of this message. There are various shadings of these components in the meaning of any message. Each time the listener must try to remain sensitive to the total meaning the message has to the speaker. This too is called empathy.

Note All Cues:

Not all communication is verbal. The speaker's words alone don't tell us everything s/he is communicating. Truly sensitive listening requires that we become aware of several kinds of communication besides verbal. The way in which a speaker hesitates in ones speech can tell us much about their feelings. So too can the inflection of his/her voice. S/he may stress certain points loudly and clearly, and mumble others. We should also note such things as the person's facial expressions, body posture, hand movements, eye movements, and breathing. All of these help to convey the total message.

CATEGORIES OF DEFENSIVE AND SUPPORTIVE (CLIMATES) COMMUNICATION

DEFENSIVE (BLOCKS

1. Judgmental

   "You did this wrong".

   "You're really discourteous in our staff meetings".

2. Controlling

   "I insist you do it by the book".

   "At the next staff meeting, hold your comments until the others make their contributions, or I'll........

3. Deceptive

   Using slick, tricky, and ambiguous statements.

   "I know you're bright, but give the others a break in our discussions".

4. Detached

   Indifferent, denying value of feelings.

   "Don't feel bad about my telling you to shut up".

5. Superior

   Aloof, condescending, "I don't need help".

   "I'm sure you can cure your habit of interrupting".

6. Dogmatic

   "This is it".

   "We have two ears and one mouth, so listen twice as much as you talk"

SUPPORTIVE (HELPERS)

1. Descriptive

   "Here's the way I see it".

   "What I see in our staff meetings is......"

2. Collaborative

   "I have a preference, but what's your idea?"

   "We need to decide on a way to let everyone's ideas be heard.

3. Sincere

   Using straightforward, honest, statements.

   "Please let the others finish expressing their ideas before you state yours.

4. Empathic

   Concerned, accepting, "I understand how you feel".

   "I understand your need to share ideas".

5. Equal

   "I'd like your help, ideas, etc."

   "I'd like your ideas on how to improve our problem-solving meetings".

6. Flexible

   "I'm willing to experiment".

   "Several good ideas have been identified. I'm willing to try......

A SUMMARY OF GUIDELINES FOR CLEAR INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

A person wishing to achieve greater clarity in his or her interpersonal communication should find the following guidelines helpful.

The communicator seeking to improve his/her communication clarity should:

1. Have a clear picture of what they want the other person to understand.
2. Analyze the nature and magnitude of their attitude toward both the topic and the person with whom they are communicating.
3. Assess their own communication skills and those of the person listening.
4. Seek to identify themselves with the psychological frame of reference of the person receiving his ideas.
5. Develop a realistic expectation for the degree of clarity obtainable in a given context.
6. Make the message relevant to the person listening by using that person's language and terms.
7. State their ideas in the simplest possible terms.
8. Define before developing and explain before amplifying.
9. Develop one idea at a time, take one step at a time.
10. Use appropriate repetition.
11. Compare and contrast ideas by associating the unknown with the known.
12. Determine which ideas need special emphasis.

A SUMMARY OF GUIDELINES FOR CLEAR INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

(continued)

13. Use as many channels as necessary for clarity.

14. Watch for and elicit corrective feedback in a variety of channels.

15. Eliminate or reduce noise if it is interfering.

16. Pace their communication according to the information-processing capacities of the channel and the person listening.

"I know you believe that you understand what you think I said, but I am not sure that you realize that what you heard is not what I meant".

"I" MESSAGES

There isn't any magic to an "I" message other than understanding when to use one and how the process unfolds.

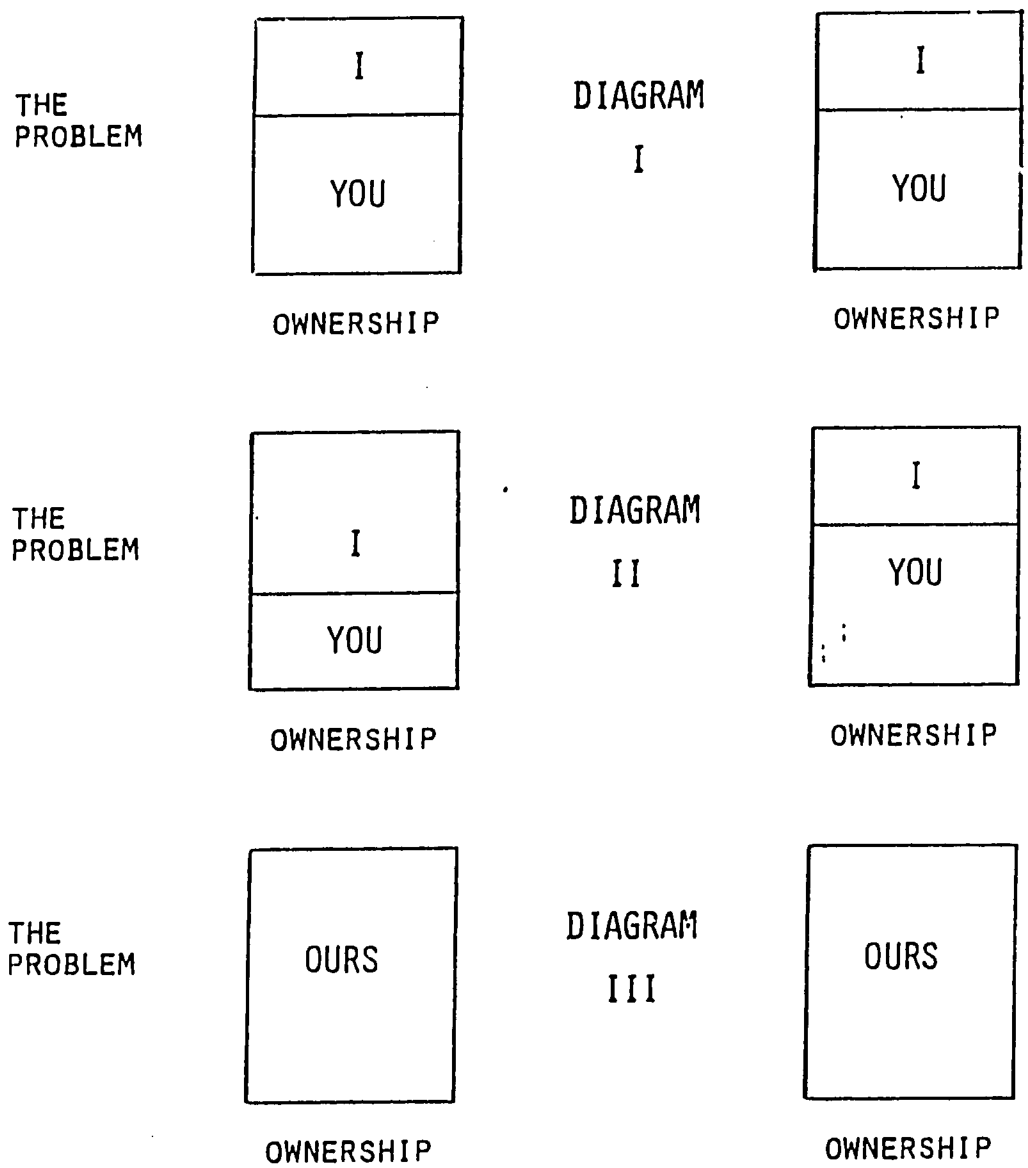
"I" messages are most often used when a person has a "problem" with another individual and needs to confront the individual with it without creating a defensive reaction or at least minimizing the possibility of one.

The process begins with the realization that it is human nature to adopt the point of view that when you are having difficulty with another person it's their problem, not yours. This is depicted in Diagram I. But keep in mind, that the other person views it much the same way, as the box diagram illustrates. That person doesn't have a problem - you do.

Diagram II illustrates that you, as the message sender, must adopt the point of view that it's your problem. You then develop your "I" message to communicate non-blameful behavior in a non-threatening way. This is done because the receiver will still see it as your problem and this process will maximize your chances of jointly working out the issues. This goal would be depicted in Diagram III where both parties accept that the problem is theirs and begin to mutually resolve it.

THE PROCESS OF AN "I" MESSAGE

<u>YOU</u> AS A:	<u>SOMEONE</u> ELSE AS A:
MANAGER	SUBORDINATE
SUBORDINATE	MANAGER
PEER	PEER



"I" MESSAGES

An "I" message is used when someone's behavior is causing a problem for you and you want to influence that person to change.

First, describe the problem:

____

____

____

____

Second, write out your "I" message using the following format:

When you ____
(give a non-blameful description of the specific situation)

____.

The effect on me is ____
(describe the concrete and tangible effects on you)

____.

I feel ____
(express clearly and honestly your feelings, allowing the person(s) to hear the intensity of your concern)

____

and I would prefer ____
(state what you want specifically if the other does not offer a workable solution)

____.

NOTE: Generally, you'll have to restate what you want, clarify, negotiate and practice active listening.

WE NEED ONE ANOTHER

You have been asked to put together a project team consisting of three people. This team is to develop and promote a benefit program, the proceeds of which will go to a local center that services the elderly. Due to circumstances beyond your control, the project team cannot include any more than three persons.

You will not be a member of the team, but are responsible for the selection of the members.

The team must be selected soon in order to get going on the project. Four people have asked to be on the team. Listed below are the descriptions of those four people.

CHRIS: He is very conscientious, and is good at details. He makes sure everything is accurate and in order. He follows directives well; and is also good at being diplomatic with people.

STEVE: He is a good, hard worker. He is extremely loyal and predictable. He is very patient - a real team-person. He gets things organized; and will stick with a job until it is done.

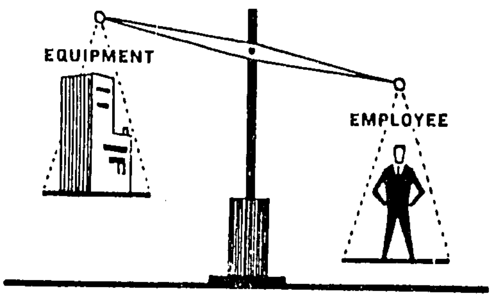
IRENE: She is a promoter. She verbalizes well; and generates enthusiasm and excitement. She also enjoys contacting people, and helping others.

DORIS: She is the person who gets results. She takes authority; and is very directive. She is good at making decisions; and is a risk-taker.

BEFORE SELECTING A NEW EMPLOYEE

"Homework" was once only what protesting children slaved over at night – with or without the help of parents. Today, "Homework" is a term used in business and industry. It has come to mean advance preparation for an interview, a meeting or any type of situation which requires study.

"Homework" is something we should do before we interview a man or woman for a job under our supervision. More careful investigation is usually given to the purchase of a machine or piece of equipment costing several hundred dollars than to the selection of an employee whose wages or salary will total as much every few months through the years of his employment.



Involved are the initial investment in the new hire – cost of advertising, interviewing, testing, familiarization period and training.

In some instances as many as one out of every three new workers quits – usually during the first few months, which indicates that something went amiss right at the start.

To prepare for an interview, we can:

1. Review Background Information

This is the paperwork part of our "homework."

- Study job description of the job for which applicant is being considered.
- Carefully read over application form and note points you want to cover and questions you want to ask.

2. Consider Group Employee Will Work With

Let's review mentally what is the best approach to preparing a group for a newcomer. Plan what to say to the group.

- If the new employee is an addition to the staff.
- If he is a replacement for someone who was fired.
- If he is transferred from another department.

Keep in mind some traits which may cause a new worker to be accepted or rejected by the group to which he is assigned:

- Handling of language
- Competitive spirit
- Tendency to shyness
- Excessive boldness or aggressiveness

3. Be Aware of Personal Bias

Research shows that most interviewers develop bias early in the interview – very often within the first four minutes. They reach a favorable or unfavorable decision. Then they look for evidence which will confirm their conclusions.

Here are some reasons for possible bias:

- Past experience with someone of the same background. (People may be prejudiced against those with college background, or against those who have no college.)
- Physical characteristics. (One supervisor never hired a red-haired man because the only time he got a traffic ticket was from a red-headed officer.)
- Appearance. (Men may prefer a pretty clerk to a "plain Jane." They may hesitate to hire a man who wears sporty clothes.)
- Belief in stereotypes. ("A person who can't look you in the eye has something to hide.")
- Voice. (Tone and quality of a person's voice may grate on us. Regional accents may be resented. A Yankee twang in the South or a Southern drawl in the North.)
- Mentality. (If we sense the person we're about to hire is smarter than we are, we may feel threatened. An older person, especially a woman, might not like a younger, more attractive girl around.)
- People who are just different than we are. (Most of us favor people who are like ourselves.)

We probably cannot get rid of bias, but being aware of our prejudices in advance permits us to make allowances for them.

WE OWE IT BOTH TO OURSELVES AND TO THE NEW EMPLOYEE TO PUT IN SOME PROPER PREPARATION BEFORE THE INTERVIEW.

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The Selection Process

As NOTED EARLIER, few executives improve upon their "batting average" in making appointments to executive positions. One reason is the lack of a process. A process involves being systematic about the major steps involved in making a selection decision. A five-step process will be recommended. Let us first consider the five steps. Then attention will be given to each step in turn. The five steps are:

Step 1: Define specifications required to achieve desired objectives.
Step 2: Identify several worthy candidates.
Step 3: Interview worthy candidates.
Step 4: Secure additional data.
Step 5: Make decision on candidates versus specifications.

STEP 1: DEFINE SPECIFICATIONS REQUIRED TO ACHIEVE THE DESIRED OBJECTIVES

Specifications define those characteristics of an individual which are considered necessary if the individual is to perform satisfactorily upon being appointed to a position. Many an executive skips this initial step. Actually, this isn't quite accurate. One can't avoid making some assumptions about what is required. The real issue is one of thoroughness. In addition to being thorough, it is vital that one's choice of specifications be accurate. Attention will be given to various types of specifications. The variation in types will permit a decision upon the thoroughness or complexity with which you wish to prepare specifications.

Suggestions on the preparation of specifications will be made. These suggestions should help with the challenge of identifying those specifications which are most critical to successful performance. Once prepared, the specifications need to be used and used effectively. Numerous uses of specifications will be described.

Some readers are already using a thorough process with regard to specifications. In that case, you can contrast your current approach with the one recommended here. Hopefully, some "polishing" and "perfecting" of your process will result.

Types of Specifications

Some organizations prepare a job or position specifications along with a job or position description. They are often referred to as a "generic" specifications. In effect, the specifications are general ones, considered relevant for a given position for the foreseeable future.

The alternative to a "generic" specifications is one prepared when a given position is open. The specifications pertain to a particular position at a given point in time. Step 1, by implication, implies that the alternative to a generic specifications is to be preferred. This is true. A specification will be much more helpful if it is prepared for a specific position which is to be filled shortly.

A second way of differentiation among specifications has to do with their length or comprehensiveness. We will use three types, defined as follows:

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1. Short type (make or break).
2. Intermediate type.
3. Comprehensive type.

Let us consider several examples of each type.

Short Types of Specifications

Position Specifications for
Plant Manager of Plant X

1. Must be experienced with unionizing campaigns.
2. Must be knowledgable of new manufacturing processes.
3. Must be willing to live in a small city.
4. Must be willing to stay in this position for four to six years.
5. Demonstrated ability to get good operating results from medium-sized plant.

Position Specifications for
Product General Manager
in Location A

1. Tough-minded and demanding; capable of turning around an unsatisfactory business.
2. Skillful in negotiating with customers, suppliers, and unions.
3. Considerable experience with given product line (because this is a long-cycle business).
4. Demonstrated ability to select competent people and develop managerial depth.
5. Capable of moving on to a bigger position within three to five years.
6. Experienced doing business offshore (particularly Europe).

Intermediate Types of Specifications

Position Specifications for
a Group Vice President
for Group X

1. Demonstrated ability to manage a successful business at the division level.
2. Definitely entrepreneurial, growth oriented.
3. Skillful in business planning (long and short term).
4. Able to command the respect of experienced division general managers (some of whom think they should have been appointed).
5. Effective in interacting and influencing high-level individuals in corporation, in regulatory agencies, and in customer organizations.
6. Good grasp of technical aspects of businesses in the group.
7. Knowledgable about global aspects of doing business in product lines in group.
8. Knowledgable about the corporation, in policies and ways of doing things.
9. Willing to work in a metropolitan city.
10. Understands the intricacies of matrix organization (a matrix structure reports to group level).

