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The Design, Implementation And Evaluation Of An Experiential Leadership Training Program For Continuing Education Women Students

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B. A. University of Pittsburgh, 1975

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The Design, Implementation and Evaluation
of an Experiential Leadership Training Program
for Continuing Education Women Students

Earnest James Whitley, Ph.D.

University of Pittsburgh, 1982

The purpose of this study was to design, implement and evaluate an Experiential Leadership Training Program for Continuing Education Women Students.

The study was conducted at a large urban university. The participants were continuing education women students who elected to take a three credit course given in the Spring Session of 1981 academic year. The course met once a week; each session was three and a half hours for seven weeks. Twenty-three Continuing Education Women Students, one facilitator, and one female independent observer participated in the program.

Data collection techniques used in this study were: (a) Pretesting and posttesting participants before and after the leadership training program, using the Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD) Inventory; (b) Clinical Notes from Independent Observer, which were used to provide feedback on the procedures of the study during the developing stages of the program; (c) Group Reaction Forms which were used to provide any feedback from participants in relation to the elements and processes of each workshop; and (d) Personal Journal entries from each workshop which included information pertaining to each individual's thoughts and

reflections as they related to Satisfaction of Training and Personal Change development.

The author used the following to analyze the data: Crosstabulation, Frequency Distribution, Gain Scores for the Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD) Inventory, and Content Analysis for Clinical Notes, Group Reaction Form, and Personal Journal. The study can be replicated with minor design and implementation revisions.

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This dissertation is dedicated to my mother, Dorothy Whitley; my father, Tommie L. Whitley; Dr. Norman R. Dixon (1925-1978); and my lifelong friend, Rufus Wilson.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

Leadership training programs may take any of several forms, but such training always implies the need for some change in the attitudes or behavior of the trainee. The programs are designed to bring about a change in the knowledge, attitude, skills, or performance of trainees, and may also be used to change entire organizational units. For the trainee, the change is usually intended to:
(1) improve performance in present leadership position,
(2) improve interpersonal communication skills and ability to utilize these skills in attempting to influence others, and (3) aid in preparing leaders for responsibility of achieving organizational, personal, and group goals.

Stogdill (1948), Seeman (1953), Halpin (1959), Fiedler (1964), and Reddin (1968) are among those social scientists that have paid considerable attention to developing theories and methods of leadership training. Their approach to the study of leadership training can be divided into two categories: (1) individual-centered research, sometimes called the trait approach; and (2) group-centered research, frequently referred to as the situational approach. The first category emphasize personal traits of the individual, while the second approach takes into account the leaders' behavior and characteristics of situation in which leader is functioning at the time.

There has been much literature published that describes research; and present results that defines the purpose, design, and accomplishments of various leadership training programs. These training programs can generally be viewed as means of changing a leader's personality so that there will be an improvement in interpersonal relations and also teaching technical skills to assist in mastery of job functions, Fiedler (1964).

Leadership training programs are widely used throughout the field of business, management, and education. Many of these training programs are instituted by these institutions themselves. One reason for this procedure is pointed out by Hersey and Blanchard (1973). They state:

> On all sides there is an almost frenzied search for persons who have the necessary ability to enable them to lead effectively. This shortage of effective leadership is not confined to business; but is evident in the lack of able administrators in government, education, foundations, churches, and every other form of organization. What we are agonizing over is a scarcity of people who are willing to assume significant leadership roles in our society and can get the job done effectively (p. 59).

McClelland (1965), Guetzkow, et. al. (1962), and Bunker (1965) are among the social scientists who have validated the success of leadership training programs in changing behavior. Specifically, some of their research and results indicate that leadership training programs have: (1) increased the managerial motivations required in hierarchical organizations, (2) resulted in changing bureaucratic decision-making behaviors of government officials, and (3) improved the social skills of leaders in relations with employees (House, 1968).

Evaluation of outcomes of leadership training programs is the most difficult task within the program development process. Harrison (1971) identifies the major problems as specification of criterion, selection of empirical/non-empirical instruments for data collection, and development of appropriate evaluation design. In this regard, Springthall (1970) suggests that an exploratory field investigation method be used where the researcher uses his/her most powerful tool for observing and questioning. Bunnette and Campbell (1968) suggest another approach that could be considered; individual perceptions are at the end of the continuum, and broad organizational changes are at the other end. Criteria would involve: (1) integrated research design; (2) before and after measures; (3) measures administered to subjects after program to measure on-the-job activities; and (4) formal and informal observation, questionnaire administration, and interviews during and after the program.

The difficulty of evaluating leadership training programs is apparent, but as stated by Guba (1969), "alternative methodologies are continually being developed" (p. 30).

The purpose of this study is to design, implement, and evaluate an experiential leadership training program for women. The need for leadership training programs for women is well documented in the literature. Bartol (1973), Radin (1980), Denmark (1978), and Chapman and Luthans (1975) are among the researchers that stress the fact that there are tremendous gaps existing between research and theoretical models of leadership training as they pertain to women.

Luthans (1975) concludes that the major reason for the lack of attention given female leadership is the fact that women have traditionally been relegated to relatively non-leadership areas (p. 173). B. Von H. Gilmer (1957) in an assessment of the state of knowledge relating to leadership training for women noted that the absence of "scientific study" had allowed the literature to become "fraught with conflicting opinions, pronounced prejudices, and almost a 'mythology'" (p. 439).

The changing concept of women's role in society and the increasing likelihood that women will seek and obtain positions involving leadership responsibility necessitate research which may reduce the current confusion and uncertainty about placing women in such positions. Bartol (1973) points out that because much of what has been written about women and leadership has been based on conjecture and opinion, empirical research would assist in checking the validity of assumptions made about the effects of placing women in leadership positions (p. 1).

Chapman and Luthans (1975) are of the opinion that how a leader behaves, how he or she is expected to behave and what behavior is appropriate in a given situation may not be the same (p. 175). Magargee (1969); Steiner and Rogers (1963); and Vinnache and Gullickson (1964) are researchers that conducted studies on the influence of sex roles on leadership behavior. Their conclusions supported the contention that there is a distinct difference in leadership behavior of males and females.

Given the state of knowledge about leadership training for women and the differences existing between functional leadership behavior, the goal of leadership training for women is apparent:

> To guide and assist women in becoming well prepared and qualified to hold leadership positions, and to develop the attitudes that will stimulate confidence, positive self images, and the encouragement needed to pursue these positions (Trinchere, 1978, p. 75).

The goal of the present study is to provide such an inquiry that will enable female participants to assess themselves and their leadership potential.

A. Background of the Problem

One of the most significant changes in the composition of the undergraduate college population is the recent appearance of substantial numbers of women returning to school as regular students. These women return after an interruption in their formal education and appear to be highly motivated and achieving students (Richter and Whipple, 1972). The return of older women to college is just one aspect of an overall change in the way women live in our society. For many women, getting back into the mainstream of education can be a critical part of their transition into the unfamiliar roles now expected of them.

Richards (1976) stress three types of returning women:

(a) single--probably divorced, separated with children to support, seeking a career, and is confident and purposive.

(b) married--in their 20's or 30's with children at home who attend school seeking a career and personal fulfillment, but who lack self-confidence.

(c) married--in their 30's or 40's with children fourteen years or older, who attend school to fill empty time, who would like special counseling and who are concerned about study skills.

It can be seen that these women students bring to the college setting their own conflicts, fears, and needs. Kaynor (1972); Markus (1973); Westervelt (1968); Royce (1968);

and, Problems and Needs of the Continuing Education Woman Student (1968), are some of the documented sources dealing with problems and needs of this student population within the college environment.

Duchdoly (1975) conducted a survey of 245 older women students to find their reasons for being in college at this time in their lives. Of these, 25% indicated personal growth, 30% indicated achievement, but 45%, the largest group, indicated preparation for employment as their reason for attending school at this time. A 1975 survey study of administrators at a college, to determine programmatic responses to the needs of these students, found a disparity between the most frequently offered program and the most common problem of these women. The most offered program was testing and academic counseling. The most common problem of this type of student was training stressing confidence building skills, leadership skills, and interpersonal skills (Magill and Cirksena, 1978).

If this segment of women students are returning to school for preparation of employment and the skills they see as necessary for this preparation is not provided by the school programmatic structure, then the implications as stated by Tittle and Denker (1975) will be that, "most women may not be fully qualified professionals." Because they would'nt have had specific training, their knowledge of what is expected of them in leadership positions would be limited. This would put them at a disadvantage. They would not have had a chance to assess themselves as leaders, nor would they have acquired skills in the art of leadership.

This study was based on the expressed need of such a group of women students within the university environment. Older women students who wanted to participate in the total university environment but felt that because of their lack of leadership training, it inhibits them from applying for memberships for officers in organizations and providing adequate leadership for their own student organizations. Emphasis in this leadership training program will be on allowing women participants to assess their leadership potential and experience themselves, as women, in a leadership capacity utilizing organizational concepts.

B. Statement of the Problem

This study will present the design, implementation and evaluation of an experiential leadership training program for Continuing Education Women Students. This study will also investigate the question: Will an experiential leadership training program have positive effects on the self-perception of three aspects of leadership behavior (style, style range, and style adaptability) of Continuing Education Women Students?

C. Statement of Hypothesis

The following hypothesis will guide this study:

The experiential leadership training program will produce a significant increase in the self-perception of three aspects (style, style range, and style adaptability) of leadership behavior for the experimental treatment group as opposed to the control group at the p.05 level.

The statistical (null) hypotheses are:

1. There will be no difference between the experimental group and the control group in their mean improvement on their self-perception of their leadership style.
2. There will be no difference between the experimental group and the control group in their mean improvement on their self-perception of their style range.
3. There will be no difference between the experimental group and the control group in their mean improvement on their self-perception of their style adaptability.

D. Definition of Terms

Leadership Training Program. The workshops designed, implemented, and evaluated for Continuing Education Women Students who participate in the study.

Leadership Behavior. Self-perception of style, style range, and style adaptability as effectiveness characteristics exhibited in a leadership situation.

Continuing Education Women Students. Undergraduate women students who have reentered the educational system after leaving it for time periods ranging from only a few years to as many as twenty or more years, and between the ages of 25-45 years.

Experiential. Participant "discovers" for him/herself the learning offered by any process or activity utilizing the inductive process of experience.

Self-Perception. The act of perceiving and interpreting one's own behavior.

Clinical Notes. The facilitator and independent observer's observations of the activity, process, and outcome of each training session during the program.

Activity. The structured experience developed for each workshop of the program.

Process. Interaction of participants as a result of the activity.

Outcome. Cognitive or affective learning manifested through association with the process of each workshop.

Application of Learning. Focus upon the ramifications of the exercises for each participant.

Facilitator. Group leader of the workshops, whose main function is focusing learning from the various exercises/experiences and creating an environment in which learning can take place.

Style Range. The extent to which one perceives their ability to vary their leadership style.

Style Adaptability. The degree to which leadership behavior is appropriate to the demands of a given situation.

CHAPTER II

Review of Literature

A number of issues must be investigated in attempting to design, implement, and evaluate an Experiential Leadership Training Program. The major issues that will have a direct influence on the program appear to be the following: (1) Models of leadership behavior, (2) Self-perception, (3) Change in self-perception through training, (4) Models of training, and (5) The problems of evaluating the effectiveness of training programs. The purpose of this study will be to descriptively and analytically review major contributions to the literature in each of these areas as they seem to relate to the study.

A. Models of Leadership Behavior

For many years the most common approach to the study of leadership concentrated on leadership traits per se, suggesting that there were certain characteristics, such as physical energy or friendliness, that were essential for effective leadership. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1972), inherent personal qualities, like intelligence, were felt to be transferable from one situation to another. Since all individuals did not have these qualities, only those who had them would be considered to be potential leaders (p. 68). This approach stressed that leadership indeed increase their effectiveness in leadership roles through education, training, and development.

Koontz and O'Donnell (1959) define leadership as influencing people to follow in the achievement of a common goal (p. 435). According to Terry (1960), leadership is the activity of influencing people to strive willingly for group objectives (p. 493). Tannenbaum, Weschler, and Massarak (1959) maintain that leadership is interpersonal influence exercised in a situation and directed through the communication process, towards the attainment of a specialized goal or goals (p. 7).

If leadership can be defined as the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation, then, it can be summarized that leadership involves accomplishing goals with and through people. Therefore, a leader must be concerned about tasks and human relationships. The recognition of two dimensions of leadership style--one emphasizing task and the other stressing relationships--will be given support by reviewing and discussing three models of leadership behavior in this part of the study.

The Bureau of Business Research at Ohio State University in 1945 initiated a series of leadership studies that attempted to identify various dimensions of leadership behavior. The description of leader behavior was plotted on two dimensions, <u>Initiating Structure</u> and <u>Consideration</u>. Initiating structure referred to leader's behavior in qualities were inborn, and if a way could be discovered to identify and measure these qualities, then leaders could be discovered from non-leaders. Leadership training would then be helpful only to those with these inherent leadership traits.

Gibbs (1954) points out, however, that a review of the research literature using this trait approach to leadership has revealed few significant or consistent findings. Jennings (1961) also concludes that fifty years of study have failed to produce one personality trait or set of qualities that can be used to discriminate leaders and non-leaders. Hemphill (1949) suggests another approach to studying leadership. He states that empirical studies suggest that leadership is a dynamic process, varying from situation to situation with changes in leaders, followers, and situations. According to Hemphill, current literature seems to support this situational or leader behavior approach to the study of leadership (p. 8).

The situational approach to leadership focuses on observed behavior, not on inborn potential qualities for leadership. The emphasis is on the behavior of leaders and their group members and various situations. Hersey and Blanchard (1972) feel that with this emphasis upon behavior and environment, more encouragement is given to the possibility of training individuals in adapting styles of leadership behavior to varying situations (p. 69). This approach would support the contention that most people can carrying out task-related activities, and consideration referred to behavior that reflected leader's relationship to staff (Halpin, 1959). A questionnaire was developed to gather data about leadership behavior. This instrument described how a leader carried out his activities and how often the leader engaged in a certain form of behavior in performing these duties.

In studying the results of these studies, the Ohio State staff found that Initiating Structure and Consideration were separate and distinct dimensions. High on one dimension did not necessitate being low on the other. In other words, leadership behavior could be described as any mix of the two dimensions (Stogdill and Coones, eds., 1957). Quadrants could be developed to show various combinations of both axes.