Position Specifications for
a Chief Engineer of a
Large Central Engineering Department

1. A solid knowledge of the technology. Shrewd in anticipating trends.

Intermediate Types of Specifications *(continued)*

2. Considerable experience in directing smaller engineering departments.
3. High standards in all areas. Demanding of self and others.
4. Astute in making trade-off decisions to get optimum engineering results for the investment.
5. Demonstrated ability to select competent people and replace nonperformers.
6. Effective in interacting with operating divisions. Commands respect of other executives.
7. Skillful in negotiating with and getting results from outside contractors.
8. Demonstrated ability to manage prima donnas, to get teamwork.
9. Integrity of highest order.
10. Skillful in managing project-type organization.
11. Concerned about and skillful in personnel administration.
12. Knowledgable about global aspects of engineering projects.
13. High in initiative. A self-starter.
14. Experience in several of the operating groups.
15. Skillful in communicating.

Comprehensive Type of Specifications

Store Manager
Large Retail Store

1. *Experience required*
   - 1.1. Total pertinent experience: Twelve to fifteen years minimum.
   - 1.2. Merchandising experience:
     - *a.* Five years merchandise manager, preferably in more than one division.
     - *b.* Three years department manager.
   - 1.3. Staff function: Two years desirable.
   - 1.4. Demonstrated profit-making ability and increase sales.

2. *Specialized knowledge*
   - 2.1. Areas requiring complete familiarity:
     - *a.* Buying.
     - *b.* Selling:
       - (1) Customer relations.
       - (2) Organizing for selling.
     - *c.* Sales promotion:
       - (1) Merchandise presentation.
       - (2) Planning sales attack.
     - *d.* Stock management:
       - (1) Assortment development.
       - (2) Investment.
       - (3) Turnover.
   - 2.2. Areas requiring general familiarity:
     - *a.* Control:
       - (1) Financial.
       - (2) Systems.
     - *b.* Operations.
     - *c.* Personnel.
     - *d.* Sales promotion—technical aspects of advertising and display.

Comprehensive Type of Specifications (*continued*)

3. *Education and/or advanced training required*

   Bachelor's degree. Company executive training program, external management training (AMA, NRMA, etc.) to update knowledge of general manager; personal development program.

4. *Managerial ability*
   - 4.1. Planning: Demonstrated ability to do both long- and short-range planning. Ability to coordinate planning in all major functions to maximize store sales and profits. Converts commitments into tasks and allocates resources to fulfill these commitments.
   - 4.2. Organizing: Demonstrated understanding of organization principles and theory. Ability to set up and maintain a simple, flexible organization.
   - 4.3. Leadership: Demonstrated ability to lead, inspire, gain respect, and get maximum output from subordinates.
   - 4.4. Controlling: Demonstrated ability to operate within all established budgets and policies, financial and otherwise.
   - 4.5. Selecting and developing personnel: Ability to develop an effective and productive executive organization and to eliminate incompetents.

5. *Personal characteristics*
   - 5.1. Aggressiveness: demonstrated ability to produce results. High personal energy level and aggressiveness.
   - 5.2. Integrity: Consistent in actions, ability to make tough decisions, stands on principles, open-minded, and frank.
   - 5.3. Judgment: Demonstrated ability to make sound, difficult decisions. Ability to decide priorities and keep eye on them.

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Comprehensive Type of Specifications (*continued*)

5.4. Emotional stability: Ability to operate under pressure; not easily frustrated; self-control.

5.5 Expression: Must have ability to communicate with others. Ability to sell oneself, one's ideas, and one's organization to customers, staff, management, and the business community. Must have ability to write clearly and concisely.

5.6. Risk taking: Demonstrated willingness to take risks. Makes good decisions more often than not in the absence of all known facts.

5.7. Creativity: Ability to see and adopt new methods to fit the changing needs of store.

5.8. Ambition: Strong personal drive to succeed and to assume greater responsibility.

6. *Relationships*

6.1. Ability to establish and maintain effective working relationships.

7. *Physical characteristics*

7.1. Health: Good physical condition; no known limitations; personal vitality.

7.2. Appearance: Presentable and should possess outgoing personality.

Top Functional Manager Specifications
Systems Engineering

1. *Experience required*

1.1. Total amount of pertinent experience: Ten years minimum experience, 15 years desirable.

1.2. Total amount of managerial experience: Two to three assignments at subsection level.

Comprehensive Type of Specifications (*continued*)

2. *Specialized knowledge*
   - 2.1. Areas requring complete familiarity:
     - *a.* Systems engineering:
       - (1) Synthesis to satisfy customer requirements.
       - (2) Reduce requirements to specifications (in conjunction with equipment designers).
     - *b.* Hardware Engineering:
       - (1) Prime electronics/electromechanical technologies.
       - (2) Design.
     - *c.* Field operations:
       - (1) Types of work needed to support product in field.
       - (2) Technical support.
       - (3) Installation.
       - (4) Testing.
       - (5) Coping with geographic dispersion.
   - 2.2. Areas requiring general familiarity:
     - *a.* Production/manufacturing: Through design exposure process.
     - *b.* Customer:
       - (1) How products fit customer mission/needs.
       - (2) How customer does business.
     - *c.* Internal business system:
       - (1) How work flows through the shop.
       - (2) Engineering part in overall business.
3. *Education and/or advanced training required*

   Four-year college degree. Company training program and/or masters degree desirable. Continual updating of individual's functional discipline.

Comprehensive Type of Specifications (*continued*)

4. *Managerial ability*
    - 4.1. Planning: Demonstrated ability to do both long- and short-range planning. Evidence that long-range plans were established and accomplished. Demonstrated ability to: establish expense and investment budgets; establish manpower requirements; schedule work; convert commitments into tasks and allocate resources to fulfill these commitments.
    - 4.2. Organizing: Demonstrated understanding of organization principles and theory. Matches men with jobs. Keeps flexibility in organization. Structures work to meet objectives.
    - 4.3. Motivation: Demonstrated ability to lead, inspire, and gain respect of subordinates.
    - 4.4. Controlling: Demonstrated ability to operate within budget and established schedules. Knows what is going on in his or her component.
    - 4.5. Selecting and developing personnel: Demonstrated ability to select competent people and to replace incompetents. Also must have ability to develop subordinates as demonstrated by the number of employees promoted from his or her organization, replacement strengths, approach to personnel development (etc.).

5. *Personal characteristics*
    - 5.1. Drive: Demonstrated ability to produce results. High personal energy level.
    - 5.2. Integrity: Says what he or she believes, admits mistakes, tough decisions based on principle. No evidence should exist of any lack of integrity.
    - 5.3. Judgment: Demonstrated ability to make sound, difficult decisions. Considers total business in making decisions.
    - 5.4. Emotional stability: Ability to handle a number of different assignments under pressure. Not easily frustrated. Ability to control temper.

Comprehensive Type of Specifications (*concluded*)

5.5. Expression: Must have ability to communicate effectively with others, particularly the ability to sell oneself, one's ideas, and one's organizations to customers, external and internal. Must have ability to write clearly and concisely.
5.6. Risk taking: Demonstrated willingness to do the novel and the new. Makes good decision more often than not in the absence of all known facts.
5.7. Technical Competence: Ability to understand technical aspects of function and project an image of technical competence. Ability to quickly understand a problem, analyze the alternatives and to make sound decisions.

6. *Physical characteristics*
6.1. Health: Good physical condition—no known limitations.
6.2. Appearance: Neat personal appearance.

Preparation of Specifications

Let's assume you have decided upon one of the three types of specifications just discussed. Now comes the tough part. What specifications are really essential? Here is where shrewd judgment is required. Let us consider nine ways to prepare specifications in an effective manner.

1. Don't Leave It Up to the Staff. There is a tendency for a line or operating manager to think that specifications preparation is something which can be delegated. It can be, but not without risk. The risk is that the selection decision is handicapped from the very beginning by inappropriate specifications. Deciding on the right specifications is a skill. Practicing that skill, whenever possible, is desirable. In truth, the

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preparation of specifications requires a modest amount of time. If you are inclined to delegate this step, you might very well question your entire attitude toward the selection process.

2. Do Use Multiple Inputs. In most organizations a given executive decides on an appointment, but it must be approved by a higher level executive. It is helpful to have the higher level executive prepare a set of his or her own specifications. If this can't be done, then let the higher level executive review and modify the specifications prepared by the appointing executive.

3. Look at Business or Operating Objectives. You are selecting an individual who will be expected to accomplish rather specific business or operating objectives. It is extremely helpful in identifying specifications to review business or operating objectives. They should pertain to the next year or possibly next three years. The more urgent objectives, the more difficult objectives practically force you to consider specifications which will be needed if they are to be achieved.

If a business is "sick" and a major turn around is desired, it is obvious that an experienced executive is needed who can size up the situation both accurately and quickly. In addition, the executive must be demanding, willing to make and implement adverse decisions.

Other specifications could be mentioned, but the above example illustrates the value of referring to business or operating objectives.

4. Review the Position Description. Most organizations are in the habit of preparing a position description. Let's assume the position description is up-to-date. It should contain a list of the important tasks, duties, and responsibilities of the position under consideration. Here again, a review of such a document does help to identify needed specifications.

A responsibility to review and approve major capital appropriation requests certainly leads to the conclusion that business acumen, technological know-how, and marketing "instincts" are needed specifications.

5. Consider Present and Past Incumbents. It is easy to think of specifications when one considers present or past incumbents. If the individual was a success, what personal factors came into play? If the individual did not succeed, again, what personal factors came into play? Of course, one has to be alert to future changes which will require different personal factors from those which operated in the past.

It is often beneficial to get several independent judgments of specifications suggested by analysis of incumbents.

There is one interesting phenomena to watch. It is called the "mirror image" phenomena. You, of course, consider yourself successful. Therefore, the specifications you select are those you see yourself possessing. Hence, the term "mirror image." The challenge here is to be accurate in one's introspections.

6. Analyze Relevant Competitors. It is an interesting exercise to identify an individual holding a comparable position in a competitor's organization. What are some personal factors that seem to be behind their advantages? Behind their disadvantages? Often individuals in your organization possess inputs relevant to these questions.

7. Give Attention to Future Changes. Often major trends are apparent in an industry which will require a different type of executive in the future. Similarly, an entire function, such as personnel or finance, may be changing radically. The executive in charge of these functions in the future may need to be drastically different from those in the past.

8. Separate Critical from the "Nice to Have." One can easily make a long list of desirable specifications. However, some are absolutely critical. They are "make or break" specifications. Their presence makes for success; their absence makes for failure. It is helpful to separate those specifications deemed to be an absolute must.

In my experience, the weighting of specifications doesn't really help much. However, it certainly does help to have the "must" specifications identified.

It is also necessary to relate the specifications to the salary level of the position. The salary level has to insure getting the "must" items. It is unlikely it will be high enough to insure getting all the "nice-to-have" items.

9. Don't Build in "Crutches" in Advance. In preparing specifications some specifications are discounted because the immediate supervisor feels he or she can fulfill a given need. In effect, you are building in a crutch in advance. This discounting often occurs as you get down to the final decision. For example, one individual met all of the must requirements; however, it was obvious this individual missed on "effective communications." The superior rationalized that the executive would either be tutored on this or that the necessary presentations would be made for the executive. It is desirable to avoid these built-in "crutches" if at all possible. They will still occur, let's just not build them in in advance.

Uses of Specifications

There are many uses which can be made of specifications. Let us consider some of the more frequent ones.

1. Initial Selection Process. The preparation of a specification helps in the initial selection process. It may suggest the necessity to look outside one's own organization.

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It may suggest that getting a number of candidates will be easy or, maybe, just the reverse. It may suggest the need to bring in an outside recruiter. If one does this, the outside recruiter will certainly begin by consideration of specifications.

2. *Final Selection Decision.* Here is where specifications play a critical role. Several candidates are matched against the specifications. It is possible none qualify. Maybe several do. How to be objective? How to select the best qualified? Here is where a good set of specifications will come in handy.

3. *Thinking through a Staffing Problem.* Sometimes an incumbent isn't performing up to expectations. This is an anguishing period. Can a change on the superior's part make a difference? Sometimes it's like asking can the alcoholic be cured? A retroactive analysis of how well the incumbent meets the specifications for the position can help crystallize one's thinking.

4. *Replacement Planning.* Often an executive is required to identify individuals who can be a replacement. Possibly multiple evaluations are called for. The accuracy of replacement planning decisions can be enhanced considerably by referring to relevant specifications.

5. *Career Discussions.* Career discussions will be dealt with in Part Five. Specifications ~~will prove to~~ be a useful tool in—

a. Informing an individual of the specifications of a coveted position.
b. Assessing how well an individual meets specifications.
c. Informing the individual of the assessment.
d. Planning appropriate developmental actions to meet future specifications.

STEP 2: IDENTIFY SEVERAL WORTHY CANDIDATES

This step is a crucial one. One's batting average on selection decisions is closely related to the number of candidates, worthy ones, available for consideration.

A chief executive of a large enterprise set the following objective for their executive continuity effort. The executive continuity effort would be considered a success if they had three qualified internal candidates to choose from in making appointments to key positions. Interestingly, in spite of extensive and consistent efforts over a period of years, the best estimate is that two qualified candidates are now available.

Time does not permit describing the requirements for a systems approach to executive continuity.* Attention will be given to (1) the securing of candidates from one's own organization, (2) from internal sources outside your own organization, and (3) from external sources. The advantage of (4) a "scouting" process will also be discussed.

Securing of Candidates from One's Own Organization

In some instances replacement charts will have been prepared in advance. Referral to these charts will identify possible candidates. It is interesting to note that this step is often overlooked. Replacement charts are prepared to meet a deadline for submission "upstairs." They aren't referred to when the time comes to make an appointment. Studies conducted in a large number of organizations reveal that the candidate finally selected often doesn't appear on replacement charts.

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* Thorough coverage of the challenge of executive continuity has been given in Mahler and Wrightnour, *Executive Continuity*, Dow Jones-Irwin, Homewood, Ill.

This just means that the mechanics of replacement are in place. The routine is carried out. However, the process is not generating sound, useful data. The process is not being used.

Time doesn't permit suggesting how to improve upon replacement planning. However, when replacement charts or tables are available we urge reference to them. This will provide pressure for subsequent upgrading the soundness of the process. Another alternative is to request nominations from appropriate individuals in your own organization. Some organizations are "posting" openings so that individuals can apply for consideration of available openings. Few individuals have a neutral position on posting. They are either for it or against it. Its value can best be tested in terms of the objectives of your own organization.

Internal Sources Outside Your Own Organization

Most organizations now have a central personnel group who maintain personnel records on all personnel. Consultation with this group will often generate candidates to be considered. Often the consultation is required as part of the standard operating procedure.

Many an executive makes use of the old, tried, and true alternative—that of calling a trusted friend and asking for nominations.

External Sources

When thorough review of internal talent reveals none who meet the specifications, it becomes necessary to "go outside." Two alternatives exist—advertising and use of executive recruiting. Both are worth considering. Advertising is obviously

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the more economical. The search through the pile of resumes to find the well qualified is certainly a task.

Recruiters can make a real contribution, particularly at higher levels. Some companies get their money's worth from a given recruiter. Other companies fail to. Those successful companies do their homework. They have well thought out specifications, they have a competitive compensation package put together, they interview candidates quickly and arrive at conclusions quickly.

Companies experienced in working with recruiters will quite likely turn down the first few candidates. You get past the "readily available" candidates in this manner. The "quick" candidates are often "also rans" in a recent assignment for some other company. You need to encourage the recruiter to "dig"—that is, to do an intensive search for presently employed candidates.

Scheduling interviews on short notice is helpful. However, the interviews need to be planned carefully. We describe an interview process in the next chapter you will find helpful. We suggest you complete your selection interview first. If the decision is likely to be negative, you invest a limited time after the selection interview.

If the individual appears to be a possible choice, then you invest time in informing him or her about your organization. We see little value in either party playing games at this stage. The positives and negatives of a position need to be looked at closely to avoid the following situation.

One executive was recently selected for a key position. He lives in a major city 400 miles from the new organization. After two weeks in the new position he called off moving. He isn't yet sure he will like the new company. Eighteen months have gone by; commuting is getting tougher. The issue begs for resolution.

The final decision requires critical evaluation of each candidate against the specifications.

Scouting System

Some top executives have decided to operate their own "scouting" system. They are on the lookout, at all times, for talented people. In all contacts in the industry and in other situations, the executive ferrets out names of individuals considered to be quite talented. A record system is maintained for future use. Often the executive makes it a point to get acquainted with the talented individuals. In some instances, subordinates are encouraged to do the same thing. It is amazing how diligence and a small amount of time spent in "scouting" does produce vitally needed talent.

STEP 3: INTERVIEW WORTHY CANDIDATES

Matching candidates against the specifications requires that you have considerable knowledge of each candidate. In some instances, a candidate has worked under your direct supervision so that you have firsthand knowledge. In other instances, you may only have casual knowledge of the candidate or you may not know the candidate at all. In these instances an interview is a must. Some executives, feeling uncomfortable about their skill, delegate the interview. In my opinion, the success of an executive hinges so directly on choice of subordinates that each executive must make the selection decision. It helps in making the decision to have done a thorough interview.

In this chapter attention will be given to the requirements for an effective interview. Suggestions for conducting an actual interview will be featured in the next chapter.

Requirements for an Effective Interview

1. The real challenge is to have a pleasant talk and yet secure sufficient data to arrive at a confident decision. So it is necessary to carry out a pleasant communication process and, at the same time, carry out an analytical, evaluative process.
2. The interview process is best conducted by using a well-selected set of questions. The specific questions I recommend will be given in the next chapter. The questions are designed to explore two major areas: accomplishments and management processes.
3. Journalistic questions are preferred. They get their name from journalists who rigorously search for descriptive facts, eschewing opinion and hearsay.
4. In addition to the basic questions, skillful use of "probe" questions adds to the value of the information to be secured in the interview.
5. In effect, the interviewer may be said to be taking a "Polaroid picture" of accomplishments. Questions are asked until a clear-cut picture is secured of just what was accomplished. Similarly, questions are asked until a clear-cut picture is obtained of the management processes used by the candidate.
6. The interviewer is responsible for controlling the use of interview time. The prepared questions help. However, the intent is to get as much descriptive information as possible in a limited length of time.
7. The interviewer needs to realize that the entire sequence involves developing hypotheses and testing them. Does the interviewee meet each specification or not? The interviewer usually starts, before the interview, with some preliminary hypotheses. During the interview the inter-

viewer endeavors to gain confidence in strong positive positions or strong negative positions. The positions are not based on feel or gut-reaction, they are based on descriptive information.

STEP 4: SECURE OTHER DATA

At the executive level there are several sources of additional data. One is reference checks, a second is psychological tests. Let's consider each one in turn.

Reference Checks

It is likely that you have been called for a reference check. Do you remember how you responded? You mentioned several positives, important ones. You commented on one or, at most, two negatives, likely unimportant ones. In summary, you gave minimal information. It will require special effort to secure useful data from references. Consideration also must be given to the individuals given as references.

It is important that you identify the immediate superior for the last several positions. In some instances, the superior once removed should also be identified. Occasionally, a personnel officer who is well acquainted with the candidate is worth including in the reference check.

A face-to-face interview is likely to secure greater cooperation and more complete information. The expense of such an interview has to be weighed against the importance of the appointment and the risk involved.

A telephone interview is a second way to get reference data. Your luck will vary. In some instances, you will get very useful data; in other instances, you won't. Nevertheless, the effort must be made.

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It helps to use a regular set of interview questions. A set of such questions follows:

Reference Check Questions

1. How long did you supervise (name of candidate).
2. What were several of the candidate's more important accomplishments. (Use personal name rather than term "candidate.")
3. What would be one or two ways the candidate didn't come up to your expectations? I call them "disappointments."
4. Main reasons for the disappointments.
5. Where would you be inclined to give the candidate freedom and, where would you supervise the candidate more closely?
6. I'd be interested in the background on why the candidate is now available.
7. We are thinking of ________ (candidate) for ________ (mention title ________ of position). What would you say are several of the candidate's assets for such a position? What are two or three reservations you would have?

Experience suggests that a request of a reference for a written evaluation is likely to produce very little helpful information.

Psychological Tests

Psychological tests of executives have been in use for more than 30 years. Scores of psychologists devote full time to the process. Most are in consulting organizations. While tests have been around for a long time, they cannot be said to be widely used within organizations. A few organizations who are in the habit of using them are enthusiastic about them. Many organizations wouldn't consider using them under any circumstance.

Just what type of process constitutes a psychological evaluation and what data is provided. The evaluation process involves the use of several types of tests. Mental measurements are usually used. Interest inventories and personality characteristics are also used. An interview, usually referred to as a depth interview, is conducted.

The process produces a description of the personal characteristics of an individual. A primary virtue of a psychological evaluation is that the data is similar, so that comparisons can be made among several candidates.

A critical reservation is that the psychological evaluation provides little data pertaining to the specifications. Furthermore, big inferences have to be made from psychological characteristics to managerial abilities.

Our personal position is that psychological tests should not be used at the executive level. We do favor extensive use of tests for individuals early in their career.

STEP 5: MATCH CANDIDATES WITH SPECIFICATIONS

Now comes the critical point—the decision on whether a candidate meets the specifications. You have the following information:

1. Prior knowledge (if any).
2. Background data.
3. Interview of candidate on accomplishments.
4. Interview of candidate on managing processes.
5. Reference check inputs.

In some instances you ~~may~~ wish to have one or two other individuals interview the candidate. However, yours should be the thorough, decisive interview.

The more often a strength or weakness regarding a specification shows up in the above sources, the more confidence you can have in your interpretation.

You should be able to say:
Candidate meets the spec because . . . .

or

Candidate doesn't meet the specs as demonstrated by . . . .

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The Selection Interview

THERE ARE TWO PARTS to the selection interview. Part one consists of getting the useful information. Part two is the interpretation and evaluation of the information. In Chapter 5 attention will be given to the challenge of getting useful information. Chapter 6 will be devoted to the interpretation of data.

THE INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

As mentioned in Chapter 4, a special set of journalistic type questions will be recommended. These questions have evolved over a period of years in a process we refer to as Accomplishment Analysis. The questions I recommend for use are listed below.

Selection Interview Questions

Preliminary:

1. Beginning with your move into your first supervisor job, would you tell me, briefly, *why each change was made.*

Accomplishments—Current Job:

2. Refer to most recent position. What would you say are some of your more important accomplishments? I'd be interested in operating results and any other accomplish-

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Selection Interview Questions (*continued*)

ments you consider important. (Probe for four or five accomplishments. Get specific data.)

3. Considering these accomplishments, what are some of the reasons for your success?
4. Were there any unusual difficulties you had to overcome in getting these accomplishments?
5. What two or three things do you feel you have learned on this job?
6. What did you particularly like about the position?
7. There are always a few negatives about a position. What would you say you liked least about the position?
8. What responsibilities or results have not come up to your expectations? I'd be interested in things you had hoped and planned to accomplish which were not done. I sometimes call them disappointments. (Push for several, specific answers.)
9. What are some of the reasons for this?

Accomplishments—Second Position:

I'd like to talk with you about your experience as ________ ________. (Mention title of second most recent position.)

10. What would you say were some of the more important things you accomplished on this job?
11. What were some of the factors that would account for the accomplishments you have just mentioned?
12. What responsibilities or results didn't come up to your expectations on this job?
13. What were some of the reasons for this?
14. What would you say you learned on this job?
15. What did you like about it?
16. What didn't you like about it?

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Selection Interview Questions (*continued*)

Additional Positions:

Repeat questions 10 through 16 if there was a significant period as a manager in a third position.

Planning, Decisions:

17. I'm interested in how you do your planning. What planning processes have you found useful and how do you go about them?
18. In what way do you feel you have improved in your planning in the last few years?
19. What are some examples of important types of decisions or recommendations you are called upon to make?
20. Would you describe how you went about making these types of decisions or recommendations. With whom did you talk, and so forth?
21. What decisions are easiest for you to make and which ones are more difficult?
22. Most of us can think of an important decision which we would make quite differently if we made it again. Any examples from your experience? Probe: What's the biggest mistake you can recall?
23. Most of us improve in our decision-making ability as we get greater experience. In what respects do you feel you have improved in your decision making?

Organization (Structure, Delegation, Staffing, Deselection, Transition):

24. What has been your experience with major expansion or reduction of force? (Explore for details.)
25. How many immediate subordinates have you selected in the last two years? How did you go about it? Any surprises or disappointments?

Selection Interview Questions (*continued*)

26. How many immediate subordinates have you removed from their jobs in the last few years? Any contemplated? One example of how you went about it.
27. How do you feel your subordinates would describe you as a delegator? Any deliberate tactics you use?

Controlling:

28. Some managers keep a very close check on their organization. Others use a loose rein. What pattern do you follow? How has it changed in the last few years?
29. What has been the most important surprise you have received from something getting out of control? Why did it happen?
30. Let's talk about standards of performance. How would you describe your own? What would your subordinates say? What would your boss say?
31. Sometimes it is necessary to issue an edict to an individual or the entire staff. Do you have any recent examples of edicts you have issued? Probe: Reasons? Results?

Supervision:

32. What things do you think contribute to your effectiveness as a supervisor?
33. From an opposite viewpoint, what do you think might interfere with your effectiveness as a supervisor?
34. In what respects do you feel you have improved most as a supervisor during the last few years?
35. What kind of supervisor gets the best performance out of you?
36. Some managers are quite deliberate about such things as communications, development, and motivation. Do you have any examples of how you do this?
37. What have you done about your own development in the last few years?

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Selection Interview Questions (*concluded*)

Other:

38. Would you describe your relationship with your last three supervisors.
39. Considering your relationships both inside and outside the component, would you give me an example of where you have been particularly effective in relating with the others.
40. Would you also give me an example of where you might *not* have been particularly effective in relating with others.
41. Some people are short-fused and impatient in their reactions. How would you describe yourself?
42. Have you encountered any health problems? What do you do about your health?
43. Most of us can look back upon a new idea, a new project, or an innovation we feel proud of introducing. Would you describe one or two such innovations you are particularly proud of?

Future:

44. How do you feel about your progress (career-wise) to date?
45. What are your aspirations for the future? Have these changed?
46. We sometimes compare the assets and limitations of our products with competition. Let's do a related thing with your career. Thinking of your competition for jobs to which you aspire, what you say are your main assets, your strengths, and what would you say are your limitations? (Get three or more assets and three or more limitations.)
47. Are there any conditions of personal business, health, or family which would limit your flexibility for taking on a new assignment?

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USE OF THE QUESTIONS

Answers should be obtained to all questions. Sometimes a given question is answered in response to an early question. Avoid asking a question if it has been answered earlier. We suggest you ask the questions the way they are worded. Use preambles to avoid a "third-degree" effect. The basic questions are "open-ended." You will need to use probes to get specific data. Probe to get an example, an illustration, a description of action taken. Endeavor, however, to keep a pleasant climate, one in which the interviewee is talking freely.

Remember: If you are to picture how an individual will perform in the future, you must have a clear, neat "mental picture" of how the individual has actually performed in the past.

SOME COMMON INTERVIEWING PITFALLS

1. Not asking questions clearly.
2. Interrupting when interviewee is doing his "preparatory thinking" before answering.
3. Cutting off responses interviewee thinks are important.
4. Overlooking "little clues" of a "big negative."
5. Probing beyond an interviewee's willingness to talk.
6. Permitting an interviewee to wander around.
7. Using leading questions. (Would you say . . . .?)
8. Asking questions which can be answered by a yes or no.

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Interpretation of Interview Data

THE SUBJECT MATTER of this chapter represents a skill which is difficult to really explain in a book. It's something like trying to improve your golf swing by reading a book. With regard to golf, have you noticed there is an advantage in reading only one book? Read two and you really do get confused. The same pitfall may exist here. In spite of the difficulty, let me see if I can provide suggestions which will help you interpret and evaluate interview data.

Over a period of years we asked more than 40 personnel executives to indicate the specifications they considered important for a general manager position and for a top functional position, such as manufacturing. A summary of their survey results follows.

Frequently Suggested General Manager Specifications

1. First and foremost a general manager must have an enthusiasm for achieving business results (both financial and nonfinancial).
2. He/she can inspire, challenge, motivate the entire organization.

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3. He/she has sound business judgment, both long term and short term; makes good trade-offs; and takes calculated risks.

4. He/she has basic integrity.

5. He/she manages himself/herself and others effectively.

Frequently Suggested Functional
Manager Specifications
(Function Could Be Manufacturing, Marketing, or Others)

1. Functional knowledge: Sound technical knowledge regarding the function. Knows the various facets of his or her functional specialty.

2. Leadership qualities: Inspires personnel, commands respect, can get individuals to work for him or her.

3. High standards: Demanding of self and others. Motivated to achieve. Willing to fight for standards.

4. Managerial or adminstrative ability: Does a capable job of both planning, organizing, and controlling. Does not over or under supervise.

5. Integrity: Can be trusted by superiors, subordinates, and peers. Does not comprise for personal reasons at expense of others.

INTERPRETATION AGAINST SPECIFICATIONS

In making interpretation of data from the interview with regard to a given specification, it is necessary to look for relevant data. The first place to look is for questions in the interview which are *directly related to the specifications.*

A brief summary of the relationship of questions to specifications follows:

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Specification Factors	Questions No.	Nature of Question
Decision-making ability	20.	How decisions are made.
	21.	Easy and hard decisions.
	22.	Boner.
	23.	Improvement in decision-making.
Delegating ability	27.	Delegate as seen by subordinates.
Controlling ability	28.	Closeness of control.
	29.	Out-of-control situation.
	30.	Standards.
	31.	Edicts.
Development of personnel	36.	Deliberate actions.
	37.	Own development.
Organization planning	24.	Expansion and contraction.
Selection of personnel (deselection)	25.	Past experience with selection.
	26.	Nonperformers.
Planning ability	17.	Planning processes.
	18.	Improvement in planning.
Supervisory ability (leadership)	32.	Effectiveness.
	33.	Ineffectiveness.
	34.	Improvement made in supervisory ability.
	35.	Supervision preferred.
	36.	Specific practices.
Relationship	38.	Description of relationship with superiors.
	39.	Relationships inside and outside.
	40.	Ineffective examples.
	41.	Emotional reactions.
Innovativeness	43.	Examples of innovation.
Ambition	44.	Reaction to career progress.
	45.	States aspiration.
	47.	Limitations placed.

The second place to look for data about a given specification is the statement of accomplishments. In some instances there will be a direct relationship between a stated accomplishment and a given specification. In other instances, the reasons for accomplishment will provide interpretative clues.

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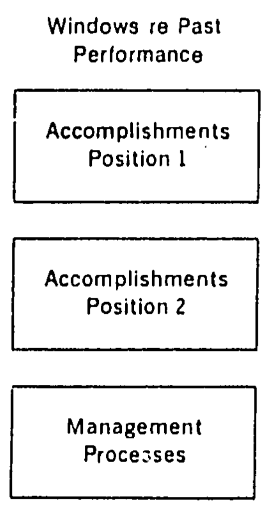
The lack of accomplishments and reasons for this lack also contribute quite directly to interpretations regarding specifications.

The data on accomplishments may not contribute to every specification under consideration. Interpretation becomes challenging when there is conflict between accomplishment data and management process question results.

Another set of questions which provides data which assists in interpreting against specifications is the question of "likes" and "dislikes" for a given position.

In effect, the interpretation is a two-phase process. First, you are looking through several windows to get as accurate a picture as possible of what has happened in the past. Second, you look ahead and endeavor to visualize future performance.



SUGGESTIONS REGARDING INDIVIDUAL SPECIFICATONS

The analogy to a Polaroid picture is pertinent here. Comprehensive inputs which form a consistent pattern give you a clean-cut focus on the past. In your interpretation you then use this focus on the past to decide how well specifications are met. Specifications are those things deemed essential for future success. We are relying heavily, therefore, on the past to make prediction about the future. This reliance may not be entirely justified at times, but it still provides the soundest basis we have available.

Let us take a specification, business judgment, and see how you go from interview data to interpretation against the specification.

There are many instances during an interview in which judgment shows up. The most important place is the inference one has to make as to the extent to which judgment accounts for accomplishments, and the extent to which poor judgment accounts for failure to accomplish results.

One gets some idea of judgment in terms of the responses of the interviewee. Does he or she readily grasp the question and respond in a direct manner? Does he or she have difficulty in grasping the question? Does he or she have difficulty in giving precise, coherent answers?

A major segment of the planning questions are devoted to this issue of judgment. Here one needs to look at the data for several questions such as the decisions permitted by one's superior, the decisions in which the boss has confidence and those where the boss does not. The interview questions do get descriptive data about the process by which the individual goes about arriving at decisions.

FINAL DECISION

The final interpretation is a "go" or "no-go" decision. The use of a Candidate Analysis Sheet will facilitate making the final decision. An example of such a sheet follows.

Candidate Analysis Sheet

Position *Pooled Mngr.—Defense* *Analysis by:* ____ *Date* ____

I. Results: List the five more important results he/she will be expected to achieve.

1. Provide a sensitive and effective second avenue of communications between customers and the top management of the group.
2. Develop sufficient stature to personally represent the company at Washington conferences.
3. Upgrade the caliber of field personnel.
4. Direct effort aimed at identification of new business opportunities for the group.
5. Secure and maintain confidence of division general managers.