However, Halpin, 1959, using the same questionnaire from the Ohio State studies in a study of school superintendents, found that the administrators he interviewed had a tendency to view Consideration and Initiating Structure as either/or forms of leadership behavior. Halpin feels that this conflict should not necessarily exist. He states that,

> effective or desirable leadership behavior is characterized by high scores on both Initiating Structure and Consideration. Conversely, ineffective or undesirable leadership behavior is marked by low scores on both dimensions (p. 79).

Blake and Mouton (1964) in their Managerial Grid model of leadership behavior, utilizes the concepts task accomplishment and development of personal relationships in organization and management development programs.

In the Managerial Grid, five different types of leadership based on concern for production (task) and concern for people (relationships) are located in four quadrants similar to the Ohio State studies. Concern for production is on the horizontal axis and concern for people is on the vertical axis. Both axes have ratings from one to nine, with one being low concern and nine being maximum concern. The five types of leadership styles are: Impoverished, Country Club, Task, Middle-of-the-Road, and Team. Each type of leadership style is rated from 1.1 to 9.9 with 9.9 being the area of <u>ideal</u> leadership attainment or management.

Although there are 81 possible categories (9 x 9), many styles of leadership behavior tend towards one of the four styles represented by the corners of the Grid (Country Club, Task, Impoverished, and Team), but the vast majority of styles fall in the middle of the Grid, which is represented by the Middle-of-the-Road type of leadership behavior (Business Week, 1969, p. 158).

The Ward Company of Chicago utilized the Managerial Grid model of leadership behavior in a management development program for 24 of its managers. The managers participated in a three-week seminar where the focus was on enabling managers to identify various components of their leadership behavior which was then plotted on the two dimension task accomplishment and development of personal relationships using the Grid model. According to Foster (1966), the Grid language system enables individuals to communicate in an impartial way. Since they share common language and work within its framework, they understand each other without getting into areas that might cause personal embarrassment (p. 44).

The results from the Wards Company program showed that managers who went through the Grid program exhibited more leadership behavior towards the 9.9 leadership type on both dimensions than they did prior to training. The methods of measurement in this study were subordinate interviews and observation. The managers also saw the two dimensions as being independent.

Another organizational development training program using the Grid model was initiated by the ESB Company of Philadelphia. The ESB Company is the world's largest manufacturer of batteries. One hundred employees from various levels of management of the automotive division participated in a five-day seminar in which the focus was on moving participants towards the 9.9 leadership style or behavior of the Grid.

A questionnaire was prepared to measure and compare the impact of the Grid. A random selection of employees who took the training was compared to two random selected control groups who did not take the training. The overall results, showed that the automotive group that took training was the closest to "approximating the ideal." As reported by the ESB Company's findings, there were statistically significant differences between those who participated in the Grid and those who did not (Hart, 1974). In other words, management employees who participated in the Grid program, projected more leadership behavior towards the 9.9 area of the Grid on the two dimensions of concern for production (task) and concern for people (relationships).

Blake and Mouton (1978) note that the manner in which these two concerns are linked together by a specific leader defines his leadership behavior (p. 10). They further suggest that the Managerial Grid is useful in helping people identify the leadership style they exhibit as they work with and through others (p. 6).

In the Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model of leadership behavior, the terms Task Behavior and Relationship Behavior are used in the same way as Consideration and Initiating Structure is used in the Ohio State studies. The four basic leader behavior styles of this model are: High Task and Low Relationship, High Task and High Relationship, High Relationship and Low Task, and Low Task and Low Relationship. This model is illustrated in Appendix A.

These four basic styles depict leadership style or behavior. Leader's style or behavior as depicted in this model is the behavior pattern he/she exhibits when he/she is involved in directing the activities of others. The pattern generally involves either Task Behavior or

Relationship Behavior or some combination of both (Hersey and Blanchard, 1972).

If leadership can be referred to as a dynamic process, varying from situation to situation with changes in leader, followers, and situation as suggested by Hemphill (1949), it is evident that it depends on how a leader's behavior interrelates to the situation that will determine the leader's effectiveness at any given time.

Reddin (1970), whose pioneer work influenced greatly the development of the Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model, added an effectiveness dimension to this model. Reddin felt that by adding an effectivenss dimension to task and relationship dimensions, this would integrate the concepts of leader behavior or style with situational demands of a specific environment (p. 13). In other words, if a leader's style was appropriate for a given situation, it would be considered effective; if the style was inappropriate, this would be considered ineffective.

Hersey and Blanchard (1972) point out that if leadership style or behavior depends on the situation, then the difference between effective and ineffective behavior is often not the actual behavior of the leader, but the appropriateness of this behavior to the situation in which it is used (p. 84). Effectiveness as used here is not an either/or situation but is represented as a continuum. So it would follow that effectiveness would be a matter of degree. As stated by Hersey and Blanchard, there could be an infinite number of facets of the effectiveness dimension rather than three (p. 85). The effectiveness dimension of the Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model is illustrated in Appendix B.

Bales (1953) utilized the Tri-Dimensional Leadership Style Theory in studies of small groups at Harvard. He stressed two dimensions which were task leader and social emotional leader. His results suggested that these two types were independent. Being high on one dimension did not corrolate with being high on the other (p. 141). The Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan initiated leadership studies utilizing two dimensions--production centered and employee centered--in studying boys clubs. These results showed that democratically conducted boys clubs (relationship) was characterized as scoring higher in desirable leadership behavior than clubs led in an autocratic or laissez faire manner (task). One would have to keep in mind that while there is great evidence that employee-centered leadership behavior is often effective, it is clear also that production-centered leadership behavior is just as effective (Katz, et. al., 1951).

In another study using the Tri-Dimensional Leadership Model and utilizing the two dimensions, Task and Relationship, Zelditch (1955) studied role differentiation in the basic family unit in fifty-six societies. He found that, within the family, there was a characteristic differentiation into the task specialist and maintenance specialist roles.

The male adult was typically the task specialist and the female adult, the maintenance specialist.

Reddin (1967) points out that many studies refer to these similar underlying dimensions (task and relationship). He further adds that while each study defines the dimension in its own way, and not all posit independence, they might reasonably be identified by these terms which appear to capture the common thread of the meaning (p. 10). Many studies such as (Raskin, Boruchon, 1965; and Golob, 1965) support these two measures as fundamental and independent.

The Ohio State leadership studies seem to conclude that the high Consideration and Initiating Structure style is the best ideal or <u>best</u> leader behavior, while the style low on both dimensions is theoretically the <u>worst</u>. The Managerial Grid implied that the most desirable leader behavior is <u>team management</u> (maximum concern for production and people). The Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model also concluded that high task and high relationship leadership style lead to more effective leadership behavior.

These models are distinctive because they do not depict a single ideal leader behavior style that is suggested as being appropriate in all situations. And they support the contention that successful leadership involves adapting leader's behavior to meet the needs of the group and the particular situation.

B. Self-Perception

The perception and interpretation of bodily states and overt behavior constitute the underpinnings of self-perception. Studies of self-perception can generally be divided into two categories, the perception and interpretation of bodily states and the perception and interpretation of overt behaviors.

This review will be concerned with issues related to the latter category. Research studies in this category covers a wide range of topics including how people form attitudes, how they learn to be assertive or helpless, the ways in which they perceive their lives as being under internal or external control, and the reactions people have to success and failure (Kleinke, 1978).

In addressing the issues of perception and interpretation of behavior, some researchers suggest that one of the most important issues in this process is that people form their attitudes by observing their behavior and making attributions about the causes of these behaviors. The notion that people use their behavior as cues for perceiving their attitudes was proposed by Bem (1970). In his theory of self-perception he postulates:

> Individuals come to "know" their own attitudes, emotions, and other internal states partially by inferring them from observation of their own overt behavior and/or the circumstances in which this behavior occurs. Thus, to the extent that internal cues are weak, ambiguous, or uninterpretable, the individual is functionally in the same position as an outside observer--an observer who must

> necessarily rely upon those same external cues to infer the individual's inner states (p. 1).

Kleinke (1978) feels that Bem's theory of self-perception is a useful one because it allows the study of self-perception from an objective standpoint. The focus of attention is on behavior, which is measurable and this helps to eliminate getting bogged down into highly subjective and metaphysical explanations.

According to various researchers, a more or less traditional explanation for behavior is that it is the manifest result of some sort of inner attitude. But Bem and many other psychologists argue that people's behaviors are not caused by something inside of them, but rather by forces in the outside environment. Bem (1964) strongly asserts that private stimuli, or the inner state, probably plays a smaller role in self-description than we have come to believe, either as self-observers or outside observers (p. 4). This contention was supported by experimental work on emotional states done by Schachter and Singer (1962). They manipulated the external cues of a situation and were able to evoke self-descriptions of emotional states as disparate as euphoria and anger from subjects within whom operationally identical states of physiological arousal had been induced. These subjects required internal stimuli of arousal to make the determination they were emotional, but the more subtle discrimination, of which emotions they were experiencing, was under the control of the external cues--the "emotional" behavior of a stooge.

In another experiment conducted within Schachter's theoretical framework, Valins (1966) was able to manipulate attitudes towards stimulus pictures of seminude females by giving his male subjects false auditory feedback which they could interpret as their heartbeat, thus showing that any internal stimulus control of attitude statements could be overridden by external cues.

The point being made here is that the controlling external cues or circumstances in which behavior occurs is the cause of the manifestation of the behavior, and inferences from this behavior will lead individuals to, in turn, receive feedback about their attitude.

Rokeach (1968) presents a theoretical framework about the attitude-behavior relationship in which he postulates that people's behavior must always be mediated by at least two types of attitudes--one activated by the object, the other activated by the situation. The attitude object is seen as the <u>figure</u> and the situation in which it is encountered as the <u>ground</u>. Rokeach suggests that there has to be congruency between the two types of attitudes as they relate to behavior. If one would focus on one type of attitude with behavior at the expense of the other, he feels, one is bound to observe some inconsistency and lack of dependence between the omitted attitude and behavior (p. 126).

Evidence to support Rokeach's contention can be provided by studies conducted by LaPiere (1934) and Kutner et. al. (1952) in which they found marked discrepancies among restaurant owners and innkeepers; between their verbal expressions of discrimination towards minorities via letter or telephone, and their nondiscriminatory face-to-face behavior. The explanation for this inconsistency as interpreted by Rokeach:

> The investigators did not obtain all the relevant attitudinal information needed to make accurate predictions. The subjects not only had attitudes towards minorities but being managers of an ongoing business, also had attitudes about how properly to conduct such a business. The investigator's methods, however, are typically focused on obtaining data relevant to attitude-toward-object and are generally insensitive towards attitude-to-situation (p. 127).

Rokeach also takes issue to the fact that some psychologists are fond of saying that behavior is determined not only by _attitudes_ but also the _situation_ or by the interaction between _attitude_ and _situation_. For him this formulation is conceptually unsatisfactory with _attitude_ being a psychological variable and _situation_ an objective (sociological) variable they are not from the same universe of discourse. Thomas and Znaniecki (1918) share Rokeach's sentiments on this issue and they maintain that a more satisfactory formulation is the preposition that behavior is a result of the interaction between _attitude_ and _definition of the situation_.

The crux of the two theories of self-perception presented in this part of the review maintain that in the utilization of behavior in the interpretation of attitudes, self-attributions are made from the individuals' observations of his/her own overt behavior and/or the circumstances in which it occurs, and the most important among those <u>circumstances</u> are the apparent controlling variables of that behavior, which is the <u>definition of the situation</u>.

In discussing theories of self-perception it should be kept in mind that because self-perception theory is conceived of as a <u>behaviorist</u> theory, constant emphasis should be on the fact that neither the individual nor the outside observer is confined to inferences based upon overt actions only. This is mentioned because there are some social psychologists that have long criticized "behavioral analyses of social interaction" because they feel there is something more to interpersonal relations than responding to the overt behaviors of another individual.

Asch (1952) and Miller and Dollard (1941) are among the social psychologists who feel there is <u>something more</u> of interpersonal perceptions involving individuals and outside observers. Their criticism revolves around behavioral analyses failing to explicate how it is that individuals are able to take account of one another's meanings, motives, intentions, and the like. The intent or meaning as defined by an outside observer is the issue here. The <u>something more</u> as interpreted by Asch, Miller, Dollard, and others is that the apparent controlling variables of behavior (definition of the situation) in interpersonal perceptions, can provide a basis of inference for the outside observer. This issue as they see it is not focused on in self-perception theory. However, this is not an issue in the present study because emphasis is on self-perception and the self-observer.

C. Change In Self-Perception Through Training

A review of the literature seems to suggest that self-perception can be changed through training. In terms of focusing on the perceptions and interpretation of bodily states, researchers have attempted to change people's attitudes, emotions, and conditions under which they recognize bodily needs, and more effective methods for dealing with anxiety, depression, and pain. They have investigated and attempted to produce change by placing people in situations where there are actual changes in their bodily states and also by giving people false feedback about ostensible changes in their bodily state. Gresen and Hendrick (1974), Harris and Jellison (1971), Mintz and Mills (1971), Zannon and Ceopes (1974), Argle and Dean (1973) and Middlemist, Knowles, and Matter (1976) are social scientists that have experienced positive results in this area.

The literature also suggests that changes in the interpretation and perceptions of overt behavior can be produced through training. Gorman (1968), McArthur (1970), Brecher and Denmark (1971), Klein and Seligman (1976), Dweck (1975), and Shultz (1976) are among the researchers who have experienced positive results in changing people's reaction to success and failure, how they learn to be helpless, and ways in which they live their lives under internal or external control.

Bem's theory of self-perception argues that people who behave in a new way consider their new behaviors to be external signs of their beliefs. He further contends that people will learn how to change their attitudes after being influenced to engage in behaviors they can attribute to themselves (Kleinke, 1978, p. 102).

This contention is supported in a study conducted by Schopler and Compere (1971), where participants in one experiment were given the task of testing other people on a simple task. The participants were instructed to act positively toward half of the people, giving compliments for their performance, and to act negatively toward the remaining people as they worked on the tasks, criticizing them for their performance. After this interaction, participants rated each other on a rating scale. Results showed that participants were significantly more favorable towards the people they had treated in a positive manner. This led Schopler and Compere to conclude that the participants had apparently been influenced to say to themselves, "I behaved in a kind/harsh manner toward that person. I must like/dislike him."

In another experiment conducted by Jecker and Landy (1969), an experimenter had participants to perform a task where they were paid money. After the study was over, the experimenter asked one group for the money back. His reason was that he needed the money to continue the experiment. He also stated he couldn't make them return the money; most of the participants turned the money back in, a few did not. The researchers concluded that the few who did not return the money felt as if they were acting out their own free choice.

Researchers have also attempted to change attitudes by influencing expressive behavior. In an experiment conducted by Leventhal and Mace (1970) where high school students were shown segments from slapstick movies by Abbott and Costello and W. C. Fields. Results showed that both boys and girls smiled and laughed more when canned laughter was added to the soundtrack of the film. The increased laughter simulated by the canned laughter led both boys and girls to rate the movies as funnier.

A study with college students by Cupchick and Leventhal (1974) found similar results. Male and female students were exposed to a series of cartoons instead of slapstick movies. Results showed that although the canned laughter got both females and males to laugh more, only the female students showed a relationship between the amount they smiled and laughed and their ratings of the funniness of the cartoons. This led the researchers in the experiment to suggest that males might be less likely than females to use their expressive behaviors as signs of their attitude.

In addition to the subtle manner exhibited by researchers, in manipulating people's behavior in an attempt to change people's attitudes, there is another method employed by researchers that accomplishes the same purpose. This is a process of labeling people's actions in a way that would modify their self-perceptions. McArthur, Kiesler, Cook (1969) conducted research using this technique. They took three groups of participants and labeled two groups as doers and gave them false feedback on a personality test. The third group did not receive false feedback. The participants of one of the doer groups were told they were selected because of their <u>doer</u> attitude, the other group of doers were told their <u>doer</u> personality had nothing to do with them being selected.

Measuring the three groups of participants on their willingness to perform a task to support a sympathetic issue was the main focus of the study. Results showed that participants who felt they were chosen because of <u>doer</u> personality were significantly more willing to perform tasks than the other two groups. The researchers concluded that simply labeling participants was not enough to change later behavior, but that their <u>awareness</u> of the label had to be strengthened, by making it an integral part of their involvement in the study.

Krout (1973), Miller, Brickman, and Bolen (1975), and Salanick (1974) are researchers who utilized the technique of labeling people's actions and behaviors to change attitudes. Their findings support the general contention that labeling can make people aware of their behavior and influence them to behave in a consistent manner that will, in turn, affect their attitude.

This part of the literature review has indicated that subtle manipulating and labeling of behavior are two of the techniques researchers use to change the way people perceive and interpret their own behavior which can then lead to a change in attitude and self-perception.

D. Models of Training

A large body of literature exists that describes various models of training. Gibb (1972) states that ". . . training groups are used variously to increase interpersonal competence, to foster personal growth, to build teams, to do therapy, and to develop climates in organizations" (p. 30). The major reason for making distinctions among the various models is that the different models are not equally appropriate to all situations, and the model employed has an impact on determining the effectiveness of the training program.

The model of training for this study will emphasize the increase of interpersonal competencies and fostering personal growth, since the focus will be on indepth personal and interpersonal dynamics in the training. The following generic models will be examined: (1) the laboratory method, (2) sensitivity training, and (3) experiential learning.

These models are being reviewed for two reasons: (1) because their major focus of concern is toward trainees personal growth and development, and (2) to create a rationale for the training design for this study. The dimensions that will be examined of the following models are as follows: (1) structure, (2) process, (3) goals, (4) clientele, (5) time orientation, and (6) role of the facilitator. Focus will also be on identifying the dimensions that would be relevant for this study.

The Laboratory Method

National Training Laboratories is a focal agency in developing the laboratory method, although there are currently many different laboratory approaches. NTL training programs are based on observation and analysis and each participant has the opportunity to be both a participant and an observer. While each laboratory design is different, each program contains a general learning pattern described in the 1973 NTL Program Brochure. It is as follows:

> (1) studying the effects of present behavior of an individual, a group, and/or an organization,
>
> (2) increasing skill in observing behavior and its consequences, thereby shortening the time required to adapt or affect a new situation, and
>
> (3) learning a method of continually expanding competence in understanding human behavior (p. 2).

A training laboratory is an institutionalized place for learning. Bradford, et. al. (1964) states that a "training laboratory is a community dedicated to the stimulation and support of experimental learning and change" (p. 3). Schein and Bennis (1965) believe that the laboratory contains elements of education and therapy but that it maintains its uniqueness. Gellerman (1971) summarizes a laboratory program by stating that it is any limited or controlled process experience that is designed to help people learn.

The setting for laboratory training is away from home in what is called a cultural island where a nurturing environment is hopefully established. The clientele or target population for laboratory programs are:

(1) professional helpers, such as educators,

(2) the more or less professionalized supervisor, manager, or administrator, and

(3) the total membership of an organization or subpart of an organization.

The time orientation is concerned with the here-and-now, but also with the back-home focus.

There are three underlying themes as identified by Miles (1962) of laboratory training. These are:

(1) Conviction that learning is essentially inductive, experienced-centered,

(2) Concern with building bridges between the world of human sciences and practical affairs, and

(3) Study capacity for ingenious invention and development of experimental teaching methods (p. 3).

Schein and Bennis (1965) further identify the underlying assumptions of laboratory training as:

(1) laboratory training is anchored in the behavioral sciences,

(2) laboratory training is based on intervention,

(3) laboratory training must affect social role, and

(4) experience must precede the introduction of a theoretical concept (p. 28).

The primary objective of laboratory training as stated by Gellerman (1971) is to help people affirm the reality of their freedom and responsibility. NTL sees the goals of laboratory training as that of learning from one's own experience through careful evaluation and attempting to research the laboratory method. They further contend that three fundamental education decisions made in establishing a laboratory have determined many of its directions and activities.

> The first decision was that changes in individual conduct as well as increased knowledge would be a training goal . . . the second decision was that the laboratory should be concerned with the maintenance of change by participants back on the job . . . the third decision was that research and training should be integrated so that each might serve the other (Weschler and Schein, 1962, pp. 15-17).

In designing each individual laboratory, the design would be based on the needs of the group to be trained as well as the different perspectives of the staff involved in the training. Schein and Bennis (1965) view the goal setting and planning interviews as instrumental in terms of shaping each laboratory. Curriculum decisions (the design) are made by the staff in planning sessions prior to the laboratory. Even though the staff and participants are generally unknown to each other, the design provides a framework of direction and remains flexible to change initiated either by the staff or participants. Benne, Bradford, and Lippitt (1964) state the following requirements of the laboratory design:

> (1) design must support an integrative learning experience for each participant,
>
> (2) an adequate design is seen as a set of structures to induce and guide participant experience, analysis, and evaluation, with increasing initiative from participants in directing and evaluating their own learning, and
>
> (3) an adequate design achieves a balance by the use of tested methodologies and activities and the introduction of new training inventions which will advance staff learning and contribute to the professional knowledge of growing community of laboratory trainers (p. 79).

In designing a laboratory program, the experiences are controlled in that there is a theory utilized in deciding the sequence of events as well as the events themselves. Some of the methods are highly structured, lectures, and unstructured. Some of the various experiences utilized in the laboratory method are:

(1) Information or abstract process sessions--general sessions during which a staff member lectures and/or gives a demonstration, relevant to particular information or theory,

(2) Logs--kept daily by participants and shared, if desired,

(3) Pairing--two members share and discuss their perceptions and feelings,

(4) Communication exercises--an exercise is utilized that causes interaction and then the processes engaged in by the group are examined; non-verbal exercises are included, and

(5) Organizational simulations--involving exercises in competition, conflict, and cooperation among members of groups. (Sources: Tannenbaum, et al., 1961; Harrow, 1971; Blake, Mouton, and Bansfield, 1962; and Schein and Bennis, 1965)

Looking at the laboratory method in terms of relevant dimensions to this study, it is evident that the laboratory method exemplifies:

(1) the inductive learning process

(2) experience-based learning

(3) attempts to satisfy the needs of the individual, and

(4) flexibility of structure in training design.

These dimensions will be incorporated in the training program for this study, thus, this examination has shown that there are various aspects of this model which will add to the effectiveness of the training program for this study.

Sensitivity Training

The definition of sensitivity training has become blurred over time. Dorr (1972) states that ". . . sensitivity training is a learning technique introduced by Moreno and developed and promoted by the National Training Laboratories (NTL) whereby a person can become more aware of (their) real self and can learn to understand interpersonal relations" (p. 174). Goldberg (1970) and Bennis, Schein, Steele, and Berlen (1968) are among a few of the theorists who believe that sensitivity training focuses on group member's future-oriented strivings as enacted in their interpersonal encounters in the here-and-now. In sensitivity training, groups are relatively unstructured and a strong effort is made to create an atmosphere of openness and honesty in communicating with each other.

It seems that there is a problem in defining sensitivity training that arises from a lack of agreement about the types of groups that belong to sensitivity training. Goldberg (1972) classifies sensitivity training groups into the following categories: (1) the Gestalt group, (2) the Process group, (3) the Eslan and Human Potential Movement, (4) Psychodrama, (5) Marathon group, (6) Encounter group, and (7) Bion.

The goal of a Gestalt group (Perls, 1969) is to find ways and means for creating changes in individuals in a group setting. The time orientation is basically here-and-now with dream analysis also being utilized. The setting can be anywhere and the clientele anyone. The role of the facilitator is to bring about awareness with the use of confrontation through description. The structure is minimum except that the facilitator works with one individual at a time.

The Process group according to Goldberg (1972), tends to be utilized in an educational setting. Its major goal is to teach people about groups by experiencing them first as a member. The time orientation is here-and-now and the clientele are generally students. The process focus on the group entirely rather than individuals. It is relatively unstructured and the facilitator models and confronts.

The Eslan type group has as its major goal personal growth through a release of inhibitions (Gibb, 1969). Its time orientation is here-and-now and the setting tends to be a short intensive workshop. The clientele can be anyone and the role of the facilitator is to model and confront. It tends to be unstructured and there has not been much research on change and effects in individuals after such groups.

Psychodrama, created by J. L. Moreno, is the forerunner of the encounter group. The goal of Psychodrama as Siroka, Siroka, and Schloss (1971) perceives it is to try to see the world for a moment through the other's eyes, and to relate in the most meaningful sense through mutual understanding (p. 3). The process is one of spontaneity and creativity. The time orientation can be past, present, or future, and the setting can be anywhere with the clientele being anyone. It is structured in the sense that the participants act in front of an audience; however, the behavior that is to be enacted is unstructured. The facilitator is a director who emphasizes the use of action techniques.

The Marathon group's goal according to Gordon (1955) is personal growth through breaking down defenses. The time orientation is here-and-now plus historical. The setting is generally isolated from normal activities for a concentrated period of time. The facilitator is usually a therapist and often behaves in a confronting, aggressive manner. The clientele can be anyone but the therapist usually screen the participants. This group also is relatively unstructured.

Research on the lasting effects of these groups is inconclusive.

The Encounter group has as its major goal, therapy and/or personal growth. The time orientation is generally in the here-and-now, the setting can be anywhere, and the clientele can be anyone. The structure is generally minimal with the group's task being that of utilizing their own resources in the problem solving process. Some of the major assumptions encounter proponents held are:

(1) that the group has the capacity to make sound decisions,

(2) that each member will contribute his maximum effort when the group is free from dependence on a formal leader and the climate is one of trust and openness, and

(3) that the leadership of the group is not the sole function of any one person but is conferred by the group on that member who can best meet its needs by leading it in a certain direction. Thus, the leader's behavior needs to be one of modeling, keeping in mind the basic assumptions held by encounter proponents.

Based on these assumptions, Rogers (1970) and Gordon (1955) propose that a group centered leader is the most effective for an encounter group.

The Bion type of small group is based on principles associated with the Levinson psychoanalytic traditions. Harrow, Astrachman, Tucker, Klein, and Miller (1971) state that the two major goals are as follows:

(1) to develop a better understanding of covert group processes, and

(2) to develop better understanding of authority relationships (p. 226).

The facilitator tries to be a neutral authority figure and members endow him with their fantasies of authority. The setting is one in which the experience can be studied and at least partially understood as it occurs; thus, the focus is on the here-and-now. Clientele are usually people interested in leadership training.

Harrow, et. al. (1971) did a comparative study of a Bion model and a T-group. Their research dealt with process issues in relations to the theoretical goals of the T-group and the Bion group. It involved an examination of the impact on the participants who took part in both groups. The most striking differences reported by the researchers occurred in the perceptions of the leader. The members saw themselves as less powerful with the authority in the Bion group and saw the group and other members as different in this group. Harrow, et. al. (1971) conclude that "since members experienced both conditions, leadership style establishes a group structure and culture that has an important impact on the way members will perceive the group and one another" (p. 237).

Sensitivity training seems to fit in with the Human Relations approach for the individual, his needs, and wants are stressed while the organization assumes a relatively unimportant position. Sensitivity training appears to emphasize the conceptual levels of the individual, the group, and the immediate climate.

As demonstrated by this review of the literature, there are widely divergent views as to "what is sensitivity training?"

An attempt has been made to examine and differentiate various types of sensitivity groups in terms of their structure, process, goals, clientele, time orientation, and the role of the facilitator.

Thus, sensitivity training as a training model has several dimensions relevant for this study. This model focuses on the participants intra and interpersonal processes; although a major focus tends to be the individual and his/her involvement, enthusiasm, and participation in a personal growth learning experience. The process by which this occurs tend to be both structured and unstructured and conditions of trust and openness are extremely important. Feedback is also an important part of the process. The leader's role is essential in focusing the learning from the various experiences and creating an environment in which that learning can take place.

Experiential Learning

There is a body of work in educational theory that goes under the general heading "theory of instruction." This body of work is normative and attempts to specify the optimal set of activities on the part of an outside agent (an instructor) for bringing about learning. Bruner's (1966) theory of instruction includes the following elements: "(1) specify how to implant a predisposition towards learning, (2) specify the optimal structuring of the body of knowledge to be learned, and (3) specify the most effective sequencing of materials . . . ." (pp. 40-41). Such theories of instruction contain implicit assumptions about the learning process that take place within the individual, and they contain implicit assumptions as well about the nature of what is being learned.

The experiential learning process will be utilized in this study to view the learning process and make these assumptions explicit, focus will be on exploring variations in ways that things are learned. The experiential model is based on a cyclical learning process of five separate but interlocking procedures, emphasis is on the "direct" experiences of participant as learner, and the model is an "inductive" process where the participant "discovers" for themself the learning offered by the experiential process (Pfieffer and Jones, 1972).

The experiential approach is based on the premise that experience precedes learning and that learning, or meaning, to derive from any experience comes from the learners themselves. Participant's experiences are unique to them; no one can tell them what they will learn, or gain from any activity. Pfieffer and Jones (1972) state that probable learnings can, of course, be devised, but it is up to the participants to validate these for themselves (p. 4). A diagram of the five revolving steps included in the experiential model is illustrated in Appendix C.