Candidate Analysis Sheet (*continued*)

II. Requirements: List the five more important requirements for success on the job.	III. Candidates versus Requirements:*				
	A	*B*	*C*	*D*	*E*
1. Three or more years experience as a division general manager with a record of accomplishment.	1	1	3	2	5
2. Personally compatible with president and division general managers.	2	1	3	3	4
3. Skillful in communications, in influencing, in persuading, in establishing rapport with customers and influential men and women.	2	2	2	4	1
4. Capable in administering a diverse group.	1	2	2	2	5
5. Sound judgment on business, political, and technical problems (across spectrum of group business).	1	3	3	3	3
Overall rating	1−	2+	3−	3+	5
Ranking	1	2	3	4	5

* Rating:
1. Fully meets, no reservation.
2. Generally meets, minor reservation.
3. Generally meets, moderate reservation.
4. Generally meets, major reservation.
5. Fails to meet.

HANDOUTS TO BE USED

AS PART OF THE

HUMAN RESOURCE

MANAGEMENT SEMINAR

WROCLAW, POLAND

APRIL 21-24, 1994

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AND ENGINEERING TECHNOLOGY
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L. A. S. I.

LEADERSHIP ADAPTABILITY AND STYLE INVENTORY

QUESTIONNAIRE

TASK: Assume you are involved in each of the following 12 situations. READ each item carefully. THINK about what you would do in each circumstance. Then CIRCLE the letter of the alternative action choice which you think would most closely describe your behavior in the situation presented. Circle only one choice. In reading each situation, interpret key concepts in terms of the environment or situation in which you most often think of yourself as assuming a leadership role. For example, when an item mentions subordinates, if you think that you engage in leader behavior most often as an industrial manager then think about your staff as subordinates. If, however, you think of yourself as assuming a leadership role usually as a parent, think about your children as your subordinates. As a teacher, think about your students as subordinates.

Do not change your situational frame of reference from one item to another.

SITUATION	ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS
1) Your subordinates are not responding lately to your friendly conversation and obvious concern for their welfare. Their performance is in a tailspin.	A. Emphasize the use of uniform procecures and the necessity for task accomplishment. B. Make yourself available for discussion but don't push. C. Talk with subordinates and then set goals. D. Intentionally do not intervene.
2) The observable performance of your group is increasing. You have been making sure that all members were aware of their roles and standards.	A. Engage in friendly interaction, but continue to make sure that all members are aware of their roles and standards. B. Take no definite action. C. Do what you can to make the group feel important and involved. D. Emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks.
3) Members of your group are unable to solve a problem themselves. You have normally left them alone. Group performance and interpersonal relations have been good.	A. Involve the group and together engage in problem solving. B. Let the group work it out. C. Act quickly and firmly to correct and redirect. D. Encourage group to work on problem and be available for discussion.

SITUATION	ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS
4) You are considering a major change. Your subordinates have a fine record of accomplishment. They respect the need for change.	A. Allow group involvement in developing the change, but don't push. B. Announce changes and then implement with close supervision. C. Allow group to formulate its own direction. D. Incorporate group recommendations, but you direct the change.
5) The performance of your group has been dropping during the last few months. Members have been unconcerned with meeting objectives. Redefining roles has helped in the past. They have continually needed reminding to have their tasks done on time.	A. Allow group to formulate its own direction. B. Incorporate group recommendations, but see that objectives are met. C. Redefine goals and supervise carefully. D. Allow group involvement in setting goals, but don't push.
6) You stepped into an efficiently run situation. The previous administrator ran a tight ship. You want to maintain a productive situation, but would like to begin humanizing the environment.	A. Do what you can to make group feel important and involved. B. Emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks. C. Intentionally do not intervene. D. Get group involved in decision-making, but see that objectives are met.
7) You are considering major changes in your organizational structure. Members of the group have made suggestions about needed change. The group has demonstrated flexibility in its day-to-day operations.	A. Define the change and supervise carefully. B. Acquire group's approval on the change and allow members to organize the implementation. C. Be willing to make changes as recommended, but maintain control of implementation. D. Avoid confrontation; leave things alone.
8) Group performance and interpersonal relations are good. You feel somewhat unsure about your lack of direction of the group.	A. Leave the group alone. B. Discuss the situation with the group and then initiate necessary changes. C. Take steps to direct subordinates toward working in a well-defined manner. D. Be careful of hurting boss-subordinate relations by being too directive.

SITUATION	ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS
9) Your superior has appointed you to head a task force that is far overdue in making requested recommendations for change. The group is not clear on its goals. Attendance at sessions has been poor. Their meetings have turned into social gatherings. Potentially they have the talent necessary to help.	A. Let the group work it out. B. Incorporate group recommendations, but see that objectives are met. C. Redefine goals and supervise carefully. D. Allow group involvement in setting goals, but don't push.
10) Your subordinates, usually able to take responsibility, are not responding to your recent redefining of standards.	A. Allow group involvement in redefining standards, but don't push. B. Redefine standards and supervise carefully. C. Avoid confrontation by not applying pressure. D. Incorporate group recommendations, but see that new standards are met.
11) You have been promoted to a new position. The previous supervisor was uninvolved in the affairs of the group. The group has adequately handled its tasks and direction. Group inter-relations are good.	A. Take steps to direct subordinates toward working in a well-defined manner. B. Involve subordinates in decision-making and reinforce good contributions. C. Discuss past performance with group and then you examine the need for new practices. D. Continue to leave group alone.
12) Recent information indicates some internal difficulties among subordinates. The group has a remarkable record of accomplishment. Members have effectively maintained long range goals. They have worked in harmony for the past year. All are well qualified for the task.	A. Try out your solution with subordinates and examine the need for new practices. B. Allow group members to work it out themselves. C. Act quickly and firmly to correct and redirect. D. Make yourself available for discussion, but be careful of hurting boss-subordinate relations.

You have just completed the L.A.S.I.-Self. This instrument was developed to help you gain some insight into your perception of how you behave as a leader. It is designed to measure your self-perception of three aspects of leader behavior: (1) style, (2) style range and (3) style adaptability. Throughout the remainder of this article you will be given theoretical frameworks and other information about these three aspects of leader behavior in order to help you score and interpret your responses to the L.A.S.I.-Self.

STYLE

Your leadership style is the consistent patterns of behavior which you exhibit, as perceived by others, when you are attempting to influence the activities of people. This behavior has been developed over time and is what others learn to recognize as you the leader, your style or leader personality. They expect and can even predict certain kinds of behavior from you. The pattern generally involves either task behavior or relationships behavior or some combination of both.

TASK BEHAVIOR

The extent to which a leader is likely to organize and define the roles of the members of his group (followers); to explain what activities each is to do as well as when, where, and how tasks are to be accomplished. It is further characterized by endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting jobs accomplished.

RELATIONSHIP BEHAVIOR

The extent to which a leader is likely to maintain personal relationships between himself and the members of his group (followers) by opening up channels of communication, delegating responsibility and giving subordinates an opportunity to use their potential. It is characterized by socio-emotional support, friendship and mutual trust.

DETERMINING LEADERSHIP STYLE

Your perception of your leadership style on the L.A.S.I.-Self can be determined by circling in Table 1 (opposite page) the letter of the alternative action you chose for each situation and then totaling the number of times an action was used in each of the four sub-columns. The alternative action choices are not distributed alphabetically but according to what style quadrant a particular action alternative represents.

Sub-column totals from Table 1 (Style Range) can be transferred to the basic leader behavior styles in Figure 1 (opposite page). The column numbers correspond to the quadrant numbers of the model as follows:

- Sub-column (1) - alternative action choices describe (Quadrant 1) High Task/Low Relationship Behavior.

- Sub-column (2) - alternative action choices describe (Quadrant 2) High Task/High Relationship Behavior.

- Sub-column (3) - alternative action choices describe (Quadrant 3) High Relationship/Low Task Behavior.

- Sub-column (4) - alternative action choices describe (Quadrant 4) Low Task/Low Relationship Behavior.

Enter the totals associated with each of the four basic leadership styles in the boxes provided in Figure 1.

Your dominant leadership style is defined as the quadrant where the most responses fall. Your supporting style(s) is a leadership style which you tend to use on occasion. The frequency of responses in quadrants other than that of your dominant style suggests the number and degree of supporting styles as you perceive them.

SELF-PERCEPTION vs. STYLE

It is important to note that there is a difference between the self-perception of your leadership style (which L.A.S.I.-Self indicates) and your actual leadership style. As you recall, leadership style was defined as the consistent

Figure 1

THE BASIC LEADER
BEHAVIOR STYLES

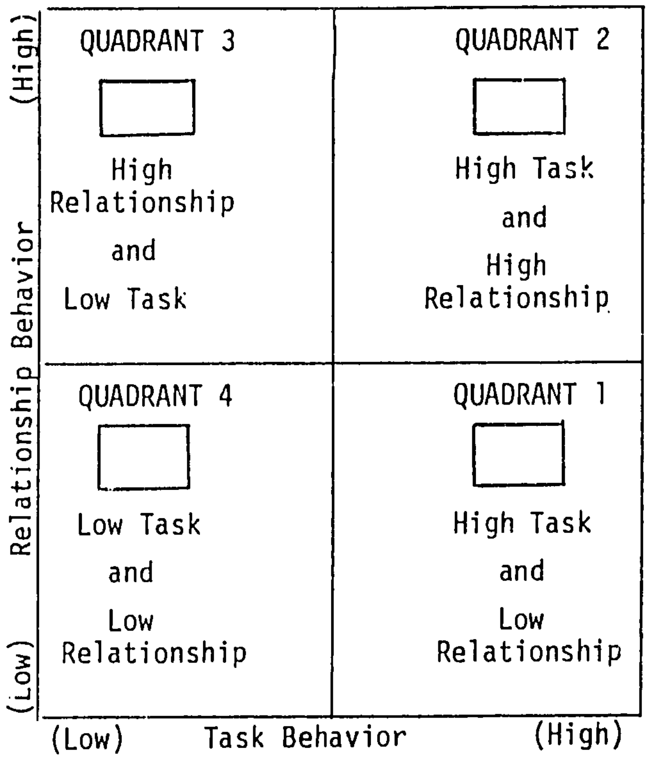

Table 1

DETERMINING LEADERSHIP STYLE
and STYLE RANGE

SITUATIONS	(Style Range) Alternative Actions (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1	A	C	B	D
2	D	A	C	B
3	C	A	D	B
4	B	D	A	C
5	C	B	D	A
6	B	D	A	C
7	A	C	B	D
8	C	B	D	A
9	C	B	D	A
10	B	D	A	C
11	A	C	B	D
12	C	A	D	B
Sub-Columns	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)

patterns of behavior which you exhibit, as perceived by others, when you are involved in influencing the activities of others. Thus the self-perception of your leadership style may or may not reflect your actual leadership depending on how close your perceptions are to the perceptions of others.

STYLE RANGE

Your dominant style plus supporting styles determines your style range. In essence, this is the extent to which you perceive your ability to vary your leadership style.

Your style range can be analyzed by examining which quadrants your responses to the L.A.S.I.-Self occur in Figure 1 as well as the frequency of these occurrences. If your responses fall only in one quadrant, then you perceive the range of your behavior as limited; whereas if responses fall in a number of quadrants, you perceive yourself as having a wide range of leader behavior.

Evidence from research in the last decade clearly indicates that there is no single all-purpose leadership style. Successful leaders are those who can adapt their behavior to meet the demands of their own unique environment.

If the effectiveness of a leader behavior style depends on the situation in which it is used, it follows that any of the four basic styles in Figure 1 may be effective or ineffective depending on the situation. The difference between the effective and the ineffective styles is often not the actual behavior of leader, but the appropriateness of his behavior to the situation in which it is used.

STYLE ADAPTABILITY

Style adaptability is the degree to which leader behavior is appropriate to the demands of a given situation. A person with a narrow style range can be effective over a long period of time if the leader remains in situations in which his or her style has a high probability of success. Conversely a person with a wide range of styles may be ineffective if these behaviors are not consistent with the demands of the situation.

Thus style range is not as relevant to effectiveness as is style adaptability; a wide style range will not guarantee effectiveness.

DETERMINING STYLE ADAPTABILITY

The degree of style adaptability or effectiveness which you indicate for yourself as a leader can be theoretically determined by circling on Table 2 (opposite page) the score given each alternative action choice and then calculating the total score as indicated.

The weighting of a +2 to -2 is based on behavioral science concepts, theories and empirical research. The leader behavior with the highest probability of success of the alternatives offered in the given situation is always weighted a +2. The behavior with the lowest probability of success is always weighted a -2. The second best alternative is weighted +1 and the third is -1.

LIFE CYCLE THEORY

What determines effectiveness? The weighting of a +2 to -2 discussed previously is based on situational analysis using the Life Cycle Theory of Leadership. This theory is based on a relationship between the amount of direction (task behavior) and the amount of socio-emotional support (relationship behavior) a leader provides, and the followers' level of "maturity."

Followers in any situation are vital, not only because individually they accept or reject the leader, but as a group they actually determine whatever personal power the leader may have.

FOLLOWERS' MATURITY

Maturity is defined in the Life Cycle Theory by the level of achievement-motivation, willingness, and ability to take responsibility, and task relevant education and experience of an individual or a group. While age may affect maturity level, it is not directly related to the type of maturity focused on by Life Cycle Theory. The theory is concerned with psychological age, not chronological age.

Table 2

DETERMINING STYLE ADAPTABILITY

SITUATIONS	Alternative Actions A	B	C	D
1	+2	-1	+1	-2
2	+2	-2	+1	-1
3	+1	-1	-2	+2
4	+1	-2	+2	-1
5	-2	+1	+2	-1
6	-1	+1	-2	+2
7	-2	+2	-1	+1
8	+2	-1	-2	+1
9	-2	+1	+2	-1
10	+1	-2	-1	+2
11	-2	+2	-1	+1
12	-1	+2	-2	+1
SUB TOTAL	+	+	+	

= TOTAL

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According to Life Cycle Theory, as the level of maturity of one's followers continues to increase, a leader should begin to reduce task behavior and increase relationship behavior until the point where the individual or group is sufficiently mature that the leader can now decrease relationship behavior (socio-emotional support) as well.

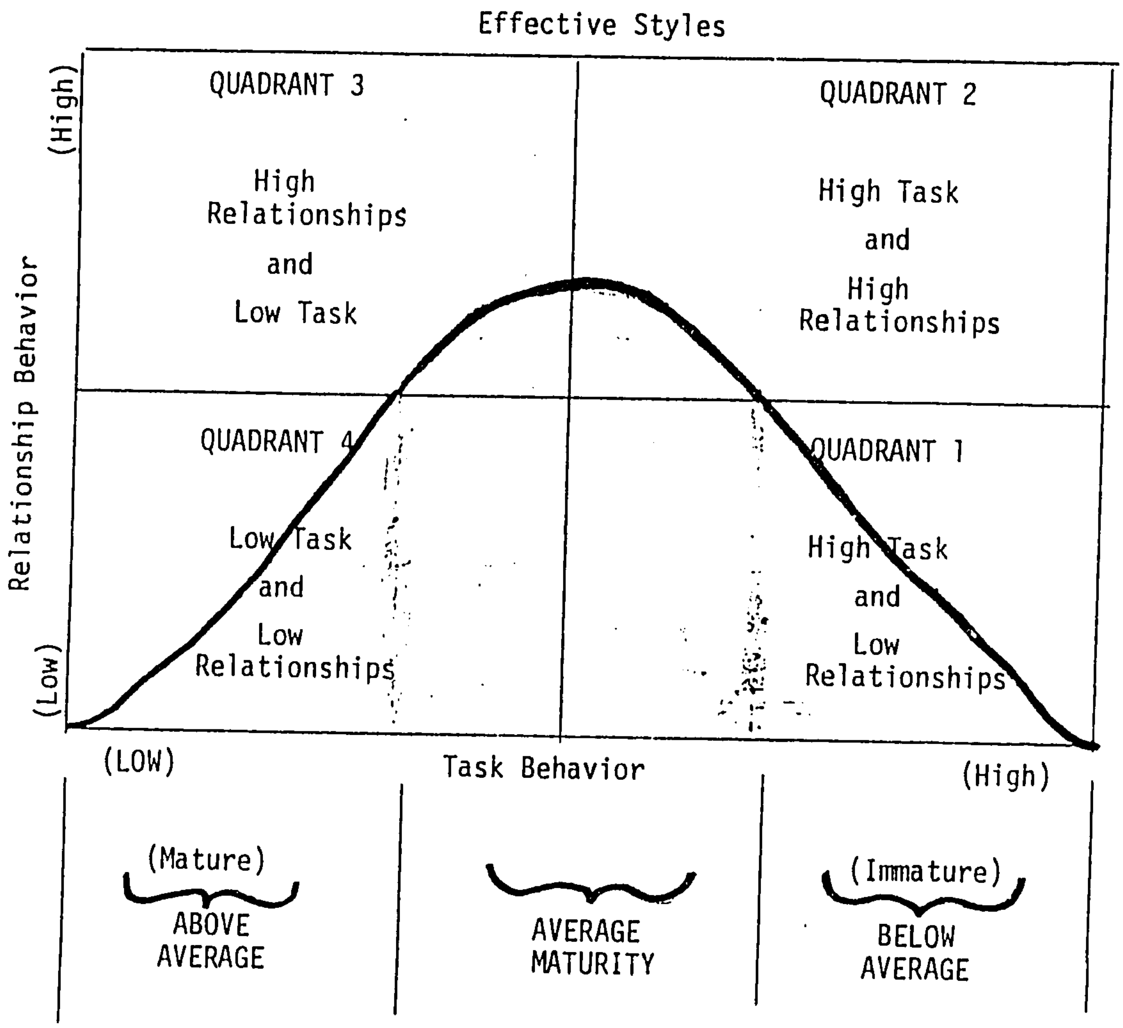
Thus, this theory focuses on the appropriateness of effectiveness of leadership styles according to the level of maturity of one's follower or group. This cycle can be illustrated by the bell-shaped curve going through the four leadership quadrants as shown in Figure 4 (opposite page).

As can be seen in Figure 4, some benchmarks or degrees of maturity can be provided for determining appropriate leadership style by dividing the maturity continuum into three categories - below average, average and above average.

This theory of leadership states that when working with people of below average maturity, a high task style (quadrant 1) has the highest probability of success. In dealing with people of average maturity, the style of quadrants 2 and 3 appear to be most appropriate. Quadrant 4 has the highest probability of success working with people of above average maturity.

Figure 4

LIFE CYCLE
LEADERSHIP THEORY



Rationale and Analysis

In the LASI instrument which you completed, each of the 12 situations theoretically called for one of the four basic leadership styles depicted in Figure 1. In each case, the situation described something about the maturity level of a work group you might be working with in your role as a leader. Using Life Cycle Theory of Leadership as the analytical tool, three of the situations demanded a high task/low relationship action (Quadrant 1), three required a high task/high relationship choice (Quadrant 2), three required a high relationship/low task style (Quadrant 3), and finally three asked for a low task/low relationship style (Quadrant 4).

Thus a person who picked the alternative the the highest probability in all 12 situations would have indicated three style choices in each quadrant and a +24 adaptability or effectiveness score.

In this section, the 12 situations and their corresponding alternative actions are analyzed and the rationale for evaluating and weighting alternatives is briefly explained according to Life Cycle Theory of Leadership. This is done to help you get a better idea of your diagnostic ability and provide you with some explanations about the theoretical appropriateness of your alternative action choices on the LASI-Self. It should be noted that since the rationale and analysis would be the same for all three forms of LASI, the situations following are written in the third person.

In addition, for each situation discussed the alternative actions are listed in the order of their effectiveness, not in alphabetical order.

SITUATION NO. 1

Subordinates are not responding lately to the leader's friendly conversation and obvious concern for their welfare. Their performance is in a tailspin.

DIAGNOSIS: The group is rapidly decreasing in maturity as evidenced by the tailspin in productivity. The leader may be perceived as permissive because of the high degree of relationship behavior he or she is displaying. The leader's best bet in the short run is to cut back significantly in developing personal relationships with the group and initiate considerable structure, i.e. explaining what activities group members are to do and when, where, and how tasks are to be accomplished. If the group begins to show some signs of assuming responsibility, the leader can begin to increase relationship behavior and start again to delegate.

Alternative Actions

The leader would:

A. Emphasize the use of uniform procedures and the necessity for task accomplishment.

Rationale: (+2) This action (HT/LR) provides the directive leadership needed to increase group productivity in the short run.

C. Talk with subordinates and then set goals.

Rationale: (+1) This action (HT/HR) may be appropriate if the group begins to mature and demonstrate some ability to meet deadlines and accomplish tasks.

B. Be available for discussion, but not push.

Rationale: (—1) This action (HR/LT) is appropriate for a group average in maturity, with reasonable output; one which is taking some responsibility for decisions, searching out the leader only for special situations. At present, this group does not have that level of maturity.

D. Intentionally not intervene.

Rationale: (—2) This "hands-off" action (LT/LR) will only increase the probability that this behavior will continue.

SITUATION NO. 2

The observable performance of the group is increasing. The leader has been making sure that all members were aware of their roles and standards.

DIAGNOSIS: The group has been responding well to structured behavior from its leader; the maturity of the group seems to be increasing. The leader, while needing to change his or her style to reflect this increased maturity, must be careful not to increase socio-emotional support too rapidly. Too much socio-emotional support and too little structure may be seen by the group as permissiveness.

The best bet, therefore, is to reinforce positively *successive approximations* as the group's behavior comes closer and closer to the leader's expectations of good performance. This is done by a two-step process of first reduction in structure (task behavior), and then, if adequate performance follows, an increase in socio-emotional support (relationship behavior).

Alternative Actions

The leader would:

A. Engage in friendly interaction, but continue to make sure that all members are aware of their roles and standards.

Rationale: (+2) This action (HT/HR) will best facilitate increased group maturity. While some structure is maintained by seeing that members are aware of their roles and standards, increased consideration is shown by friendly interaction with the group.

C. Do what can be done to make the group feel important and involved.

Rationale: (+1) While this group is maturing, this action (HL/LT) might be increasing socio-emotional support too rapidly. It would be appropriate if the group cohtinues to take more responsibility.

D. Emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks.

Rationale: (—1) This action (HT/LR) reveals no change in leadership style and as a result, no positive reinforcement is given to the group for improved performance. With no increased socio-emotional support or opportunity to take more responsibility, group performance may begin to decline rather than continue to increase.

B. Take no definite action.

Rationale: (—2) This action (LT/LR) would turn over significant responsibility to this group too rapidly. Structure should be cut back gradually, with incremental increases in socio-emotional support.

SITUATION NO. 3

Members of the group are unable to solve a problem themselves. Their leader has normally left them alone. Group performance and interpersonal relations have been good.

DIAGNOSIS: The group, above average in maturity in the past as good performance and interpersonal relations suggest, is now unable to solve a problem and needs an intervention from the leader. The leader's best bet is to open up communication channels again by calling the group together and helping to facilitate problem-solving.

Alternative Actions

The leader would:

D. Encourage group to work on problem and be available for discussion.

Rationale: (+2) This action (HR/LT) allows the group to derive its own solution to the problem, but makes the leader available to act as a facilitator in this process if necessary.

A. Involve the group and together engage in problem-solving.

Rationale: (+1) This action (HT/HR) might be appropriate if the group continues to be unable to solve the problem.

B. Let the group work it out.

Rationale: (—1) This action (LT/LR) is no longer appropriate since the group has been unable to solve the problem; some help is needed from the leader.

C. Act quickly and firmly to correct and redirect.

Rationale: (—2) This action (HT/LR) is too drastic as the group has demonstrated maturity in the past and the ability to work on its own.

SITUATION NO. 4

The leader is considering a major change. Subordinates have a fine record of accomplishment. They respect the need for change.

DIAGNOSIS: Since the leader is considering a major change and the members of the group are mature and respect the need for change, the leader's best bet is to keep communication channels open.

Alternative Actions

The leader would:

A. Allow the group to formulate its own direction.

Rationale: (+2) This action (LT/LR) would maximize the involvement of this mature group in developing and implementing the change.

A. Allow group involvement in developing the change, but would not push.

Rationale: (+1) This action (HR/LT) would demonstrate consideration and allow group involvement in developing the change, and may be appropriate if the change means venturing into areas in which the group has less experience.

D. Incorporate group recommendations but direct the change.

Rationale: (—1) This behavior (HT/HR) would not utilize to the fullest the potential which is inherent in this group.

B. Announce changes and then implement with close supervision.

Rationale: (—2) This action (HT/LR) would be inappropriate with a mature group that has the potential to contribute to the development of the change.

SITUATION NO. 5

The performance of the leader's group has been dropping during the last few months. Members have been unconcerned with meeting objectives. Redefining roles has helped in the past. They have continually needed reminding to have their tasks done on time.

DIAGNOSIS: The group is relatively immature, not only in terms of willingness to take responsibility but also in experience; productivity is decreasing. Initiating structure has helped in the past. The leader's best bet in the short run, will be to engage in task behavior, i.e., defining roles, spelling out tasks.

Alternative Actions

The leader would:

C. Redefine goals and supervise carefully.

Rationale: (+2) This action (HT/LR) provides the directive leadership needed to increase group productivity in the short run.

B. Incorporate group recommendations, but see that objectives are met.

Rationale: (+1) This action (HT/HR) is appropriate for working with people of average maturity, but at present this group does not have the ability or experience to make significant recommendations. As the group begins to mature, this may become a more appropriate style.

D. Allow group involvement in goal setting, but would not push.

Rationale: (—1) This action (HR/LT) would tend to reinforce the group's present inappropriate behavior and in the future the leader may find members engaging in work restriction or other disruptive behavior to gain attention.

A. Allow the group to formulate its own direction.

Rationale: (—2) This "hands-off" action (LT/LR) would increase the probability that this behavior will continue and productivity will further decline.

SITUATION NO. 6

The leader stepped into an efficiently run situation. The previous administrator ran a tight ship. The leader wants to maintain a productive situation, but would like to begin humanizing the environment.

DIAGNOSIS: The group has responded well in the past to task behavior as evidenced by the smoothly running situation left by the last administrator. If the new leader wants to maintain a productive situation, but would like to begin humanizing the environment, the best bet is to maintain some structure but give the group opportunities to take some increase in responsibility; if this responsibility is well handled, this behavior should be reinforced by increases in socio-emotional support.

This process should continue until the group is assuming significant responsibility and performing as a more mature group.

Alternative Actions

The leader would:

D. Get the group involved in decision-making, but see that the objectives are met.

Rationale: (+2) This action (HT/HR) best facilitates beginning to humanize the environment. While some structure and direction from the leader are maintained, socio-emotional support and group responsibility are gradually increased by moderate involvement in decision-making. If the group handles this involvement well, further increases in socio-emotional support become more appropriate.

B. Emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks.

Rationale: (+1) While this style (HT/LR) would not begin to humanize the environment, it would tend to be a more appropriate initial action than decreasing structure too rapidly.

A. Do what can be done to make group feel important and involved.

Rationale: (—1) While the leader wants to begin to humanize the environment, this much relationship might be too early; as the group begins to demonstrate some ability to take responsibility, this action (HR/LT) could be more appropriate.

C. Intentionally not intervene.

Rationale: (—2) This "hands-off" action (LT/LR) would be too drastic a change from the tight ship run by the last administrator and would probably be perceived as permissiveness. This action is only appropriate for very mature, responsible groups which have demonstrated ability to structure their own activities and provide their own socio-emotional support.

SITUATION NO. 7

The leader is considering major changes in the group structure. Members of the group have made suggestions about needed change. The group has demonstrated flexibility in its day-to-day operations.

DIAGNOSIS: The group seems to be above average in maturity as flexibility in day-to-day operations suggests. Since the leader is considering making major changes in structure and the members of the group have already made suggestions about needed change, the leader's best bet is to continue to keep communication channels open with the group.

Some structure, however, might be needed because the change may be venturing into areas in which the group has less experience.

Alternative Actions

The leader would:

B. Acquire group's approval on the change and allow them to organize its implementation.

Rationale: (+2) This action (HR/LT) would demonstrate consideration and focus group involvement on developing the change.

D. Avoid confrontation; leave things alone.

Rationale: (+1) Once the strategy for the change has been developed and implemented with group involvement, this "hands-off" action (LT/LR) would be appropriate for working with this kind of mature group on a day-to-day basis.

C. Be willing to make changes as recommended but maintain control of implementation.

Rationale: (—1) This behavior (HT/HR) would not utilize to the fullest the potential which is inherent in this group.

A. Define the change and supervise carefully.

Rationale: (—2) This action (HT/LR) would be inappropriate with a mature group that has demonstrated flexibility in day-to-day operations. The problem is one of implementing a major change, not with initiating structure.

SITUATION NO. 8

Group performance and interpersonal relations are good. The leader feels somewhat unsure about the lack of direction given to the group.

DIAGNOSIS: The group is above average in maturity, as can be seen from good productivity and group relations. While the leader feels somewhat unsure about lack of direction of the group, this problem lies within the leader rather than within the group. Therefore the leader's best action is to continue to let the group provide much of its own structure and socio-emotional support.

Alternative Actions

The leader would:

A. Leave the group alone.

Rationale: (+2) This action (LT/LR) best allows the group to continue to provide its own structure and socio-emotional support.

D. Be careful of hurting boss-subordinate relations by being too directive.

Rationale: (+1) At the present time, boss-subordinate relations are not in danger; however, if an intervention is made, the leader should be careful of its impact on interpersonal relations (HR/LT).

B. Discuss the situation with the group and then initiate necessary changes.

Rationale: (—1) At this point there is no indication of a need for change with the group. The problem is one of leader insecurity. No leader intervention is needed.

C. Take steps to direct subordinates toward working in a well-defined manner.

Rationale: (—2) This action (HT/LR) would be inappropriate as the group has demonstrated ability in working in a well-defined manner; the problem is one of leader insecurity.

SITUATION NO. 9

The leader has been appointed by a superior to head a task force that is far overdue in making requested recommendations for change. The group is not clear on its goals. Attendance at sessions has been poor. Meetings have turned into social gatherings. Potentially the group has the talent necessary to help.

DIAGNOSIS: This group is below average in maturity as can be seen by the tardiness in making requested recommendations, poor attendance at meetings and low concern for task accomplishment.

While members potentially have the talent to help, the leader's best bet in the short run will be to initiate structure with this group, i.e., organize and define the roles of the members of the task force.

Alternative Actions

The leader would:

C. Redefine goals and supervise carefully.

Rationale: (+2) This action (HT/LR) provides the directive leadership needed for this group to begin accomplishing its goals.

B. Incorportate group recommendations, but see that objectives are met.

Rationale: (+1) This action (HT/HR) is appropriate for working with people of average maturity but at present this group has not demonstrated the commitment or willingness to take responsibility to make significant recommendations.

D. Allow group involvement in goal setting, but would not push.

Rationale: (—1) This action (HR/LT) would tend to reinforce the group's present inappropriate behavior.

A. Let the group work it out.

Rationale: (—2) This "hands-off" action (LT/LR) will only increase the probability that this inappropriate behavior will continue and requested recommendations will be further delayed.

SITUATION NO. 10

Subordinates, usually able to take responsibility, are not responding to the leader's recent redefining of standards.

DIAGNOSIS: This group, usually able to take responsibility, is becoming less mature. This may be partly because the leader has recently structured the group's environment. The leader's best bet now is to keep communication channels open and to delegate more responsibility, but also be sure that the goals and objectives of the organization are maintained by a moderate degree of structure. Reinforcing positively the group's recent decrease in maturity may only increase the probability that this kind of behavior may continue in the future.

Alternative Actions

The leader would:

D. Incorporate group recommendations. but see that new standards are met.

Rationale: (+2) This action (HT/HR) best handles the recent decline in maturity of this normally responsible group. While communication channels are kept open, structure is maintained by seeing that new standards are met.

A. Allow group involvement in goal setting, but would not push.

Rationale: (+1) This action may become more appropriate as the group resumes its previous responsibility.

C. Avoid confrontation by not applying pressure.

Rationale: (—1) This "hands-off" action (LT/LR) will only increase the probability that this behavior will recur in the future.

B. Redefine standards and supervise carefully.

Rationale: (—2) This action (HT/LR) would be inappropriate because of the maturity level of the group. While some structure must be initiated, this action appears to be too drastic for a group usually able to take responsibility.

SITUATION NO. 11

The leader has been promoted to a new position. The previous administrator was uninvolved in the affairs of the group. The group has adequately handled its tasks and direction. Group inter-relations are good.

DIAGNOSIS: The previous administrator left the group alone. Members responded in a relatively mature manner with average output and good intervening variables. The new leader's best bet is to continue to let the group structure much of its own activities, but provide for some focus on improving what is now adequate output.

It is also necessary to open up communication channels to establish the position of the leader and gain rapport with this group. As trust and commitment are developed, movement toward leaving the group more on its own again becomes appropriate.

Alternative Actions

The leader would:

B. Involve subordinates in decision-making and reinforce good contributions.

Rationale: (+2) This action (HR/LT) best allows the group to derive its own solution to the problem but does not turn this responsibility over to members completely. While communication channels are kept open, some structure is provided by bringing the group together and focusing on increasing productivity.

D. Continue to leave the group alone.

Rationale: (+1) This "hands-off" action (LT/LR) may be inappropriate in working with this relatively mature group on a day-today basis. If, however, the leader wants to improve the group's handling of tasks and direction, some additional structure may be needed.

C. Discuss past performance with group and then examine the need for new practices.

Rationale: (—1) This action (HT/HR) might be appropriate if a significant problem develops in the handling of tasks and direction. At this point, there is no urgent problem with performance.

A. Take steps to direct subordinates toward working in a well-defined manner.

Rationale: (—2) This action (HT/LR) would be inappropriate as the group has demonstrated its ability in working in a well-defined manner. There is no significant problem, only a change in leadership.