The process usually starts with experiencing. The participant becomes involved in an activity; the <u>act</u> or <u>behave</u> in same way as he <u>does</u>, <u>performs</u>, <u>observes</u>, <u>sees</u>, <u>says</u> something. This initial experience is the basis for the entire process. Keeton and Associates (1976) stresses that the information transmitted through the experiential process is only generated through the sequence of steps themselves. They see the first step as encompassing a participant carrying out an action in a particular instance and observing the effects of this action (p. 51).

Following the experience itself, it becomes important for the participant to share or publish their reactions and observations with others who have either experienced or observed the same activity. Sharing one's reactions is only the first step, the other part to this cycle is the necessary integration of this sharing. The dynamics that emerge in the activity are explored, discussed, and evaluated (processed) with other participants. The end results of this cycle, according to Keeton and Associates (1976), is so the participant can understand these effects in a particular instance, so that if exactly the same set of circumstances reappeared, one would be able to anticipate what would follow from the action (p. 51). Thus it could be said after this cycle that a participant would have learned how to act to obtain their goals in this particular circumstance.

Flowing logically from the processing step is the need to develop principles or extract generalizations from the experience. Stating learning in this way can help participants further define, clarify, and elaborate them. This may involve actions over a range of circumstances to gain experience beyond the particular instance. According to Keeton and Associates (1976), understanding the general principles does not imply, in this sequence, an ability to express the principle, that is to put it into words. It implies only the ability to see a connection between the actions and effects over a range of circumstances (p. 52).

The final step in the cycle is to plan applications of the principles derived from the experience. The experiential process is not complete until a new learning or discovery is used and tested behaviorally. When the general principle is understood, the last step is its application through action in a new circumstance within the range of generalization. Here the distinction from the action of the first step is only that the circumstance in which the action takes place is different.

Two of the most important properties of the experiential learning process are that it is time consuming and motivation is intrinsic. It is time consuming because it involves actions sufficiently repeated and in enough situations to allow the development of generalizations from an experience. Although, as stated by Keeton and Associates (1976), it is not all effective when the consequence of the action is separated in time and space from the action itself. However, when consequence is perceptibly connected to action, then . . . experiential learning provides a direct guide to future actions (p. 56).

Motivation is intrinsic in this process because the subjective need for learning exist from the beginning since action occurs at the beginning of the experiential sequence rather than at the end. Harvey and Brown (1976) state that in the experiential process the participant actually experience a situation from an active role in which the major responsibility for learning is on the participant (p. 16). Knudson, Woodworth, and Bell (1979) also state that the benefits of experiential learning are extremely high involvement coupled with high enthusiasm, with great responsibility for both the conduct of the learning experience and the actual learning itself resting with the participant.

The weakest link in the experiential process of learning appears to lie in the third step.

> . . . in generalizing from particular experiences to a general principle applicable in other circumstances. Person's seem to differ considerably in their quickness to infer a general principle from a set of experiences. Thus, some person's can engage in the same actions repeatedly without extending the principle to other cases, while others perceive the principle immediately. (Keeton and Associates, 1976, p. 58)

In terms of addressing this weakness, Harvey and Brown (1976) suggest that it is possible to design interventions that facilitates each stage of an experience-based learning process. They feel that various theories and models can be added to aid in forming the general principle's step in the sequential process. In further addressing this weakness, Knudson, Woodworth, and Bell (1979) state . . . we do not confine ourselves to using this approach exclusively, (in light of aformentioned shortcoming), we think that a judicious mixing of experiential learning and other methodology is appropriate depending upon the individual situation (p. 3).

The role of the instructor in experiential learning is very important, yet it is a significantly different role than in more traditional learning methodology. Rather than being a resource with guidelines for solutions to any problems, the instructor or facilitator's responsibility in the experiential approach revolve around focusing the learning from the exercises and creating an environment in which learning can take place. The facilitator must be a good observer of behavior so that when the group starts to examine its experience and reflect upon them, he or she is in a position to assist with this process. The facilitator's responsibilities in focusing learning and making it clearer for each participant are extremely important.

In experiential learning, participants learn different things because responsibility rest with individual participants and this difference is emphasized in the application of learning where participants reflect upon experience and apply the learning to their own situation.

Keeton and Associates (1976) contend that there is a primitive state of knowledge in the area of experiential learning and that any discussion in this area is merely a starting point for a more thorough investigation into this mode of learning.

E. The Problems of Evaluating the Effectiveness of Training Programs

The evaluation of outcomes of training programs have always posed major problems in research. Until recently, behaviorial scientists have tended to avoid research on human relations training in favor of more researchable design (Harrison, 1976). Recently, considerable attention is currently being directed towards the evaluation of training programs irrespective of the difficulties inherent in such research (Schein and Bennis, p. 237). Major problems in evaluating training projects are specification of criterion, the selection of empirical and/or non-empirical instruments for data collection, and the development of an appropriate design or evaluation model.

House (1967) defines training as a situation in which needs and goals are to be met through a systematic attempt to induce change. He further states that evaluation involves "the definition and measurement of criteria to be used in the investigation of whether or not change occurred" (p. 81).

Kirkpatrick (1967) suggests four major steps in evaluating training programs. They are:

> (1) <u>Reaction</u>. How well did the trainees like the program?
>
> (2) <u>Learning</u>. What principles, facts, and techniques were learned?
>
> (3) <u>Behavior</u>. What changes in job behavior resulted from the program?
>
> (4) <u>Results</u>. What were the tangible results of the program in terms of reduced costs, improved quantity, etc.? (p. 88)

Dunnette and Campbell (1968) presents an evaluation model similar to Kirkpatrick's in that individual perception are on one end of the continuum and broad organizational changes are at the other end. They propose the following five criteria:

> (1) Self-reports of changes in the work setting,
>
> (2) Changes in attitudes, outlooks, perceptions of others, or orientation toward others,
>
> (3) Changes in self-awareness or interpersonal sensitivity,
>
> (4) Observed changes in behaviors on the job, and
>
> (5) Changes in organizational outcomes (p. 8).

Cooper and Mangham (1970) makes a further distinction in specifying criteria. They define:

> <u>Internal</u> criteria are measures linked directly to the content and processes of the training program but which do not necessarily have implications for behavior away from the program. <u>External</u> criteria are those linked directly with job behavior (p. 226).

Several behavioral scientists such as Schein and Bennis (1965), Lakin (1972) and House (1967) contend that the explicit relationship between the internal and external criteria is essential and further, that often this relationship between the effects that are measured and the process by which the effects were purportedly achieved are not explicit. Campbell (1970) states, ". . . in social sciences, focus on process should be used where possible along with a focus on effects" (p. 112). Bunker (1965), Miles (1965), and Valiquet (1968) were three studies located in the review of the literature that attempted to do this. All three studies were carefully designed and conducted and measured changes in interpersonal effectiveness on the job due to training by asking co-workers. Changes in behavior as associated with sensitivity training such as increased sensitivity, more open communication, and increased flexibility in role behavior, were obtained; however, Dunnette and Campbell (1968) contend that:

> They all suffer from the possibility of bias in the behavior change reports. This is because control groups and job behavior observers were chosen by trained subjects (p. 16).

It may be possible that the most important criteria to be evaluated in a given situation--the internal or external relationships of training, and attitudes, values and norms--cannot be gauged in terms of numbers and do not lend themselves to an empirical method of evaluation. Once criteria is specified, evaluation can determine which of the criteria can be examined using empirical methods and which can be examined using other non-empirical methods.

After specifying criteria, the next major porblem concerns instrumentation. According to Bennis, et. al. (1957):

> . . . if research instruments are to be used as a basis of prediction, they must be acutely tuned to the purposes and methods of the group. Instruments must be developed specifically for the social context under study (p. 340).

Campbell and Stanley (1964) suggest that empirical data can be gathered by the use of specific measurement instruments and this summative data can be utilized to assess the effectiveness of the project in regard to the appropriate internal criteria. However, several social scientists, such as Goldberg (1970), Harrison (1971) and Cooper and Mangham (1969) contend that scales for measuring change in psychological states are difficult to find and once found, often lack sensitivity, reliability, and applicability. Bennis, Bunker, Cutter, Harrington, and Hoffman (1957) did an exploratory study on the relationship between test scores and actual behavior. Their results indicated that the test scores did not accurately reflect actual behavior.

According to Stock (1969) the researcher is confronted with a chance between a well-established tested instrument, which has doubtful or tangential relevance to the laboratory situation, or a tailor-made but untested new instrument. Selection of instruments to measure change in participants during training may indeed be very difficult. Likewise, the selection of instruments to measure on-the-job behavior or organizational learning becomes a difficult task due to the biases that are built into rates and evaluator type measures (Dunnette and Campbell, 1968). Kirkpatrick (1967) suggests that on-the-job observations should be made by one or more of the following groups:

(1) the person receiving training

(2) his superiors or supervisors

(3) his subordinates, and/or

(4) his peers or those people thoroughly familiar with his performance (p. 101).

Measuring changes in organizational behavior is probably the most difficult to instrument. Kirkpatrick (1967) emphasizes the difficulty of establishing result parameters and controlling extraneous or intervening variables which surround the training program when he asserts that:

> From the evaluator's standpoint, it would be best to evaluate training programs directly in terms of results desired. There are, however, as many complicated factors that it is extremely difficult if not impossible to evaluate certain kinds of programs in terms of results (p. 106).

The third major problem regarding evaluation is that of design. House (1967) suggests that every effort should be made toward establishing and executing a good research design.

Dunnette and Campbell (1968) states the following three standards for scientific research with training programs:

(1) Measures of trainee's status should be obtained before and after the training experience . . . attitudinal, perceptual, and other self-report measures may prove useful,

(2) Measured changes shown by the trainees between pre- and post-training should be compared with changes, occurring in a so-called control group, and

(3) Examination of the possible interaction by the evaluation measures and the behavior of the trainee's during the program should occur (p.8).

There has been little use of research designs in evaluating the effectiveness of training projects. Cooper and Mangham (1969) found that most studies had not used the pre-post measures. Harrison (1971) comments that "the provision of adequate control groups for research on training is one of the most persistent methodological problems (p. 72).

Argyris (1968) contends there are limits to the standards stated by Dunnette and Campbell. He states that:

> . . . the scientific standards for evaluating research have limits when one attempts to generalize results to a non-experimental world; this leads to the acceptance of some evidence for effectiveness which is not acceptable and to overlook evidence that is relevant and to impute goals and motives to training and organizational development which are not necessarily valid and about which there is no evidence (p. 29).

Many social scientists, such as Weiss and Rein (1970), Frank (1958), and Argyris (1960) feel that experimental design is limited in the information it can produce. Furthermore, they believe that it can create technical and administrative problems that are so severe as to make the evaluation of questionable value. They also feel that the methodology should arise from the nature of the phenomena under study.

Lakin (1972) discusses the difficulty of using an experimental design with organizations. He states:

> The difficulty that each case of training for an organizational unit has to be considered as a separate case of one unit, no matter how many people are involved in the unit. The _W_ is really _I_; there are zero degrees of freedom; and there are no means of estimation of sampling error. Unit studies are not, however, to be abandoned as of no use . . . they are useful in generating hypothesis to guide further inquiry and provide some of the niches, intuitions, and hunches (p. 94).

This review indicates that utilization of an experimental design in some instances is difficult for various reasons. Guba (1969) states: "Evaluation as known has failed and the world of evaluation does indeed require reshaping" (p. 30). Nonetheless, alternative methodologies are continually being developed. The implications that can be drawn from this review is that pure research design for a study utilizing a total population is not the only possible model. A design that utilizes pre-post measures as well as formative and summative data is indicated as another possibility.

CHAPTER III

Methodology of the Study

A. Rationale for Experiential Leadership Training Program

Leadership opportunities for women are expanding, and women have embraced these new roles with enthusiasm. However, while women may be assuming more positions of leadership, they often are not prepared for their new responsibilities. Clements, et. al. (1977), suggest reasons for women being ill-prepared in these positions. They note that although women who aspire to leadership positions are directly competing with men, women are not socialized to have high career expectations and unlike men, this could lead them to become ambivalent about their professional careers. This, as well as other factors, often lead to inappropriate leadership development among women.

Women are also experiencing a great demand for leadership in their personal lives because of expanding opportunities in careers and extended involvement in interest outside the traditional household roles. Because of this multiplicity of roles, she must exercise considerably more leadership and direction. For this reason, as well as the fact that, when women do seek to attain leadership status, they are pursuing a role that most often is running counter to their socialization process. It is important for women to participate in leadership training to help prepare them for the responsibilities of being in leadership positions.

The results of a leadership training survey on women management trainees by Underwood (1977), that addressed the issue of leadership training for women managers, pointed out that women who aspire to management careers needed special training. The training, as she saw it, should consist of skills in assertiveness training, interpersonal and communication skills training, and decision-making. These are areas not covered by usual on-the-job technical or management skills training programs.

Richards (1975), in a leadership training project for women, where goals were to provide participants with knowledge and training skills for Educational Management, found that on the basis of posttest evaluations, the participants judged themselves to be stronger in skills such as interpersonal communication, decision-making, and solving group conflict. In a further study, Britton (1976) presented a workshop model for leadership and self-development skills for women, with the activities of the workshops aimed at creating an awareness of the participant's role as potential leaders as well as increasing leadership skills. Evidence suggested that women who participated in the workshop exhibited more of these leadership qualities after the workshop than before.

Kayle and Scheele (1975) conducted a survey of sixty leadership training programs for women which revealed two types of program being offered. The first is a Life Planning Model, which teaches women skills that enable them to take charge of their lives. The second type of program is specific management or organizational skill program which focuses on areas such as public relations, management finance, writing and conducting meetings. However, in these programs, no attention seems to be given to the individual woman and her leadership style, her special needs in this area, or teaching women how to function in leadership capacities.

There seem to be a need for leadership training programs for women because of expanding leadership opportunities in careers, inappropriate leadership development, and extended involvement in interest outside traditional roles. Leadership Training Programs and workshops that do exist have met some of the developmental needs of women in terms of life skills and specific management skills, but they have failed to focus on teaching women the functional aspects of leadership skills utilizing organizational and management concepts.