SITUATION NO. 12

Recent information indicates some internal difficulties among subordinates. The group has a remarkable record of accomplishment. Members have effectively maintained long-range goals. They have worked in harmony for the past year. All are well qualified for the task.

DIAGNOSIS: The group is well above average in maturity, as can be seen from its record of accomplishment and ability to maintain long-term goals. The leader's best bet in the short run will be to let group members solve their own problem; however, if the difficulties continue or intensify, alternative leadership styles could be considered.

Alternative Actions

The leader would:

B. Allow group members to work it out themselves.

Rationale: (+2) This action (LT/LR) best allows the group to derive its own solution to the problem.

D. Be available for discussion, but be careful of hurting boss-subordinate relations.

Rationale: (+1) This action (HR/LT) would be more appropriate if the problem persists or intensifies since it involves interpersonal relationships.

A. Try out solution with subordinates and examine the need for new practices.

Rationale: (—1) This action (HT/HR) is not appropriate at this time since the group has the maturity to solve the problem.

C. Act quickly and firmly to correct and redirect.

Rationale: (—2) This action (HT/LR) would be too abrupt with such a mature group. The problem is one of interpersonal relationships, not direction and task accomplishment.

Concluding Remarks

The hope in this article was that you would gain some insight into your perception of how you behave as a leader and be able to integrate that perception into a situational leadership framework. It is worth re-emphasizing, though, that while it is useful for you to have insight about your leadership style, it is even more important that you know how consistent this perception is with how your behavior is perceived by others.

The closer and closer to reality a leader's perception is to the perception of others, i.e., subordinates, superior(s) and associates (peers) the higher the probability that the leader will be able to cope effectively with that reality. Thus, while LASI-self scores are interesting in themselves, combined with LASI-subordinate and LASI-other scores they become powerful data which can have a significant impact on the leader and the individual or group he or she is attempting to lead.

the Project Planning Situation

3rd Edition

AN EXPERIENCE IN TEAM PLANNING

Developed by

Human Synergistics

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ELM

The Situation
Your organization has just assigned you to a newly formed task team which is to take over a secret Project presently being handled by Research and Development. Your entire team has been assigned responsibility and authority to *first* design a plan for managing the Project and then, after top management has reviewed and accepted your plans, carry out the Project.

Your team has been deliberately formed of individuals with experience from a number of Divisions because it was felt a greater range of knowledge and skills were needed in order to arrive at the most effective plans. None of you have been told anything about the Project so far, other than it is expected to grow to sizeable proportions requiring additional people.

The Task
Despite the lack of information regarding the Project, your team must now design a preliminary plan for managing the Project. On the next page is a list of 20 Management Activities (A through T) arranged in random order. Your task is to rank order these activities according to the sequence you would follow in managing the Project. This sequence will be reviewed by top management before you are given the go-ahead to begin work on the Project.

Step 1:
Since you have a few minutes before your team meets for the first time, go over the list of activities on the next page; and, without discussing it with anyone, rank order the management activities according to the sequence you think should be followed in managing the Project. Start with "1," the first activity through "20," the last activity.

Step 2:
Now, as a team, agree to the sequence of activities that should be followed.

You will have until _____ o'clock to decide.

Management Activities	Step 1 Individual Ranking	Step 2 Team Ranking	Step 3 Planning Experts' Ranking	Step 4 Difference between Steps 1 and 3	Step 5 Difference between Steps 2 and 3
A. Find qualified people to fill positions					
B. Measure progress toward and/or deviation from the Project's goals					
C. Identify & analyze the various job tasks necessary to implement the Project					
D. Develop strategies (priorities, sequence, timing of major steps)					
E. Develop possible alternative courses of action					
F. Arrange appropriate consequences for individual performance					
G. Assign responsibility/accountability/authority					
H. Set Project objectives (Desired Results)					
I. Train & develop personnel for new responsibilities/authority					
J. Gather and analyze the facts of current Project situation					
K. Establish qualifications for new positions					
L. Take corrective action on Project (recycle Project plans)					
M. Coordinate on-going activities					
N. Determine the allocation of resources (including budget, facilities, etc.)					
O. Measure individual performance against performance objectives, standards					
P. Identify the negative consequences of each course of action					
Q. Develop individual performance objectives which are mutually agreeable to the individual & his/her manager					
R. Define scope of relationships, responsibilities & authority of new positions					
S. Decide on basic course of action					
T. Determine measurable checkpoints for the Project & variations expected					
			Totals (The lower the score the better)		
				Individual Score Step 4	Team Score Step 5

Please complete the following steps and insert the scores under your team's number	Team 1	Team 2	Team 3	Team 4	Team 5	Team 6
Step 6—Average Individual Score Add up all the individual scores (Step 4) on the team and divide by the number on the team.						
Step 7—Team Score (Step 5)						
Step 8—Gain Score The difference between the Team Score and the Average Individual Score. If the Team Score is lower than Average Individual Score then Gain is "+." If Team Score is higher than Average Individual Score then Gain is "−."						
Step 9—Lowest (Best) Score on the team						
Step 10 Number of individual scores lower than the team score						

Team Performance Data
figures based on 117 participants
(22 teams)

Step 6

Average Individual Score	59.6
On Winning Teams	59.5
On Losing Teams	72.3

Step 7

Average Team Score	40.5
Average Winning Team Score	28.5
Average Losing Team Score	63.5

Step 8

Average Gain Score	19.2
On Winning Teams	31.0
On Losing Teams	8.8

Step 9

Average Best Score On Team	37.5
On Winning Team	28.5
On Losing Team	53.5

Step 10

Percentage of Individuals Lower Than Team Score	17%
On Winning Teams	10%
On Losing Teams	38%
Percent of teams scoring better than the best individual on the team	31%

Suggested Readings

1. Barber, Larry L, *Listening Behavior*, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1971.
2. Drucker, Peter F., *The Practice of Management*, New York: Harper and Brothers, 1954.
3. Fayol, Henry, *General and Industrial Administration*, London: Sir Isaac Pitman and Sons, 1949.
4. Kepner, Charles H. and Benjamin Tregoe, *The Rational Manager*, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1965.
5. Koontz, Harold and Cyril O'Donnell, *Principles of Management*, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 5th Edition.
6. Maier, Norman R. F., *Principles of Human Relations*, New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1955.
7. Odiorne, George S., *Management by Objectives: A System of Managerial Leadership*, New York: Pitman, 1965.
8. Strauss, George and Leonard R. Sayles, *Personnel: The Human Problems of Management*, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1967.

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The Desert Survival Situation
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DON'T CHANGE INDIVIDUAL RANKINGS

GROUP DECISION INSTRUCTIONS

Consensus is a decision process for making full use of available resources and for resolving conflicts creatively. Consensus is difficult to reach, so not every ranking will meet with everyone's complete approval. Complete unanimity is not the goal -- it is rarely achieved. But each individual should be able to accept the group rankings on the basis of logic and feasibility. When all group members feel this way, you have reached consensus as defined here, and the judgment may be entered as a group decision. This means, in effect, that a single person can block the group if he thinks it necessary; at the same time, he should use this option in the best sense of reciprocity. Here are some guidelines to use in achieving consensus:

1. Avoid arguing for your own rankings. Present your position as lucidly and logically as possible, but listen to the other members' reactions and consider them carefully before you press your point.

2. Do not assume that someone must win and someone must lose when discussion reaches a stalemate. Instead, look for the next-most-acceptable alternative for all parties.

3. Do not change your mind simply to avoid conflict and to reach agreement and harmony. When agreement seems to come too quickly and easily, be suspicious. Explore the reasons and be sure everyone accepts the solution for basically similar or complementary reasons. Yield only to positions that have objective and logically sound foundations.

4. Avoid conflict-reducing techniques such as majority vote, averages, coin flips and bargaining. When a dissenting member finally agrees, don't feel that he must be rewarded by having his own way on some later point.

5. Differences of opinion are natural and expected. Seek them out and try to involve everyone in the decision process. Disagreements can help the group's decision because with a wide range of information and opinions, there is a greater chance that the group will hit upon more adequate solutions.

PROJECT PLANNING

D. STEP 3: SCORING THE DECISION

The Experts' Ranking and Rationale

This is a suggested ranking. The scoring is not the most important part of the problem. The essential purpose is to focus attention on planning, and to provide the participants with an opportunity to examine the planning process and experience sequencing the individual steps involved in this process. Therefore, there is no need to embrace the expert ranking as an absolute answer. This is an abstract ranking; a highly rational approach to a project about which nothing is known. The nature of the "real" project could, conceivably, alter the planning sequence. For this reason, we have included, with the suggested ranking, some acceptable alternative positions for the items, as indicated by the bracketed numbers.

It would be helpful to explain to the participants that their primary concern should be with the experiential value of the Problem. The scores may have some impact on the experience, but should not be viewed as the major part of its importance.

While the scores will vary, it is possible to expect that the individual and team rationales are reasonable or justifiable if the rational and interpersonal skills have been fully utilized. It can be predicted that key level managers will have lower scores (do better) on the Problem than mid level managers or supervisors. This is primarily because they have had more experience developing and using planning skills.

Planning.

1. Review and analyze the facts of the current project situation (J).

This is situation analysis. According to some experts, this is not strictly considered a part of the planning process.. However, all agree that a fact finding or awareness of the opportunity, situation, or problem is the important first step before any realistic planning can be undertaken.

2. Set project objectives (desired results) (H).

"The basic step in planning is to establish planning objectives for the entire project." "Objectives indicate what has to be done, where the primary emphasis is to be placed, and what is to be accomplished by the network of policies, procedures, rules, budgets, programs, and strategies."

The minimum results acceptable and the maximum results desired should be identified at this point in the procedure. It is important to not confuse activities in the project with the results expected from the project. All objectives should be written. They should be specific to the project, meaning within the scope of the project, its accountability, and the authority designated to the project and to the people working on the team. Objectives must be measurable. This includes a determination of the sources of information relating to measurability, from whom the information was received, and when it was obtained. They should specify what will be measured and when it will be measured (i.e., weekly, monthly). Objectives should be realistic and achieveable.

3. Develop possible alternative courses of action (E).

"The next step in planning is to search for and examine alternative courses of action, especially those not immediately apparent. There is seldom a plan for which reasonable alternatives do not exist and quite often, an alternative that is not obvious proves to be the best."

The advantages of each alternative should be explored and the benefits provided by each alternative identified in order to relate these to the minimum and maximum results desired.

4. Identify the negative consequences of each course of action (P).

Evaluating alternative courses is the next step in the planning process. One method of evaluation is to weigh the negative aspects of each alternative. For example, one alternative may appear to be the most profitable but requires a large cash outlay and slow pay back. Another is less profitable with smaller cash outlays, high dollar return but high risk. Still another would meet all minimum requirements financially, but would demand increased facilities and manpower. Because the number of alternative courses in many situations can be great, looking at and evaluating the negative variables, limitations, and their consequences can simplify an exceedingly complex situation.

A manager can also use a rating system for weighing alternatives. The adverse consequences of each possible alternative are listed. Each consequence can be rated, on a scale from one to five, for the likeliness of it occurring and the seriousness if it did occur. Multiplying the two ratings gives a score for each consequence and adding up these two scores gives a total for the alternative.

5. Decide on a basic course of action (S).

Deciding on a basic course of action is the point in the planning process where the plan is adopted. This step is based on rational analysis of the situation, the objectives of the project, and the positive and negative consequences of each alternative. The manager/supervisor must decide which alternative best accomplishes his basic objectives, and must resolve to follow the most beneficial course of action, rather than pursue all alternative courses at the same time.

Norman Maier has pointed out that effective decisions are the products of quality thinking, multiplied by the acceptance of the decision by the people who have to implement it.

$$\text{Effective Decisions} = \text{Quality Thinking} \times \text{Acceptance}$$

$$\text{E.D.} = Q \times A$$

6. Develop strategies (priorities, sequence, timing of major steps) (D).

After a decision has been made on a course of action, strategic plans must be developed to execute the proposed course of action. These plans would deal with the activities that follow, such as: the hiring and training of various types of personnel, the development of maintenance facilities, scheduling, advertising, financing, evaluating, etc. The strategic plans will serve as an outline for these activities.

7. Determine measurable checkpoints for the Project and variations expected (T).

[11] This step involves the setting of specific standards and objectives against which actual progress on the Project will be measured. These checkpoints should meet the same criteria as objectives described in item 2; written, specific, realistic, and measurable. Sources of information should be identified. The checkpoints should define what will be measured and when measurement will occur.

This step will also serve to double check the objectives and strategies set earlier, assuring their reliability and achieveability.

Organizing

8. Identify and analyze the various job tasks necessary to implement the Project (C).

[7] According to authors like Koontz and O'Donnell and Peter Drucker, only by rigorous activities analysis can managers find out what work has to be performed, what work belongs together, and how each activity should be emphasized in the

organization structure. Koontz and O'Donnell refer to this as the #4 step in their "Organizing Planning Process by Logic." Drucker refers to this as his activities analysis function in organizing (1st of 3 steps).

9. Define the scope of relationships, responsibilities, and authority of new positions (R).

[8] This step flows from the one preceding it, in that "assignments of the authority necessary to perform the activities are to be made to each grouping of positions, normally through its head." (Koontz & O'Donnell) Drucker defines this step as Decision Analysis, (2nd of 3 steps) or the determination of what kind of decisions are needed, where in the organization structure they should be made, and how each manager should be involved in them.

10. Establish qualifications of new positions (K).

[9] "The organization must be manned by hired or trained people. Obviously, the activity groupings and authority provisions of an organization structure must take into account people's limitations and customs - the kind of people who are to run it." This is similar to Drucker's relations analysis (3rd of 3 steps). This must be done in order to get people who can meet the project objectives.

11. Determine the allocation of resources (including budget, facilities, equipment, etc.) (N).

[10] This step depends on the prior steps. The information they will provide will make this activity realistic. Without that information, allocations would have to be adjusted repeatedly, or may be damaging to the Project. Allocations include budgeting for personnel and materials, space utilization, scheduling, etc.

Implementing

12. Find qualified people to fill new positions (A).

This is the way of bringing new personnel into the organization. "Logically, the first step in the development of a firm's personnel activity is to acquire the people to operate the organization. Not only is this first in theory, it is one of the most critical steps in the establishment and growth of a business. The supply of qualified people limits the success of a business just as sharply as does the supply of money, materials, or market."

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13. Train and develop personnel for new responsibilities/authority (I).

"Training complements selection." The efficiency of any organization depends directly on how well its members are trained. Newly hired employees almost always need some training before they can take up their work, while older employees require training to keep them alert to new demands of their present job, and to fit them for transfers and promotions.

14. Develop individual performance objectives which are mutually agreeable to the individual and his/her manager (Q).

Performance objectives can be used as a training and coaching device to help employees on all levels improve their performance. It is also useful later on in helping to make an evaluation of the overall effectiveness of all programs and for management development and selection.

These objectives should reflect the Project objectives. This step is strongly emphasized in the literature on participative management and management by objectives. The objectives should be measurable, rather than arbitrary.

When objectives are agreeable to both parties, "enforcement" will not be necessary. People will be able to monitor their own performance, and will be more willing to work hard to achieve these objectives, which they have helped set. The personal objectives should meet the specifications described in Step 2. They should cover routine duties, problems, and innovative performance, as described by Odiorne. The value of meeting these extensive requirements for personal objectives has been well-demonstrated by David C. McClelland, M. Scott Myers, and George Odiorne.

15. Assigning responsibility/accountability/authority (G).

Once objectives are agreed to, it is essential that subordinates have the necessary authority to carry out their part. In applying the principles of delegation and participative management, the manager spreads his/her authority, responsibility, and accountability to subordinates, decentralizing the authority. Delegation is actually a form of job enlargement, giving each subordinate a sense of being his own boss and exercising control over his own work environment. Thus, delegated authority provides internalized motivation. The work of Scott Myers and Richard Walton strongly support this activity.

16. Coordinate on-going activities (M).

Direction concerns all managers. Its purpose is to help subordinates to integrate their efforts in the interest of Project objectives. Getting employees to accomplish their tasks is the bridge between Planning, Organizing, and Staffing. This activity includes managing differences dealing with conflict and performance coaching, in which problems are identified and potential problems anticipated.

Controlling

17. Measure progress towards and/or deviation from the Project goals (B).

Control of a Project consists of verifying whether everything occurs in conformity with the plans and policies adopted, and most important, determining that the performance objectives are met (Henry Fayol). Control basically implies measurement of accomplishment against standards. Control is understandably closely related to planning. Once a plan becomes operational, control is necessary to measure progress. If the progress is not measured, there would be no point in setting up checkpoints (step 7).

18. Measure individual performance against performance objectives and standards (O).

Control of individual performance is similar to #17. However, if standards and objectives are appropriately drawn and specified, and if means are available for determining exactly what subordinates are doing, appraisal of actual or expected performance is fairly easy and in many instances, can be done by individuals on their own performance.

This measurement should be done regularly, at predetermined intervals. An evaluation interview, or similar meeting between boss and subordinate, should be used to discuss performance, what objectives have or have not been met, and what obstacles or problems have arisen to interfere with effective performance.

19. Take corrective action on Project (recycle Project Plans) (L).

Correction of deviations from standards and plans can prevent failure of the Project when unforeseen problems occur. Ignoring this step can create more problems for an otherwise excellent plan for and progress on the Project. "Correction of deviations in performance is the point at which control coalesces with the other managerial functions.

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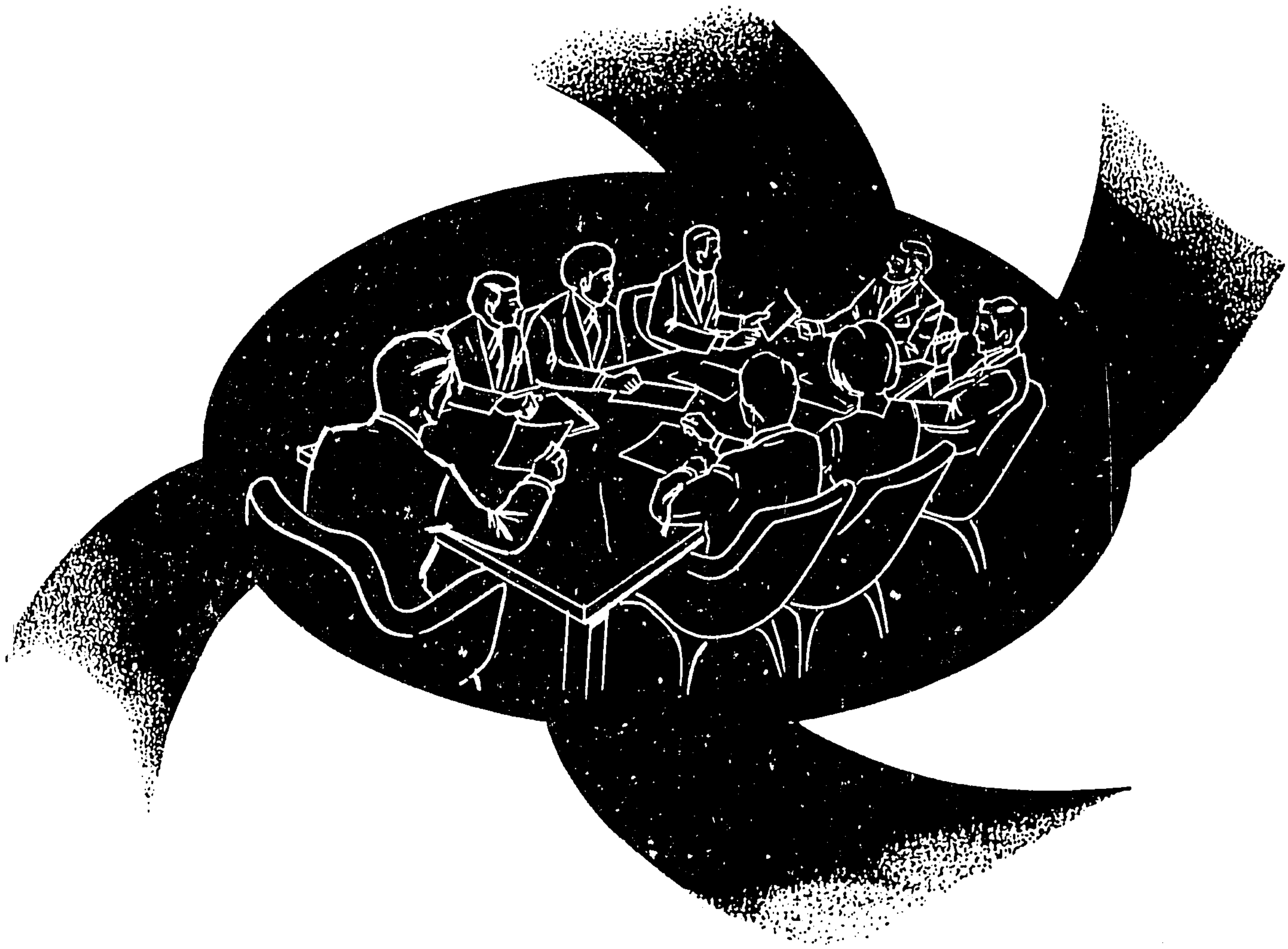
The manager may correct by redrawing his plans or by modifying his goal, or he may correct by reassignment or clarification of duties, additional staffing, better selection and training, etc."

20. <u>Arrange appropriate consequences for individual performance (F)</u>.

This step uses the same principles as #19, applied to individual performance. Recognition of good job performance is desired by many people, and is very effective in encouraging continued good performance. By acknowledging individual performance problems, corrections can be made and new skills acquired through self-development or revised training. Myers has studied the necessity of this step (Conditions for Manager Motivation, Who Are Your Motivated Workers) and the principles of reinforcement theory (Skinner) report a high level of effectiveness in maintaining or correcting performance by arranging appropriate consequences. The appropriate consequences should include corrections for skill deficiencies, individual motivational problems, and organizational or environmental obstacles, as well as providing recognition and reward.

THOMAS-KILMANN CONFLICT MODE INSTRUMENT



XICOM INCORPORATED

By

Kenneth W. Thomas
Ralph H. Kilmann

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INSTRUCTIONS

Consider situations in which you find your wishes differing from those of another person. How do you usually respond to such situations?

On the following pages are several pairs of statements describing possible behavioral responses. For each pair, please circle the "A" or "B" statement which is most characteristic of your own behavior.

In many cases, neither the "A" nor the "B" statement may be very typical of your behavior; but please select the response which you would be more likely to use.

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THOMAS-KILMANN
CONFLICT MODE INSTRUMENT

1. A. There are times when I let others take responsibility for solving the problem.

   B. Rather than negotiate the things on which we disagree, I try to stress those things upon which we both agree.

2. A. I try to find a compromise solution.

   B. I attempt to deal with all of his/her and my concerns.

3. A. I am usually firm in pursuing my goals.

   B. I might try to soothe the other's feelings and preserve our relationship.

4. A. I try to find a compromise solution.

   B. I sometimes sacrifice my own wishes for the wishes of the other person.

5. A. I consistently seek the other's help in working out a solution.

   B. I try to do what is necessary to avoid useless tensions.

6. A. I try to avoid creating unpleasantness for myself.

   B. I try to win my position.

7. A. I try to postpone the issue until I have had some time to think it over.

   B. I give up some points in exchange for others.

8. A. I am usually firm in pursuing my goals.

   B. I attempt to get all concerns and issues immediately out in the open.

THOMAS-KILMANN
CONFLICT MODE INSTRUMENT

9. A. I feel that differences are not always worth worrying about.

   B. I make some effort to get my way.

10. A. I am firm in pursuing my goals.

    B. I try to find a compromise solution.

11. A. I attempt to get all concerns and issues immediately out in the open.

    B. I might try to soothe the other's feelings and preserve our relationship.

12. A. I sometimes avoid taking positions which would create controversy.

    B. I will let the other person have some of his/her positions if he/she lets me have some of mine.

13. A. I propose a middle-ground

    B. I press to get my points made.

14. A. I tell the other person my ideas and ask for his/hers.

    B. I try to show the other person the logic and benefits of my position.

15. A. I might try to soothe the other's feelings and preserve our relationship.

    B. I try to do what is necessary to avoid tensions.

16. A. I try not to hurt the other's feelings.

    B. I try to convince the other person of the merits of my position.

THOMAS-KILMANN
CONFLICT MODE INSTRUMENT

17. A. I am usually firm in pursuing my goals.

    B. I try to do what is necessary to avoid useless tensions.

18. A. If it makes other people happy, I might let them maintain their views.

    B. I will let other people have some of their positions if they let me have some of mine.

19. A. I attempt to get all concerns and issues immediately out in the open.

    B. I try to postpone the issue until I have had some time to think it over.

20. A. I attempt to immediately work through our differences.

    B. I try to find a fair combination of gains and losses for both of us.

21. A. In approaching negotiations, I try to be considerate of the other person's wishes.

    B. I always lean toward a direct discussion of the problem.

22. A. I try to find a position that is intermediate between his/hers and mine.

    B. I assert my wishes.

23. A. I am very often concerned with satisfying all our wishes.

    B. There are times when I let others take responsibility for solving the problem.

THOMAS-KILMANN
CONFLICT MODE INSTRUMENT

24. A. If the other's position seems very important to him/her, I would try to meet his/her wishes.

    B. I try to get the other person to settle for a compromise.

25. A. I try to show the other person the logic and benefits of my position.

    B. In approaching negotiations, I try to be considerate of the other person's wishes.

26. A. I propose a middle ground.

    B. I am nearly always concerned with satisfying all our wishes.

27. A. I sometimes avoid taking positions that would create controversy.

    B. If it makes other people happy, I might let them maintain their views.

28. A. I am usually firm in pursuing my goals.

    B. I usually seek the other's help in working out a solution.

29. A. I propose a middle ground.

    B. I feel that differences are not always worth worrying about.

30. A. I try not to hurt the other's feelings.

    B. I always share the problem with the other person so that we can work it out.

Scoring and Interpreting the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument

SCORING THE THOMAS-KILMANN CONFLICT MODE INSTRUMENT

Circle the letters below which you circled on each item of the questionnaire.

	Competing (forcing)	Collaborating (problem solving)	Compromising (sharing)	Avoiding (withdrawal)	Accommodating (smoothing)
1.				A	B
2.		B	A		
3.	A				B
4.			A		B
5.		A		B	
6.	B			A	
7.			B	A	
8.	A	B			
9.	B			A	
10.	A		B		
11.		A			B
12.			B	A	
13.	B		A		
14.	B	A			
15.				B	A
16.	B				A
17.	A			B	
18.			B		A
19.		A		B	
20.		A	B		
21.		B			A
22.	B		A		
23.		A		B	
24.			B		A
25.	A				B
26.		B	A		
27.				A	B
28.	A	B			
29.			A	B	
30.		B			A

Total number of items circled in each column:

______	______	______	______	______
Competing	Collaborating	Compromising	Avoiding	Accommodating

GRAPHING YOUR PROFILE SCORES

Your profile of scores indicates the repertoire of conflict-handling skills which you, as an individual, use in the kinds of conflict situations you face. Your score profile can be graphed on the next page entitled, "Your Scores on the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument."

The five modes are represented by the five columns labeled "competing," "collaborating," and so on. In the column under each model is the range of possible scores on that mode—from 0 (for very low use) to 12 (for very high use). Circle your own scores on each of the five modes.

Each possible score is graphed in relation to the scores of managers who have already taken the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument. The horizontal lines represent percentiles—the percentage of people who have scored at or below a given number. If you had scored some number above the "80%" line on competing, for example, that would mean that you had scored higher than 80% of the people who have taken the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument—that you were in the top 20% on competition.

The double lines (at the 25th and 75th percentiles) separate the middle 50% of the scores on each mode from the top 25% and the bottom 25%. In general, if your score falls somewhere within the middle 50% on a given mode, you are close to the average in your use of that mode. If your score falls outside that range, then your use of that mode is somewhat higher or lower than most of the people who have taken the Instrument. Remember that extreme scores are not necessarily bad, however, since your situation may require high or low use of a given conflict-handling mode.

YOUR SCORES ON THE THOMAS-KILMANN CONFLICT MODE INSTRUMENT

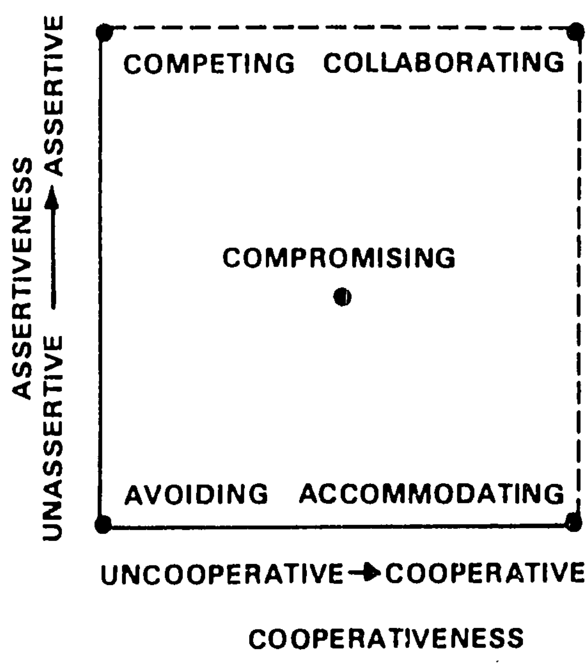
		Competing	Collab-orating	Compro-mising	Avoid-ing	Accom-modating
	100%					
		12 11 10	12 11	12 11 10	12 11 10 9	12 11 10 9 8
	90%					
High 25%		9 8	10	9	8	7
	80%					
			9			6
				8		
	70%	7				
					7	
	60%					
Middle 50%		6	8	7	6	5
	50%					
		5	7			
	40%					
		4		6	5	4
	30%					
			6	5		3
Low 25%		3			4	
	20%					
		2	5	4	3	
	10%					
		1 0	4 3 2 1 0	3 2 1 0	2 1 0	2 1 0
	0%					

***Scores are graphed in relation to the scores of 339 practicing managers at middle and upper levels in business and government organizations.**

INTERPRETING YOUR SCORES ON THE THOMAS-KILMANN CONFLICT MODE INSTRUMENT*

The Five Conflict Handling Modes

The Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument is designed to assess an individual's behavior in conflict situations. "Conflict Situations" are situations in which the concerns of two people appear to be incompatible. In such situations, we can describe a person's behavior along two basic dimensions: (1) assertiveness, the extent to which the individual attempts to satisfy his own concerns, and (2) cooperativeness, the extent to which the individual attempts to satisfy the other person's concerns. These two basic dimensions of behavior can be used to define five specific methods of dealing with conflicts. These five "conflict-handling modes" are shown below:



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*This two dimensional model of conflict handling behavior is adapted from "Conflict and Conflict Management" by Kenneth Thomas in *The Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, edited by Marvin Dunnette (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1976). Another valuable contribution in this field is the work by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton in *The Managerial Grid* (Houston: Gulf Publishing, 1964).

Competing is assertive and uncooperative—an individual pursues his own concerns at the other person's expense. This is a power-oriented mode, in which one uses whatever power seems appropriate to win one's own position—one's ability to argue, one's rank, economic sanctions. Competing might mean "standing up for your rights," defending a position which you believe is correct, or simply trying to win.

Accommodating is unassertive and cooperative—the opposite of competing. When accommodating, an individual neglects his own concerns to satisfy the concerns of the other person; there is an element of self-sacrifice in this mode. Accommodating might take the form of selfless generosity or charity, obeying another person's order when one would prefer not to, or yielding to another's point of view.

Avoiding is unassertive and uncooperative—the individual does not immediately pursue his own concerns or those of the other person. He does not address the conflict. Avoiding might take the form of diplomatically sidestepping an issue, postponing an issue until a better time, or simply withdrawing from a threatening situation.

Collaborating is both assertive and cooperative—the opposite of avoiding. Collaborating involves an attempt to work with the other person to find some solution which fully satisfies the concerns of both persons. It means digging into an issue to identify the underlying concerns of the two individuals and to find an alternative which meets both sets of concerns. Collaborating between two persons might take the form of exploring a disagreement to learn from each other's insights, concluding to resolve some condition which would otherwise have them competing for resources, or confronting and trying to find a creative solution to an interpersonal problem.

Compromising is intermediate in both assertiveness and cooperativeness. The objective is to find some expedient, mutually acceptable solution which partially satisfies both parties. It falls on a middle ground between competing and accommodating. Compromising gives up more than competing but less than accommodating. Likewise, it addresses an issue more directly than avoiding, but doesn't explore it in as much depth as collaborating. Compromising might mean splitting the difference, exchanging concessions, or seeking a quick middle-ground position.

Interpreting Your Scores

Usually, after getting back the results of any test, people first want to know: "What are the right answers?" In the case of conflict-handling behavior, there are no universal right answers. All five modes are useful in some situations: each represents a set of useful social skills. Our conventional wisdom recognizes, for example, that often "two heads are better than one" (Collaborating). But it also says, "Kill your enemies with kindness" (Accommodating), "Split the difference" (Compromising), "Leave well enough alone" (Avoiding), "Might makes right" (Competing). The effectiveness of a given conflict-handling mode depends upon the requirements of the specific conflict situation and the skill with which the mode is used.