The Experiential Leadership Training Program presented here will provide a context for participants to not only learn about their own leadership behavior, but also to experience themselves in a leadership capacity utilizing organizational concepts in a learning situation. The experiential model of learning is being used for this leadership training program because very seldom do women get the opportunity to participate in leadership training where they are afforded the privilege to focus on their direct experiences of themselves and their inductive processes in a leadership development program.

This approach is based on the premise that experience precedes learning and that learning or meaning, to derive, from any experience comes from the learners themselves. "Any individuals' experience is unique to themselves; no one can tell them what they have learned, or gained, from any learning activity (Pfieffer and Jones, 1972).

B. Goals of the Experiential Leadership Training Program

In addition to being a tool that provides leadership skills learning for women, the Experiential Leadership Training Program will encompass the following objectives:

1. To provide an opportunity for participants to experience their different modes of communicating.

2. To provide an opportunity for participants to get feedback on their own style of interpersonal communicating.

3. To familiarize participants with the definitions of aggressive, assertive, non-assertive, and non-assertive aggressive behaviors.

4. To provide participants with an opportunity to both practice assertive skills and reduce anxiety about acting assertively.

5. To provide some basic information on the nature of the design of decision processes in organizations.

6. To provide participants with the opportunity to familiarize themselves with some characteristics and variables known to be important to any group.

7. To provide participants with the opportunity to learn about the task-related factors that influence team effectiveness and also to experience the impact of these factors upon team functioning.

8. To provide participants with an opportunity for them to become aware of their own style of handling conflict.

9. To allow participants to focus on their direct experiences of themselves in the various workshops by sharing and discussing with other participants.

10. To provide a mechanism for participants to use and apply principles gained from various workshops.

C. Description of the Experiential Leadership Training Program

Listed below are the five workshops that will comprise the Experiential Leadership Training Program. A more detailed description of each experientially designed workshop is presented in Appendix I.

Workshop I	Interpersonal Communication
Workshop II	Assertiveness Training
Workshop III	Decision-Making
Workshop IV	Managing Work Team Effectiveness
Workshop V	Managing Group Conflict

D. Procedure

Setting

The study was conducted at a large urban university in a training program for counselors, mental health therapists, supervisors, and counselor educators. A three credit course met for three and a half hours per week, during the seven week spring session, 1981, academic year.

Sample Population

The subjects for this study were undergraduate, female, Continuing Education Students drawn from a large urban university. These women have reentered the educational system after leaving it for time periods ranging from only a few years to as many as twenty or more years. Their ages range from 25 years to 45 years. Forty-six (46) subjects took part in the study.

Selection

The subjects were volunteers who elected to take a three credit course through their response to advertisement for the class posted throughout the university (See Appendix H). The subjects were not informed of the fact that this was a research study until the first meeting. They could then decide whether they wanted to participate in the Project and serve as research subjects or take the course in the future at a time when the course would not be used for research purposes. All the subjects that enrolled in the class served as research subjects.

Design of the Study

The research design for this study was the Compromise Experimental Group--Control Group Design (Kerlinger, 1964). Randomization was not utilized in this study; as a result, this design could be subject to weakness due to the possible lack of equivalence between the groups in variables other than treatment.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} Y_b & X & Y_a \\ \hline Y_b & \sim X & Y_a \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{(Experimental)} \\ \text{(Control)} \end{array}$$

With this design, possible sources of contamination of posttest data could result from interactions between such variables as selection and maturation of the treatment and control groups. Specifically, if there is a difference between selection of treatment and control group, difference in experience background of treatment and control groups, and differences in the sample population of treatment and control groups.

Subjects that responded to advertisement for this study comprised the experimental group. Advertisement for the study was circulated and posted for subjects from the same population, undergraduate Continuing Education Women Students at a large urban university, to comprise the control group. Following is a list of weaknesses encountered when using this design as well as the techniques to be used in this study to compensate for these weaknesses.

Design Weaknesses	Techniques to Compensate for Weaknesses
(1) Selection: Experimental group selected through advertisement. Volunteers	(1) Advertise for control group from within same population as experimental group.
a) Interest and motivation factors of experimental group.	a) Control group subjects response to advertisement for study denotes interest and motivation same as experimental group.
b) Similarity of recruitment of experimental and control groups.	b) Control group will be volunteers same as experimental group.
(2) Regression	(2) Treatment and control group from same population.
(3) Maturation	(3) Control group from same population as experimental group.
a) difference in experience background of experimental and control groups.	a) <u>similarities</u> will be checked using profile of subjects in experimental group, i.e., undergraduate, female, between ages of 25-45 years, etc.
	(4) Equivalence will be tested by comparing pretest mean.

Instruments of the Study

Measures of formative data was used in this study. "Evaluative Research," 1970 states, "Evaluation should be a continuous process because its findings can serve to modify goals and help to redesign certain aspects of the program," (p. 159). Consequently, evaluation data in the form of Clinical Notes and a Group Reaction Form were used throughout the program.

Clinical Notes taken by an independent observer were used to provide descriptive data of training procedure. These notes served to provide feedback to facilitator as to whether the activities that comprised the workshops were indeed following the procedures of the study and, to also assist facilitator in recognizing any adjustments that might be appropriate as the program was being implemented. After each workshop, facilitator discussed clinical notes with the independent observer before beginning the next workshop. The format for the clinical notes is: (1) the activity engaged in, (2) the process created by the activity, (3) the outcomes, and (4) clinical comments. (A description of clinical notes form is presented in Appendix D)

Group Reaction Form was used to provide feedback from participants after each workshop as to their assessment of the elements and processes of each workshop, to determine whether the workshop provided for a participatory learning experience, and any comments and/or recommendations for future sessions. (A description of group reaction form is presented in Appendix E)

Summative data is information collected after the program to evaluate the overall success of the training program. The summative measures were administered on a pretest/posttest basis and collected from a personal journal that was submitted at the end of the program.

Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description Inventory. (LEAD) was developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1972) and is designed to measure self-perception of three aspects of leadership behavior which are style, style range, and style adaptability or effectiveness. Style is the consistent pattern of behavior that is exhibited when one attempts to influence the activities of people. Style range is the extent to which one perceives their ability to vary their leadership style. Style adaptability is the degree to which leadership behavior is appropriate to the demands of a given situation.

The inventory itself consisted of 12 leadership situation items that theoretically called for one of four basic leadership styles. The Quadrants are:

Quadrant 1	High Task and Low Relationship Behavior
Quadrant 2	High Task and High Relationship Behavior
Quadrant 3	High Relationship and Low Task Behavior
Quadrant 4	Low Relationship and Low Task Behavior

Dominant leadership style is defined as the quadrant in which the most response fall. Supporting style is the leadership style that is used on occasion. The frequency of responses in quadrants other than that of dominant leadership style suggest the number and degree of supporting styles as perceived by person taking inventory. At least two responses in a quadrant are necessary for a style to be considered a supporting style.

Style range is analyzed by examining the quadrants in which response to the LEAD occur, as well as the frequency of these occurrences. If responses fall only in one quadrant, this is perceived as a limit to range of leadership behavior.

The degree of style adaptability or effectiveness that is indicated for one's self as a leader is determined by identifying the alternative action choices in the different quadrants and calculating a total score. A weighing of a +2 to -2 is based on behavioral science concepts, theories, and empirical research. The leadership behavior with the highest probability of success is always weighted a +2. The behavior with the lowest probability of success is always weighted a -2. The second-best alternative is weighted a +1 and the third a -1.

The Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model of leadership behavior presented in Part A of the review of literature is the theoretical framework on which the LEAD instrument is based. (A description of the LEAD instrument is presented in Appendix F)

A Personal Journal was collected from participants after the training to provide some feedback as to which areas of the training had special meaning for them, and any thoughts, reflections, feelings pertaining to Satisfaction of Training and Personal Change development during the course of the program. A Personal Journal format was distributed to participants at the beginning of the program. (This format is presented in Appendix G)

Data Gathering Procedures of the Study

The procedures used in gathering data is as follows:

1. The Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description Inventory was administered to participants before the Experiential Leadership Training Program and again at its completion.

2. Clinical Notes were recorded by an independent observer after each individual workshop to aid in assessing whether the training was following established procedures of the study.

3. Group Reaction Form was administered to participants after each individual workshop to receive any feedback that pertained to the elements and processes of the workshops of the training.

4. Personal Journal* was collected from participants after the training program. The information in the journal consisted of:

    a. A written record that reflected and expressed what participants did, thought, and felt during the Experiential Leadership Training Program.

    b. Any statements that reflected participants' thoughts, reactions, or feelings towards Satisfaction of Training.

    c. Any statments that reflected participants' thoughts, reactions, or feeling towards Personal Change Development during the course of the program.

*Participants were encouraged to make entries in journal after each workshop.

Delimitation of Study

1. No generalizations regarding findings and conclusions can be made to other populations.
2. The training program was not pilot tested.
3. Time (Five workshops during seven week 1981 spring session, three and a half hours per week)
4. Evaluation of the outcomes was based on a pretest/posttest Leadership Inventory, self-reported data, and an independent observer's assessment of training process. The validity and reliability of some of these measures are not established.

Limitations of Study

1. Time dimensions associated with the training program.
2. Sample population constraints.
3. Possible contamination factors of outcome and results.
   (a) dual role of researcher/facilitator
   (b) difference in sex of facilitator and subjects, i.e., biases of facilitator/subjects.
4. The degree of reliability and validity of instruments is limited.
5. No follow-up to measure long-term effects of the training or participants behavior.

The Evaluation Questions

In an attempt to evaluate the overall effectiveness of the program, the following evaluation questions were raised.

1. What are the evidences that provide feedback as to how well participants liked the training program?

This question was examined through Content Analysis of the Group Reaction Forms and Personal Journals collected throughout and at the end of the program.

2. What are the evidences to support that personal change among participants occurred during the time span of the training program?

This question was examined through Content Analysis of the Group Reaction Form and Personal Journals collected throughout the program. This question was also examined by analyzing the scores from the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description Inventory.

3. What are the evidences which demonstrate that participants in the training program show an increase in attributes that are important to the development of increased perception of leadership behavior?

This question was examined through Content Analysis of the Clinical Notes of the independent observer, Pretest and Posttest measures for individual workshops, and Application of Learning exercises for individual workshops.

4. What were participant's assessment of the training procedures and the facilitator's performance during the formative stages of the program's development?

This question was answered through Content Analysis of the Group Reaction Form and the independent observer's comments from the Objective Clinical Notes collected throughout the training program.

E. Analysis of Data

The present study analyzed the data gathered during the training program. The subjects who participated in the training were volunteers and they completed the measuring instruments at the beginning, during, and at the end of the program. The pretest and posttest scores of the Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD) Inventory were analyzed using Crosstabulation, Frequency Distribution, and Gain Scores to determine significant differences between experimental and control groups at the p.05 level.

Content Analysis was conducted on Group Reaction Form for participants' assessment of the elements and processes of each workshop, Personal Journal for participants' thoughts and reflections on Satisfaction of Training and Personal Change development, and Independent Observer's Clinical Notes for feedback as to whether the activities that comprised program were following the procedural steps of the study.

CHAPTER IV

Presentation and Analysis of Data

The Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD) Inventory was used as a pre and post assessment to measure whether participants had achieved significant increase in their self-perception of three aspects of leadership behavior. Additional support instruments used to measure these changes were: Clinical Notes, Group Reaction Form, and Personal Journal.

The data is presented under the following headings: Comparison of Two Groups on LEAD Inventory, Data Relating to Satisfaction of Training, Data Relating to Personal Change, Data Relating to Self-Perception Development, and Data Relating to Assessment of Training Procedures.

A. Comparison of Two Groups on LEAD Inventory

Hypothesis One: There will be no difference between the experimental and control groups in their change in self-perception of leadership style.

The method used to test hypothesis one was Crosstabulation. Pre and posttest responses for the experimental and control groups were crosstabulated to determine the number of participants that did not produce any change in self-perception of dominant leadership style.

Experimental and control group responses are presented in Tables 1 and 2. As shown in Table 3, the differences between the groups were not significant. However, in the

Table 1

Crosstabulation of Pre and Posttest Responses of Experimental Group on Dominant Leadership Style

Dom. 2 (Post)

Count--Top Number
Row %--Bottom Number

Dom. 1 (Pre)	0	1	2	3	4	Row Total
1.	0 0.0	*0 0.0	5 100.0	0 0.0	0 0.0	5 21.7
2.	1 10.0	1 10.0	*6 60.0	2 20.0	0 0.0	10 43.5
3.	0 0.0	0 0.0	2 50.0	*2 50.0	0 0.0	4 17.4
4.	1 25.0	0 0.0	1 25.0	1 25.0	*1 25.0	4 17.4
Column Total	2 8.7	1 4.3	14 60.9	5 21.7	1 4.3	23 100.0

*(No change in self-perception)

Table 2

Crosstabulation of Pre and Posttest Responses of Control Group on Dominant Leadership Style

Dom. 2 (Post)

Count--Top Number
Row %--Bottom Number

Dom. 1 (Pre)	0	1	2	3	4	Row Total
1.	1 25.0	*2 50.0	1 25.0	0 0.0	0 0.0	4 17.4
2.	1 8.3	1 8.3	*9 75.0	1 8.3	0 0.0	12 52.2
3.	0 0.0	1 33.3	2 66.7	*0 0.0	0 0.0	3 13.0
4.	0 0.0	0 0.0	1 25.0	1 25.0	*2 50.0	4 17.4
Column Total	2 8.7	4 17.4	13 56.5	2 8.7	2 8.7	23 100.0

*(No change in self-perception)

Table 3

Summary of Dominant Leadership Response Data

		Did Not Change	Z-Value
Experimental Group	N=23	9	1.181*
Control Group	N=23	13	

*No significance at .05 level

experimental group, 9 out of 23 participants (39%) did not experience any change in self-perception of leadership style. In the control group, 13 out of 23 participants (57%) did not experience any change in self-perception.

In other words, 14 out of 23 participants (61%) of the experimental group did experience change in self-perception, correspondingly, 10 out of 23 participants (43%) of the control group experienced change in their self-perception. This suggests that a higher proportion of participants in the experimental group experienced change than in the control group, even though results were not significant.

<u>Hypothesis Two</u>: There will be no difference between the experimental group and control group in their change in self-perception of style range.

The method used to test hypothesis two was a Frequency Distribution. A frequency distribution was made for both experimental and control groups of the number of participants that did not change their self-perception of style range between pre and posttests. For the experimental group, 12 out of 23 or 52% did not show change; in the control group, 17 out of 23 or 74% did not show any change. The means were 0.217 for the experimental group and 0.130 for the control group.

Although 11 out of 23 or 48% of experimental group experienced change and only 6 out of 23 or 22% of control group experienced change in self-perception, this was not enough of a difference to prove significance. The only suggestion the evidence provides is that a higher proportion of experimental group experienced change than control group in self-perception of style range.

Hypothesis Three: There will be no difference between the experimental and control groups in their change in self-perception of style effectiveness or adaptability.

The method used to test hypothesis three was Gain Scores. A calculation of gain scores between pre and post-test results are presented in Table 4. As can be seen, the differences were not significant.

This was due in part to the adjustment made for the differences in the Standard Deviations of both groups in the results. Because of the size of the sample, N=23, and Standard Deviation differences, a separate variance estimate was used after initial calculation of gain scores. The initial F-value score of 3.61 was significant but after calculating the separate variance estimate, the T-value was -1.46 which was not significant at p.05 level.

B. Data Relating to Satisfaction of Training

Content Analysis was conducted on Group Reaction Form and Personal Journal to answer evaluation question number one: What are the evidences that provide feedback as to how well participants liked the training program?

A Group Reaction Form was given to participants after each of the five workshops. Question number one of the group reaction form addressed the issue of Satisfaction of Training. Responses to this question for each participant, for each workshop are summarized in Table 5. Column one represents

Table 4

Summary of Leadership Adaptability Scores Data

	Number of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	F Value	2-Tail Prob.	Separate Variance Estimate		
						T Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
Experimental Group	23	8.3478	19.064	3.61*	.004	-1.46**	33.31	0.153
Control Group	23	1.7826	10.027					

*significant at p.05 level

**not significant at p.05 level

mean = difference in pre and post Gain Scores

Table 5

Summary of Group Reaction Form Responses for Each Workshop

N=23

Question Number	(1) Satisfied w/Workshop		(3) Felt free to Participate		(4) Felt restrained in any way from Participating		(5) Learned Anything About Self?		(6) Were objectives of Workshop met?		(7) Derive any practical application from Workshop?	
	VD	SD	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Workshop I	1	2	19	4	2	21	20	3	19	4	20	3
	SS	QS										
	2	18										
Workshop II	2	1	20	3	1	22	23	0	21	2	22	1
	1	19										
Workshop III	0	1	20	3	2	21	23	0	22	1	22	1
	3	19										
Workshop IV	0	1	21	2	1	22	22	1	22	1	22	1
	2	20										
Workshop V	0	0	22	1	0	23	23	0	23	0	21	2
	2	21										

VD - Very Dissatisfied
SD - Somewhat Dissatisfied
SS - Somewhat Satisfied
QS - Quite Satisfied

total group responses to this question for the five workshops. Except for workshop three, there seemed to be a constant increase in the number of participants that were Quite Satisfied (QS) with training in proportion to the total group, as the workshops continued. The number of participants that were Very Dissatisfied (VD), Somewhat Dissatisfied (SD), or Somewhat Satisfied (SS) in the initial stages of the training, showed a pattern of becoming more satisfied with training as the workshops progressed.

An average of 19 out of 23 or 82% of participants consistently felt Quite Satisfied (QS) about training for the five workshops. This evidence indicated that participants were generally satisfied with training.

This question was also examined using the Personal Journal that participants kept during the training program. Content Analysis of Personal Journals was conducted for statements that related to participants' thoughts, reactions, expressions, or reflection on Satisfaction of Training. Only statements that constituted the highest level of references to Satisfaction of Training were categorized. The number of statements for each participant for each workshop were tallied and the results are listed in Table 6.

The numbers in the first column (X) for each workshop represents the total number of responses for each participant for each workshop, on the issue of Satisfaction of Training. When responses from workshop five are compared with responses from workshop one, the number of responses have doubled

Table 6

Summary of References to Satisfaction of Training and Personal Change in Personal Journal Entries for Each Workshop

Participants	Workshop I X	Y	Workshop II X	Y	Workshop III X	Y	Workshop IV X	Y	Workshop V X	Y
A	2	1	1	2	0	3	2	1	2	4
B	0	2	0	1	1	2	2	3	1	2
C	1	1	2	2	1	2	1	0	2	2
D	2	2	2	3	3	2	2	3	4	3
E	0	1	1	2	1	2	1	3	1	3
F	2	1	1	3	2	4	0	2	2	4
G	1	0	1	1	2	2	3	2	3	3
H	1	1	1	1	1	3	0	1	2	3
I	2	1	0	1	2	2	1	2	2	2
J	0	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	1
K	1	1	2	0	2	2	1	3	2	3
L	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	3	2	2
M	0	0	0	1	2	1	1	2	2	2
N	1	2	2	1	1	2	0	1	1	1
O	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
P	0	1	1	2	2	2	2	1	2	3
Q	1	0	1	2	1	2	2	2	2	2
R	2	2	1	3	2	2	1	3	2	3
S	0	1	0	1	1	2	2	2	2	1
T	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	2	2	2
U	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3
V	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	3	2	2
W	1	2	2	1	1	1	2	2	1	3
Total	22	27	25	37	35	45	34	47	44	58

X = No. of statements that reflected expressions, thoughts, feelings, or reactions about Satisfaction of Training

Y = No. of statements that reflected expressions, thoughts, feelings, or reactions about Personal Change indicating that participants showed an increase in journal statements that pertained to Satisfaction of Training as workshops progressed. With the exception of workshop four, there was a consistent increase in the number and percentage of participant statements that focused on the area of Satisfaction of Training. Between 17-22 or an average of 84% of participant responses consistently indicated an increasing reflection of statements pertaining to their reaction to the issue Satisfaction of Training from workshop one to workshop five.

These results indicate that as the workshops evolved, the issue of Satisfaction of Training became more of a meaningful issue for participants. As participants were progressing in their understanding of themselves and their self-perception, the value of the training was becoming more evident. An average of 20 out of 23 or 86% of participants expressed positive Satisfaction of Training for the five workshops.

In summary, Content Analysis data of Group Reaction Form and Personal Journal strongly support the contention that there was consistent, positive, and total group movement towards Satisfaction of Training by participants during the course of the training program.

C. Data Relating to Personal Change

Content Analysis was conducted on Group Reaction Form and Personal Journal also Crosstabulation, Frequency Distribution, and Gain Score data of the Leader Effectiveness

Adaptability Description (LEAD) Inventory was analyzed to answer evaluation question number two: What are the evidences to support the contention that Personal Change occurred during the time span of the training program?

Questions five and seven on the Group Reaction Form addressed the issue of Personal Change during the training. Responses to this question for each participant for each workshop are summarized in Table 5. Columns five and seven represents total group responses to <u>learning about self</u> and <u>practical applications derived from workshops</u>.

It was assumed that if participants indicated they learned something about themselves and given the nature of the training model which utilized the participants' inductive processes where participants discover for themselves the learning being offered (See Appendix C). It would follow, that any learning, discoveries, or change that is acknowledged would have to involve personal change to the individual. Likewise for <u>practical application derived from workshops</u>, the training model specifies that participants (learning) experiences are unique to them; no one can tell them what they will learn or gain from any activity (Pfieffer & Jones, 1972). The <u>participant</u> is the only one to validate any learning that has taken place.

Columns five and seven of Table 5 show that between 18-23 or an average of 93% of participants for both questions consistently felt that for each workshop that learning took place for them and practical applications were derived from the training. This is being taken as evidence that participants did indeed experience Personal Change during training. However, no attempt was being made to specify kinds or degrees of personal change, only to acknowledge the fact that participants' validation of learning and derived practical applications denoted some form of personal change for participants taking training.

Content Analysis was conducted on Personal Journals for statements that related to participant's thoughts, reactions, expressions, or reflections on Personal Change in any form. Only statements that constituted the highest level of reference to Personal Change were categorized. The number of statements for each participant for each workshop were tallied and the results are listed in Table 6.

In Table 6 the numbers in the second column (Y) for each workshop represents the total number of journal entry responses for each participant for each workshop, on the issue of Personal Change. The number of statements that reflected on Personal Change increased for each succeeding workshop and the rate of increase was fairly constant. When workshop 5 is compared to workshop 1, the number of statements pertaining to Personal Change are more than double. This reflected participants gaining more insight about the training process as the workshops continued and understanding that any learning that would take place would have to be initiated by each individual. The range of references to Personal Change went from statements reflecting defensive attitudes, noncooperation, and some participants seeing no importance in workshop content during workshop 1, to many participants actually experiencing feelings, emotions, and gaining knowledge that allowed them to find out information about themselves that was unknown prior to their participation in the training program in workshop 5.

The Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD) Inventory was also used to examine this question. Empirical data were collected before and after the training to examine participants' change in self-perception of style, style range, and style adaptability. Pretest and posttest measures were obtained for each aspect of leadership behavior, for each participant. The data on leadership style was crosstabulated for both experimental and control groups to determine the number of participants that did not change their self-perception of leadership style between pre and posttest measurements. The results showed that 9 out of 23 or 39% of participants in the experimental group did not experience change, while 13 out of 23 or 57% of control group did not show change. A Z-value of 1.181 was obtained from the differences between the scores of both groups. This was not significant at the p.05 level of significance. Results appear in Table 3.

The data on style range was submitted to a Frequency Distribution for both experimental and control groups. The Frequency Distribution plotted the number of both groups that did not change their self-perception of leadership style range. The results showed that for the experimental group, 12 out of

23 or 52% of participants did not show change, while in the control group, 17 out of 23 or 74% did not show change. These results did not provide any conclusive evidence other than more participants in the experimental group showed change than in control group, in absolute numbers.

The data on style adaptability was analyzed by use of Gain Scores. A calculation of pre and posttest gain scores for the experimental and control groups was performed. The results appear in Table 4. The differences were significant with an F-value and 2-tailed probability of .004, a mean of 8.3478 and standard deviation of 19.064 for experimental group, and a mean of 1.7826 and standard deviation of 10.027 for the control group. But, the differences between the standard deviations of both groups necessitated a further computation adjustment. A <u>separate variance estimate</u> was performed and the results showed a T-value of -1.46, 33.31 degrees of freedom, and 2-tailed probability of 0.153. These results were not significant at the p.05 level of significance.

In summary, the scores of the Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD) Inventory did not indicate that the training caused significant Personal Change among participants. Although, the pattern of change that did present itself, was one of a consistent higher proportion in absolute numbers and percentages favoring the experimental group over the control group.

D. Data Relating to Self-Perception Development

Content Analysis was conducted on the Independent Observer's Clinical Notes and Participants' Application of Learning notes to examine evaluation question number three: What are the evidences which demonstrate that participants in the training program showed an increase in attributes that are important to the development of increased perception of leadership behavior?

Clinical Notes were used by an independent observer to provide feedback as to whether the activities that comprised the training program were indeed following the procedures established for the study. A copy of Independent Observer's Clinical Notes form is presented in Appendix K. The format for the clinical notes were activity engaged in, process created by activity, outcomes, and clinical comments.

Bem (1970) states that individuals come to "know" their own attitudes, emotions, and other internal states partially by inferring them from observation of their own overt behavior and/or the circumstances in which their behavior occurs. . . . (p. 1) This is the premise on which self-perception development was examined by clinical notes. The experiential learning model was an <u>ideal</u> vehicle for giving participants an opportunity to observe their overt behavior and from this observation became aware of their own attitudes and perceptions.

The Outcome and Clinical Comments data of the clinical notes showed that:

1. By watching their behavior and focusing on self-perception, participants were able to become conscious of their feelings and emotions about their behavior and its effect on others. (Some participants did express difficulty with the process of consciously observing their overt behavior)

2. As workshops progressed, the discussion part of various workshop activities centered on process instead of content. Participants began to focus more on the circumstances in which their behaviors occurred.

3. Many participants expressed during discussions that they were able to experience themselves changing perceptions of their behavior after observing this behavior consciously.

4. Many participants expressed surprise that they exhibited cooperative behavior in group situations during the training program activities. These participants indicated, in discussions, that they were usually competitive in group task situations.

The analysis of the outcomes and comment section of the clinical notes support the contention that self-perception development was taking place during the developing stages of the training.

Participant's Application of Learning Notes were also used to examine this question. The application of learning process is the final step in the cycle of the Experiential Learning Model. The experiential learning process is not complete until a new learning or discovery is used and tested behaviorally. To this end, Application of Learning forms were completed by each participant after each workshop. The purpose being to provide an opportunity for participants to focus on any learning they might have derived from a particular workshop. This would also allow participants to apply learning to concrete situations in which they were then or would be involved in in the future. Application of Learning forms for each workshop appear in Appendix J.

When Content Analysis was conducted on the Application of Learning notes for each workshop, the group showed consistency in filling out forms, identifying principles learned and applying these principles to their own unique situation (any situation in their lives where they might feel that the principles of leadership presented in the workshops, might be applicable for them). The pattern of responses went from a general tone of: participants having a hard time focusing on themselves or any learnings in workshop one; to many participants examining their perceptions and concluding that they could possibly be more flexible in their leadership behavior, especially, in terms of their behavior's effect on others in workshop five.

Content Analysis of the Application of Learning Notes also showed that participants were actively trying to apply principles learned in various workshops to their own personal situations. The facilitator spent time with any participant who requested help during this process to help participants clarify and reach conclusions on any conflicting problems that might have evolved.

This is the evidence offered by the Application of Learning Notes data to support the contention that development of self-perception of behavior was occurring during developing stages of training.

E. Data Relating to Assessment of Training Procedures

Content Analysis was conducted on the Group Reaction Form and Independent Observer's Clinical Notes to answer evaluation question number four: What were participant's assessment of the training procedures and facilitator's performance during the developing stages of the training program's development?

Content Analysis was conducted on items three, four, and six of the Group Reaction Form to provide evidence to this question. When using the Experiential Learning Model, any learning that takes place is the responsibility of the participant. So it is important for the training procedures to provide a framework and environment in which learning can take place. It is equally important for the facilitator to be able to focus learning from the various activities, for each individual where appropriate.

Since one of the focuses of this investigation was self-perception, it was extremely important for participants to feel that they were in a <u>safe</u> space, to allow themselves to focus on themselves in this respect. With this in mind, during the developing stages of training, participants would have had to continue to experience this type of environment to complete the learning process. Participants would have also had to consistently feel that training procedures and facilitator's role was maintaining consistency for them to continue to apply themselves throughout the training program. In Table 5, Columns three, four, and six shows that for the five workshops, the majority of participants uniformly felt free to participate in the various workshops and they also felt that objectives of workshops were being continually met. The range of participants that responded in this way remained constant in absolute and percentage terms throughout the developing stages of the training program.