Each of us is capable of using all five conflict-handling modes: none of us can be characterized as having a single, rigid style of dealing with conflict. However, any given individual uses some modes better than others and therefore, tends to rely upon those modes more heavily than others, whether because of temperament or practice.

The conflict behaviors which an individual uses are therefore a result of both his/her personal predispositions and the requirements of the situations in which he finds himself. The Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument is designed to assess this mix of conflict-handling modes.

To help you judge how appropriate your utilization of the five modes is for your situation, we have listed a number of uses for each mode—based upon lists generated by company presidents. Your score, high or low, indicates its usefulness in your situation. However, there is the possibility that your social skills lead you to rely upon some conflict behaviors more or less than necessary. To help you determine this, we have also listed some diagnostic questions concerning warning signals for the overuse or underuse of each mode.

A. Competing

Uses:

1. When quick, decisive action is vital—e.g., emergencies.

2. On important issues where unpopular courses of action need implementing—e.g., cost cutting, enforcing unpopular rules, discipline.

3. On issues vital to company welfare when you know you're right.

4. To protect yourself against people who take advantage of noncompetitive behavior.

If you scored High:

1. Are you surrounded by "yes" men?
(If so, perhaps it's because they have learned that it's unwise to disagree with you, or have given up trying to influence you. This closes you off from information.)

2. Are subordinates afraid to admit ignorance and uncertainties to you? (In competitive climates, one must fight for influence and respect—which means acting more certain and confident than one feels. The upshot is that people are less able to ask for information and opinion—they are less able to learn.)

If you scored Low:

1. Do you often feel powerless in situations?
(It may be because you are unaware of the power you do have, unskilled in its use, or uncomfortable with the idea of using it. This may hinder your effectiveness by restricting your influence.)

2. Do you have trouble taking a firm stand, even when you see the need? (Sometimes concerns for others' feelings or anxieties about the use of power cause us to vacillate, which may mean postponing the decision and adding to the suffering and/or resentment of others.)

B. Collaborating

Uses:

1. To find an integrative solution when both sets of concerns are too important to be compromised.

2. When your objective is to learn—e.g., testing your own assumptions, understanding the views of others.

3. To merge insights from people with different perspectives on a problem.

4. To gain commitment by incorporating other's concerns into a consensual decision.

5. To work through hard feelings which have been interfering with an interpersonal relationship.

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If you scored High:

1. Do you spend time discussing issues in depth that do not seem to deserve it?
   (Collaboration takes time and energy—perhaps the scarcest organizational resources. Trivial problems don't require optimal solutions, and not all personal differences need to be hashed out. The overuse of collaboration and consensual decision making sometimes represents a desire to minimize risk—by diffusing responsibility for a decision or by postponing action.)

2. Does your collaborative behavior fail to elicit collaborative responses from others?
   (The exploratory and tentative nature of some collaborative behavior may make it easy for others to disregard collaborative overtures; or the trust and openness may be taken advantage of. You may be missing some cues which would indicate the presence of defensiveness, strong feelings, impatience, competitiveness, or conflicting interests.)

If you scored Low:

1. Is it hard for you to see differences as opportunities for joint gain—as opportunities to learn or solve problems?
   (Although there are often threatening or unproductive aspects of conflict, indiscriminate pessimism can prevent you from seeing collaborative possibilities and thus deprive you of the mutual gains and satisfactions which accompany successful collaboration.)

2. Are subordinates uncommitted to your decisions or policies?
   (Perhaps their own concerns are not being incorporated into those decisions or policies.)

C. Compromising

Uses:

1. When goals are moderately important, but not worth the effort or potential disruption of more assertive modes.

2. When two opponents with equal power are strongly committed to mutually exclusive goals—are in labor-management bargaining.

3. To achieve temporary settlements to complex issues.

4. To arrive at expedient solutions under time pressure.

5. As a backup mode when collaboration or competition fails to be successful.

If you scored High:

1. Do you concentrate so heavily upon the practicalities and tactics of compromise that you sometimes lose sight of larger issues—principles, values, long-term objectives, company welfare?

2. Does an emphasis on bargaining and trading create a cynical climate of gamesmanship?
(Such a climate might undermine interpersonal trust and deflect attention away from the *merits* of the issues discussed.)

If you scored Low:

1. Do you find yourself too sensitive or embarrassed to be effective in bargaining situations?

2. Do you find it hard to make concessions?
(Without this safety valve, you may have trouble getting gracefully out of mutually destructive arguments, power struggles, etc.)

D. Avoiding

Uses:

1. When an issue is trivial, of only passing importance, or when other more important issues are pressing.

2. When you perceive no chance of satisfying your concerns—e.g., when you have low power or you are frustrated by something which would be very difficult to change (national policies, someone's personality structure, etc.)

3. When the potential damage of confronting a conflict outweighs the benefits of its resolution.

4. To let people cool down—to reduce tensions to a productive level and to regain perspective and composure.

5. When gathering more information outweighs the advantages of an immediate decision.

6. When others can resolve the conflict more effectively.

7. When the issue seems tangential or symptomatic of another more basic issue.

If you scored High:

1. Does your coordination suffer because people have trouble getting your inputs on issues?

2. Does it often appear that people are "walking on eggshells?" (Sometimes a dysfunctional amount of energy can be devoted to caution and the avoiding of issues, indicating that issues need to be faced and resolved.)

3. Are decisions on important issues made by default?

If you scored Low:

1. Do you find yourself hurting peoples' feelings or stirring up hostilities?
(You may need to exercise more discretion in confronting issues or more tact in framing issues in nonthreatening ways. Tact is partially the art of avoiding potentially disruptive aspects of an issue.)

2. Do you often feel harried or overwhelmed by a number of issues? (You may need to devote more time to setting priorities—deciding which issues are relatively unimportant and perhaps delegating them to others.)

E. Accommodating

Uses:

1. When you realize that you are wrong—to allow a better position to be heard, to learn from others, and to show that you are reasonable.

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2. When the issue is much more important to the other person than to yourself—to satisfy the needs of others, and as a goodwill gesture to help maintain a cooperative relationship.

3. To build up social credits for later issues which are important to you.

4. When continued competition would only damage your cause—when you are outmatched and losing.

5. When preserving harmony and avoiding disruption are especially important.

6. To aid in the managerial development of subordinates by allowing them to experiment and learn from their own mistakes.

If you scored High:

1. Do you feel that your own ideas and concerns are not getting the attention they deserve?
(Deferring too much to the concerns of others can deprive you of influence, respect, and recognition. It also deprives the organization of your potential contributions.)

2. Is discipline lax?
(Although discipline for its own sake may be of little value, there are often rules, procedures, and assignments whose implementation is crucial for you or the organization.)

If you scored Low:

1. Do you have trouble building goodwill with others?
(Accommodation on minor issues which are important to others are gestures of goodwill.)

2. Do others often seem to regard you as unreasonable?

3. Do you have trouble admitting it when you are wrong?

4. Do you recognize legitimate exceptions to rules?

5. Do you know when to give up?

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CONFLICT STYLES WORK SHEET

Instructions: Your task is to rank the five alternative courses of action under each of the four cases below, from the most desirable or appropriate way of dealing with the conflict situation to the least desirable. Rank the *most* desirable course of action "1," the next most desirable "2," and so on, ranking the *least* desirable or least appropriate action "5." Enter your rank for each item in the space next to each choice.

Case One

Pete is lead operator of a production molding machine. Recently he has noticed that one of the men from another machine has been coming over to his machine and talking to one of his men (*not* on break time). The efficiency of Pete's operator seems to be falling off, and there have been some rejects due to his inattention. Pete thinks he detects some resentment among the rest of the crew. *If you were Pete, you would:*

______ A. Talk to your man and tell him to limit his conversations during on-the-job time.

______ B. Ask the foreman to tell the lead operator of the other machine to keep his operators in line.

______ C. Confront both men the next time you see them together (as well as the other lead operator, if necessary), find out what they are up to, and tell them what you expect of your operators.

______ D. Say nothing now; it would be silly to make something big out of something so insignificant.

______ E. Try to put the rest of the crew at ease; it is important that they all work well together.

Case Two

Sally is the senior quality-control (Q-C) inspector and has been appointed group leader of the Q-C people on her crew. On separate occasions, two of her people have come to her with different suggestions for reporting test results to the machine operators. Paul wants to send the test results to the foreman and then to the machine, since the foreman is the person ultimately responsible for production output. Jim thinks the results should go directly to the lead operator on the machine in question, since he is the one who must take corrective action as soon as possible. Both ideas seem good, and Sally can find no iron-clad procedures in the department on how to route the reports. *If you were Sally, you would:*

______ A. Decide who is right and ask the other person to go along with the decision (perhaps establish it as a written procedure).

______ B. Wait and see; the best solution will become apparent.

______ C. Tell both Paul and Jim not to get uptight about their disagreement; it is not that important.

______ D. Get Paul and Jim together and examine both of their ideas closely.

______ E. Send the report to the foreman, with a copy to the lead operator (even though it might mean a little more copy work for Q-C)..

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Case Three

Ralph is a module leader; his module consists of four very complex and expensive machines and five crewmen. The work is exacting, and inattention or improper procedures could cause a costly mistake or serious injury. Ralph suspects that one of his men is taking drugs on the job or at least is showing up for work under the influence of drugs. Ralph feels that he has some strong indications, but he knows he does not have a "case." *If you were Ralph, you would:*

______ A. Confront the man outright, tell him what you suspect and why and that you are concerned for him and for the safety of the rest of the crew.

______ B. Ask that the suspected offender keep his habit off the job; what he does *on* the job *is* part of your business.

______ C. Not confront the individual right now; it might either "turn him off" or drive him underground.

______ D. Give the man the "facts of life"; tell him it is illegal and unsafe and that if he gets caught, you will do everything you can to see that the man is fired.

______ E. Keep a close eye on the man to see that he is not endangering others.

Case Four

Gene is a foreman of a production crew. From time to time in the past, the Product Development section has "tapped" the production crews for operators to augment their own operator personnel to run test products ~~on special~~ machines. This has put very little strain on the production crews, since the demands have been small, temporary, and infrequent. Lately, however, there seems to have been an almost constant demand for four production operators. The rest of the production crew must fill in for these missing people, usually by working harder and taking shorter breaks. *If you were Gene, you would:*

______ A. Let it go for now; the "crisis" will probably be over soon.

______ B. Try to smooth things over with your own crew and with the development foreman; we all have jobs to do and cannot afford a conflict.

______ C. Let development have two of the four operators they requested.

______ D. Go to the development supervisor or his foreman and talk about how these demands for additional operators could best be met without placing production in a bind.

______ E. Go to the supervisor of production (Gene's boss) and get him to "call off" the development people.

Handout

Active Listening

Directions: The statements below were made by Employees. Select the Supervisor's response that represents Active Listening most accurately. Rather than offering advice or opinion, the Active Listening response best portrays how the Employee is feeling as well as why the Employee feels that way.

Mark your selection of the most representative Active Listening response with a check mark.

Employee / **Supervisor's Active Listening Response**

1. You give me all the hard jobs. The rest of the people here get the easy ones.

___ **A.** Do you have any evidence for that?

___ **B.** I gave you that easy job just yesterday. Did you forget that?

___ **C.** You feel like I'm picking on you and that I'm unfair about the way I assign work.

___ **D.** Analyze the work schedule and you'll see that the hard and easy jobs are equally assigned.

2. I really like this type of work. I sometimes forget to go home. The money's OK and the environment is what really turns me on.

___ **A.** I like to see that kind of attitude here.

___ **B.** I can understand that because that's how I feel about my job.

___ **C.** Would you like to do more of this type of work?

___ **D.** The work you're doing really excites and stimulates you. I know that feeling well.

3. I've been with the company for 4 years. I really thought I'd get somewhere and here I am in the same old job.

___ **A.** You sound disappointed in your career progress. Improving your job and getting ahead are important to you. You're disappointed in your progress.

___ **B.** Don't complain. You've got it pretty good considering. Be patient and soon it will be your turn to advance.

___ **C.** We need to discuss those areas where you can be in a better position to be promoted.

___ **D.** Maybe it's because you haven't worked hard when it really counted.

4. Everyone is number one here. First I try to satisfy Mr. Jones' request and then Mrs. Green asks me to do something. Sometimes even Mr. Smith gives me assignments. I just can't keep all of them happy. Most of the time I don't know what I should be doing.

___ **A.** Take it a step at a time and before you know it everything will be getting done.

___ **B.** Now try not to get so upset. After all, you're doing an excellent job.

___ C. All these people coming at you at one time makes you feel like you're being pulled in all directions. It's really getting you down.

___ D. I didn't know Mr. Smith was giving you assignments. Let me find out what's going on and I'll get back to you.

5. I thought I could count on you at our last staff meeting. You didn't say a thing. I was counting on you to support my plan. You just sat there.

___ A. I thought there were some pretty good reasons for my keeping quiet at that meeting.

___ B. You're put out and disgusted with the way I conducted myself at the meeting.

___ C. You weren't listening, Mary. I spoke up and shared information two or three times at that meeting.

___ D. I was waiting for you to call on me.

6. Did you see the bulletin board? Our company just pinned up a letter congratulating our group at meeting all of this year's goals.

___ A. I know. It's a great feeling to get someone at the top to recognize all of our hard work.

___ B. I saw it, too. Don't let it go to your head. We can't slack off.

___ C. Really? I'd better go read it.

___ D. What did the letter say specifically?

7. This is really boring stuff. Any 6-year-old can do this kind of thing. I'm sick and tired of doing the same thing every day.

___ A. Complaining won't help. It can't get better that way.

___ B. Why don't you submit some ideas on how to make the job more interesting?

___ C. I always thought you liked your job.

___ D. The repetitive work is boring. You feel unimportant and like you're not using your skills.

8. What's the difference? You solve one problem and before you know it, another one comes up.

___ A. No use getting upset about it. It's just part of your job.

___ B. I'm sorry you feel that way.

___ C. I need some examples in particular. I need to know what you're referring to.

___ D. It's discouraging and downright frustrating to encounter one problem after another.

CONFLICT STYLES WORK SHEET

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______ A. Talk to your man and tell him to limit his conversations during on-the-job time.

______ B. Ask the foreman to tell the lead operator of the other machine to keep his operators in line.

______ C. Confront both men the next time you see them together (as well as the other lead operator, if necessary), find out what they are up to, and tell them what you expect of your operators.

______ D. Say nothing now; it would be silly to make something big out of something so insignificant.

______ E. Try to put the rest of the crew at ease; it is important that they all work well together.

Case Two

Sally is the senior quality-control (Q-C) inspector and has been appointed group leader of the Q-C people on her crew. On separate occasions, two of her people have come to her with different suggestions for reporting test results to the machine operators. Paul wants to send the test results to the foreman and then to the machine, since the foreman is the person ultimately responsible for production output. Jim thinks the results should go directly to the lead operator on the machine in question, since he is the one who must take corrective action as soon as possible. Both ideas seem good, and Sally can find no iron-clad procedures in the department on how to route the reports. *If you were Sally, you would:*

______ A. Decide who is right and ask the other person to go along with the decision (perhaps establish it as a written procedure).

______ B. Wait and see; the best solution will become apparent.

______ C. Tell both Paul and Jim not to get uptight about their disagreement; it is not that important.

______ D. Get Paul and Jim together and examine both of their ideas closely.

______ E. Send the report to the foreman, with a copy to the lead operator (even though it might mean a little more copy work for Q-C)..

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Ralph is a module leader; his module consists of four very complex and expensive machines and five crewmen. The work is exacting, and inattention or improper procedures could cause a costly mistake or serious injury. Ralph suspects that one of his men is taking drugs on the job or at least is showing up for work under the influence of drugs. Ralph feels that he has some strong indications, but he knows he does not have a "case." *If you were Ralph, you would:*

_____ A. Confront the man outright, tell him what you suspect and why and that you are concerned for him and for the safety of the rest of the crew.

_____ B. Ask that the suspected offender keep his habit off the job; what he does *on* the job *is* part of your business.

_____ C. Not confront the individual right now; it might either "turn him off" or drive him underground.

_____ D. Give the man the "facts of life"; tell him it is illegal and unsafe and that if he gets caught, you will do everything you can to see that the man is fired.

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Gene is a foreman of a production crew. From time to time in the past, the Product Development section has "tapped" the production crews for operators to augment their own operator personnel to run test products ~~on special~~ machines. This has put very little strain on the production crews, since the demands have been small, temporary, and infrequent. Lately, however, there seems to have been an almost constant demand for four production operators. The rest of the production crew must fill in for these missing people, usually by working harder and taking shorter breaks. *If you were Gene, you would:*

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_____ D. Go to the development supervisor or his foreman and talk about how these demands for additional operators could best be met without placing production in a bind.

_____ E. Go to the supervisor of production (Gene's boss) and get him to "call off" the development people.

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