Content Analysis was performed on Independent Observer's Clinical Notes to also examine this question. The independent observer was a female non-participant whose responsibility was to assess the training procedures and facilitator's role, using the Clinical Notes form. The results from the independent observer's notes showed that the training procedures and facilitator's role was consistent throughout training. The fact that the facilitator was male didn't present any unnecessary problems, according to notes. However, there was one issue of programmatic substance that evolved from independent observer's notes. This issue revolved around focusing more on the Experiential Learning Model with participant in the beginning of training. The observer felt that more time should have been spent on explaining the model and its differences from other Traditional Learning Models. The facilitator agreed with this suggestion.

CHAPTER V

Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

A. Summary

The purpose of this study was to design, implement and evaluate an Experiential Leadership Training Program for Continuing Education Women Students. This study was also designed to provide a rationale, theory, and a model that would allow participants to assess their self-perception of leadership behavior. Through utilization of this program, it was expected that participants would not only learn about their own leadership behavior, but also experience themselves in a leadership capacity utilizing organizational concepts in a learning situation.

The study was conducted at a large urban university. The participants were comprised of continuing education women students who elected to take a three credit course given in the Spring Session of 1981 academic year. The course met for one session per week, each session was three and a half hours for seven weeks. Twenty-three Continuing Education Women Students, one facilitator, and one female independent observer participated in the program.

Data collection techniques used in this study were: (a) Pretesting and posttesting participants before and after the leadership training program, using the Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD) Inventory; (b) Clinical Notes from Independent Observer, which were used to provide feedback on the procedures of the study during the developing stages of the program; (c) Group Reaction Forms which were used to provide any feedback from participants in relation to the elements and processes of each workshop; and (d) Personal Journal entries from each workshop which included information pertaining to each individual's thoughts and reflections as they related to Satisfaction of Training and Personal Change development.

The author used the following to analyze the data: Crosstabulation, Frequency Distribution, Gain Scores for the Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD) Inventory, and Content Analysis for Clinical Notes, Group Reaction Form, and Personal Journal.

The data collected during the training program provided information which allowed some conclusions about participants' reactions to: (1) Satisfaction of Training; (2) Progressive Self-Perception Development; (3) Personal Change, and (4) Assessment of Training Procedures and Facilitator's performance.

B. Conclusions

The design of the program provided the necessary framework for participants to learn about their leadership behavior and also experience themselves in leadership roles utilizing organizational concepts. The training incorporated the necessary elements for participants to focus on their direct experiences of themselves and their inductive learning processes in a leadership development program.

The basic premise of the design, the Experiential Learning Model, is that any learning is subjectively validated. In view of this, subjective and objective learning measurements were instituted throughout the implementation and evaluation stages of the study. The validation of learning measurements were Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD) Inventory, Group Reaction Form, Personal Journal, and Application of Learning process notes.

The objectives of the training program were generally realized with the participants during the workshops. Most participants were able to show more awareness of self-perception of their behavior after completing the leadership skills learning workshops. They were able to show this improvement by being in a learning situation that provided organizational leadership concepts as tools and <u>safe</u> atmosphere which allowed for self evaluation. The effective interaction of these two processes was a major factor in the effectiveness that was attained during the training. The <u>focusing of learning</u> by the facilitator for individual participants was also instrumental, in that, it allowed the opportunity for individuals to examine, to whatever degree, their attitudes and emotions towards their self-perception of their behavior.

Self-perception of behavior appeared to be affected by the progressing familiarity and comfortableness of the training design exhibited by participants. In other words, as participants gained more understanding of their responsibility for learning and a <u>safe</u> environment was maintained, Content Analysis data showed, there was consistent positive increase in awareness of self-perception as the workshops progressed. Participants were allowed to focus upon their own self-perception of behavior, attribute it to themselves, examine it, and deal with appropriate changes of this self-perception as they saw necessary. This is consistent with Bem's theory of self-perception as it relates to change (See Review of Literature, Part C).

The evaluation tools utilized in this study varied in their amount of usefulness as measuring devices. The Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD) Inventory was useful in that it measured self-perception of three aspects of leadership behavior (style, style range, and style adaptability); it was short and easy to administer. The LEAD Inventory scores reflected movement towards more awareness of self-perception of behavior for a higher proportion of the experimental group than control group. This was a consistent pattern for all three set of scores, although, differences between groups were not significant at p.05 level.

Clinical Notes, Group Reaction Form, and Personal Journal presented evidence that the design and implementation strategies employed in the training enhanced the overall effectiveness of the program. The basic format of the Clinical Notes provided an opportunity for an independent observer to assess training procedures continually. While Clinical Notes are not unbiased, the use of the independent observer appeared to have provided an appropriate objective insight into the activities involved in the various workshops.

The Group Reaction Forms allowed for participant feedback during the developing stages of the training in a manner that allowed individuals to respond to implementation strategies of the workshops. Participants' ongoing reactions to the elements and processes of the various workshops were instrumental in maintaining the appropriate learning environment for the group.

Individual Personal Journal entries provided insight into the areas of training that had special meaning for each participant. But more specifically, the journal entries provided statements that revealed participants' thoughts and reflections regarding Satisfaction of Training and Personal Change.

The analysis of data included Crosstabulation, Frequency Distribution, Gain Scores, and Content Analysis. Crosstabulation, frequency distribution, and gain score data showed no significant differences for the three hypotheses presented in the study, between the experimental and control groups. The Content Analysis data showed that participants liked the training, there was evidence to support personal change, progressive self-perception development, and positive assessment of training procedures and facilitator's performance was given by participants. These conclusions were evidenced by various descriptive measurements as presented in Chapter IV Results of Study. Although Crosstabulation, Frequency Distribution, and Gain Score data failed to produce significant results between groups, there did exist a consistent pattern of the highest proportion of change being experienced by the experimental group over the control group for the data that was presented.

The analysis system as a whole appeared to be adequate. The reason for no significant differences for Crosstabulation, Frequency Distribution, and Gain Score data appeared to be the results of problems in the design and implementation strategies rather than the analytic techniques themselves. Given the focus of the study (self-perception), Content Analysis was useful in assessing the self-reported data of the Group Reaction Forms, Personal Journals, and Independent Observer's Clinical Notes. This analytic technique allowed for systematic observation, measurement, and quantification of participants' and independent observer's responses to these instruments.

Three possible reasons for no significant differences between groups for the Crosstabulation, Frequency Distribution and Gain Score data could have been due to limited sample size, insufficient time span between pre and posttests, and lack of follow-up evaluative measurements to assess long term learning. The focus of this study and nature of the design dictates that for the training program to be more effective, these three elements will have to be addressed in design and implementation strategies.

C. Recommendations

Recommendations for further study are as follows:

1. Future implementation of this model should include follow-up assessment tools to measure long term learning due to the design of the study. The essence of the experiential design is that different people learn different things at different times. It is possible that the time frame used for this training program was inadequate to measure <u>full learning</u> from this model.

2. The time span of training may need to be increased from the present seven week format to 10-12 weeks to allow for more time in between pre and posttest measures.

3. In order to ensure maximum results between the statistical measurement and analytic techniques of this study, a large sample population may be necessary.

4. An orientation to the Experiential Learning Model may need to be included in the early agenda of training. The sooner participants understand the <u>responsibility of learning</u> with this model, the quicker learning can be facilitated.

5. Given the nature of the design of this study (experiential) and focus of the study (self-perception), alternative forms of data collection may need to be employed to aid in assessing subjective validated learning, i.e., taping, video taping.

6. Personal Journals should be retained as data collection instruments because they provide subjective validation of learning information not obtainable from the other instruments of the study.

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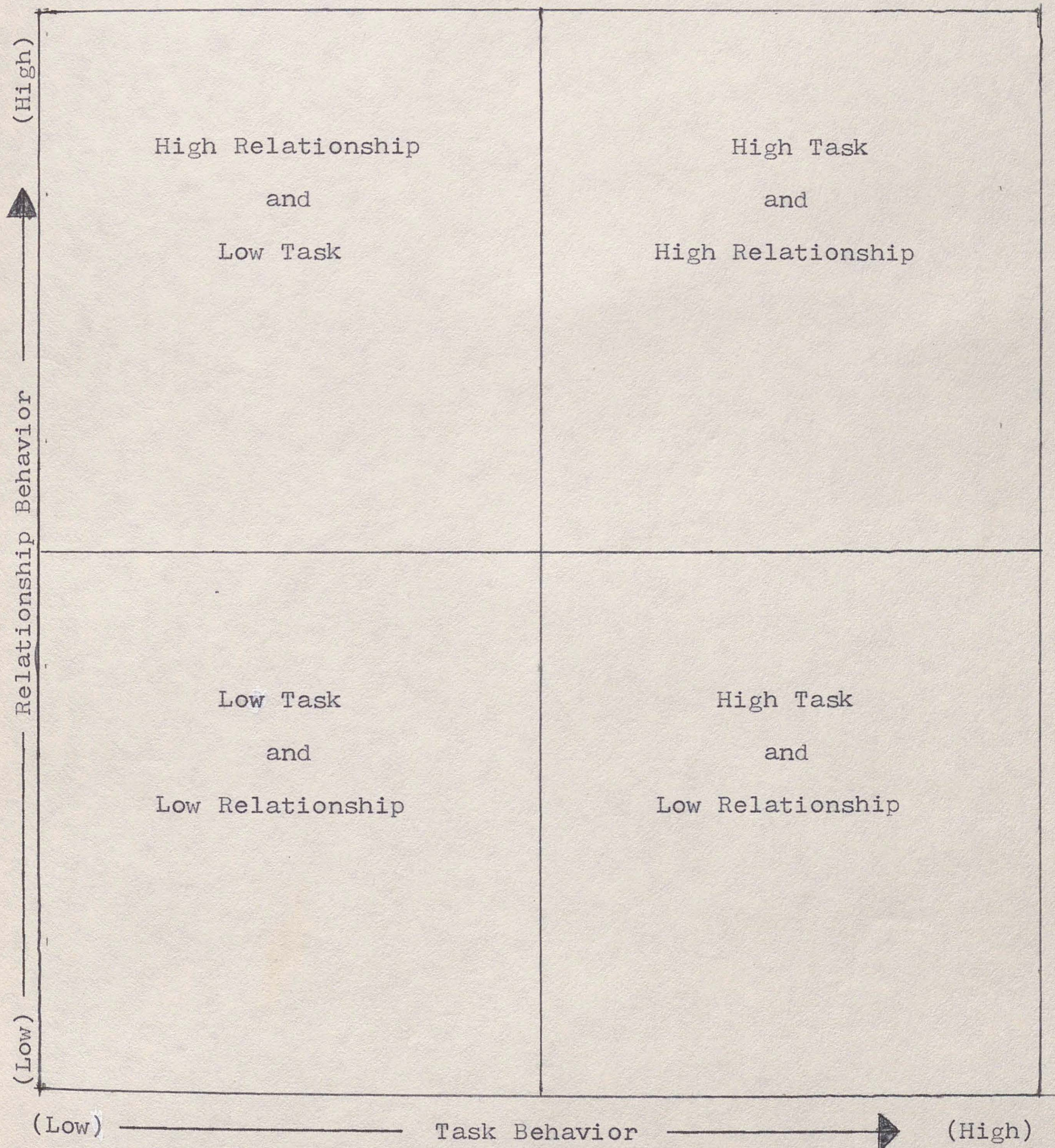
APPENDIX A

APPENDIX A

Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model

Hersey and Blanchard, 1972, (p. 82)

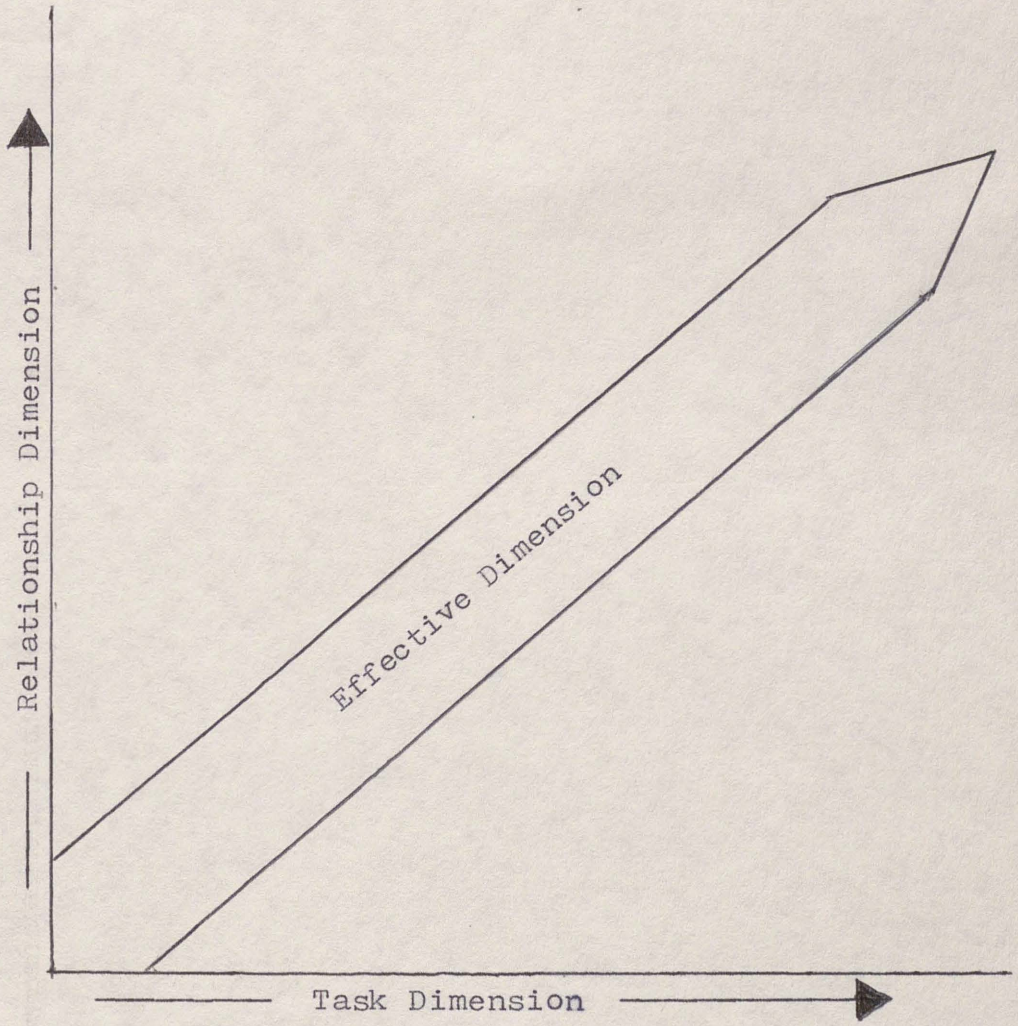


APPENDIX B

APPENDIX B

Effective dimension added to two dimensional model.

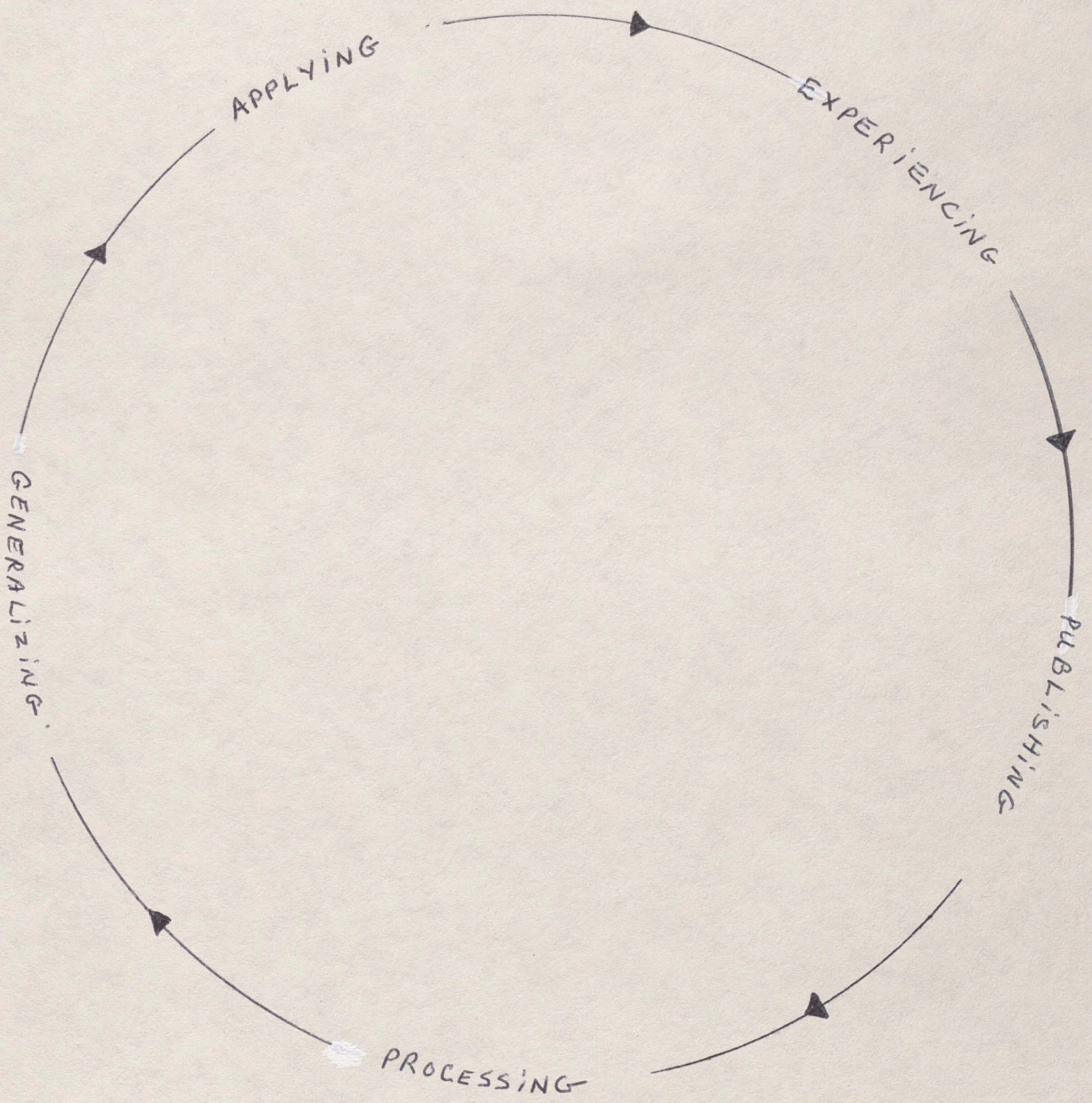
Hersey and Blanchard, 1972, (p. 83)



APPENDIX C

APPENDIX C

Experiential Learning Model



Pfieffer and Jones
Reference guide to Handbook Annals, 1972

APPENDIX D

CLINICAL NOTES

Session number _____

Activity engaged in:

Process created by activity:

Outcome:

Clinical comments:

APPENDIX E

GROUP REACTION FORM

Were you satisfied with the workshop? Circle one.

very dissatisfied	somewhat dissatisfied	neither satisfied nor dissatisfied
somewhat satisfied dissatisfied	quite satisfied	

What was your level of participation? Circle one.

quite low	somewhat low	neither high nor low	somewhat high	quite high

Did you feel you could freely participate in the session?

____

____.

Did you feel restrained in any way from participating? Explain.

____

____

____.

State briefly anything you learned about yourself in the

workshop. ____

____

____.

Do you feel the objectives of the workshop were met? ________

What practical application did you derive from the workshop?

____

____

____.

Recommendations for improvement for the next/future workshops.

____

____

____.

Any other comments? ______________________________________

____.

APPENDIX F

Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description Inventory (LEAD)

1. Your subordinates have not been responding to your friendly conversation and obvious concern for their welfare. Their performance is in a tailspin.
   A. Emphasize the use of uniform procedures and the necessity for task accomplishment.
   B. Make yourself available for discussion but do not push.
   C. Talk with subordinates and then set goals.
   D. Be careful not to intervene.

2. The observable performance of your group is increasing. You have been making sure that all members are 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 the group to work on the problem and be available for discussion.

4. You are considering a major change. Your subordinates have a fine record of accomplishments. They respect the need for change.
   A. Allow group involvement in developing the change, but do not push.
   B. Announce changes and then implement them with close supervision.
   C. Allow the group to formulate its own direction.
   D. Incorporate group recommendations, but direct the change.

5. The performance of your group has been dropping during the last few months. Members have been unconcerned with meeting objectives. They have continually needed reminding to do their tasks on time. Redefining roles has helped in the past.
   A. Allow the 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 do not 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 the group feel important and involved.
   B. Emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks.
   C. Be careful not to intervene.
   D. Get the group involved in decision making, but see that objectives are met.

7. You are considering major changes in your organizational structure. Members of your 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 the 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 your subordinates toward working in a well-defined manner.
   D. Be careful of hurting boss-subordinate relations by being too directive.

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 about its goals. Attendance at sessions has been poor. The meetings have turned into social gatherings. Potentially, the group has 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 do not 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 do not 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 interrelations are good.
    A. Take steps to direct subordinates towards working in a well-defined manner.
    B. Involve subordinates in decision making and reinforce good contributions.
    C. Discuss past performance with the group and then examine the need for new practices.
    D. Continue to leave the 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 and 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.

APPENDIX G

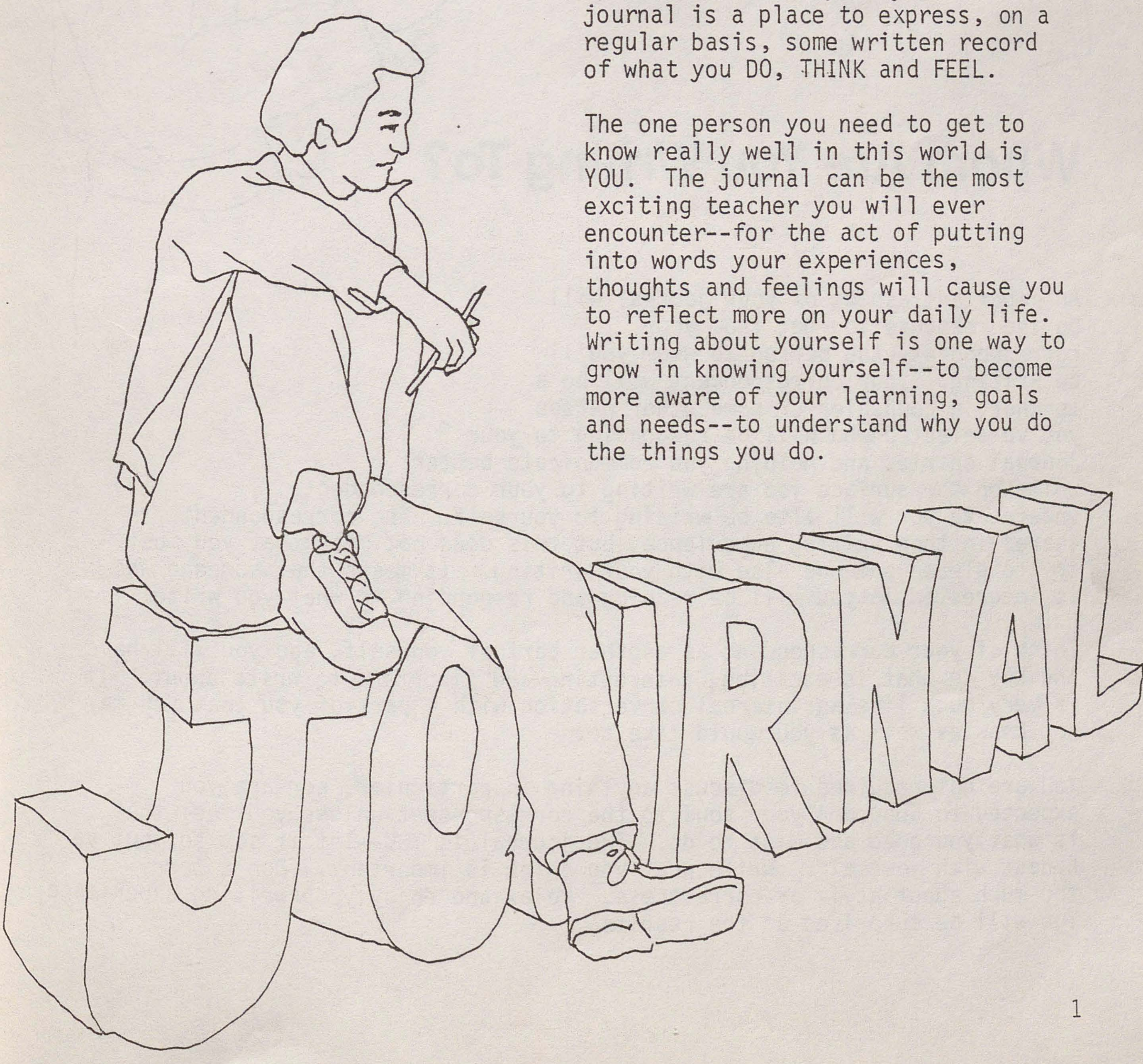
What Is A Journal?

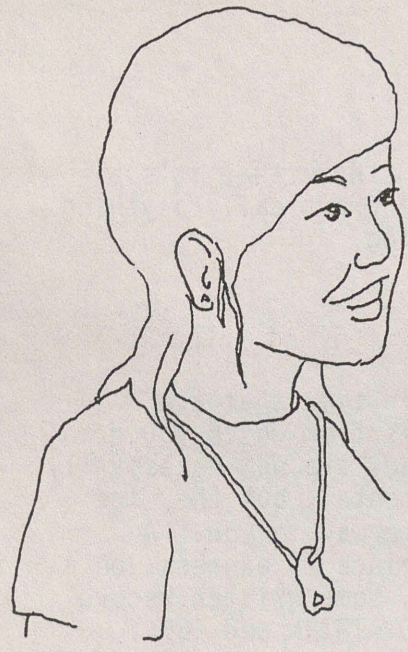
What is a journal? Some people think it's a diary; others that it's a newspaper. It doesn't have to be either. It can be practically anything you like, as long as you're willing to do some writing.

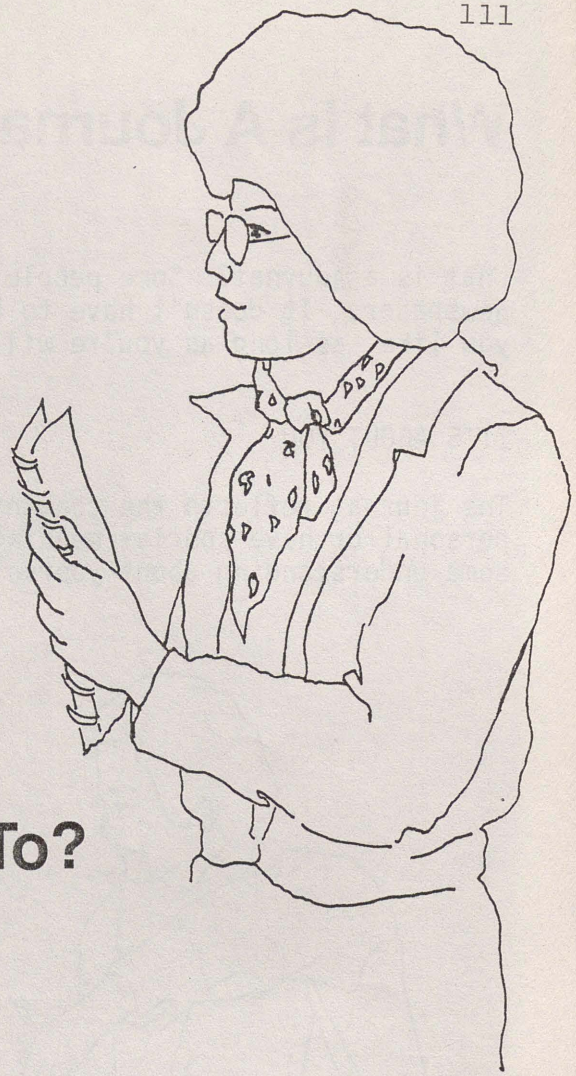
IT'S ABOUT YOU

The journal reflects the contents of those moments in time that are personal or have special meaning for you--experiences from which you draw some understanding about yourself or your world. They are not necessarily grand or monumental, but they are special in some way to you. A journal is a place to express, on a regular basis, some written record of what you DO, THINK and FEEL.

The one person you need to get to know really well in this world is YOU. The journal can be the most exciting teacher you will ever encounter--for the act of putting into words your experiences, thoughts and feelings will cause you to reflect more on your daily life. Writing about yourself is one way to grow in knowing yourself--to become more aware of your learning, goals and needs--to understand why you do the things you do.







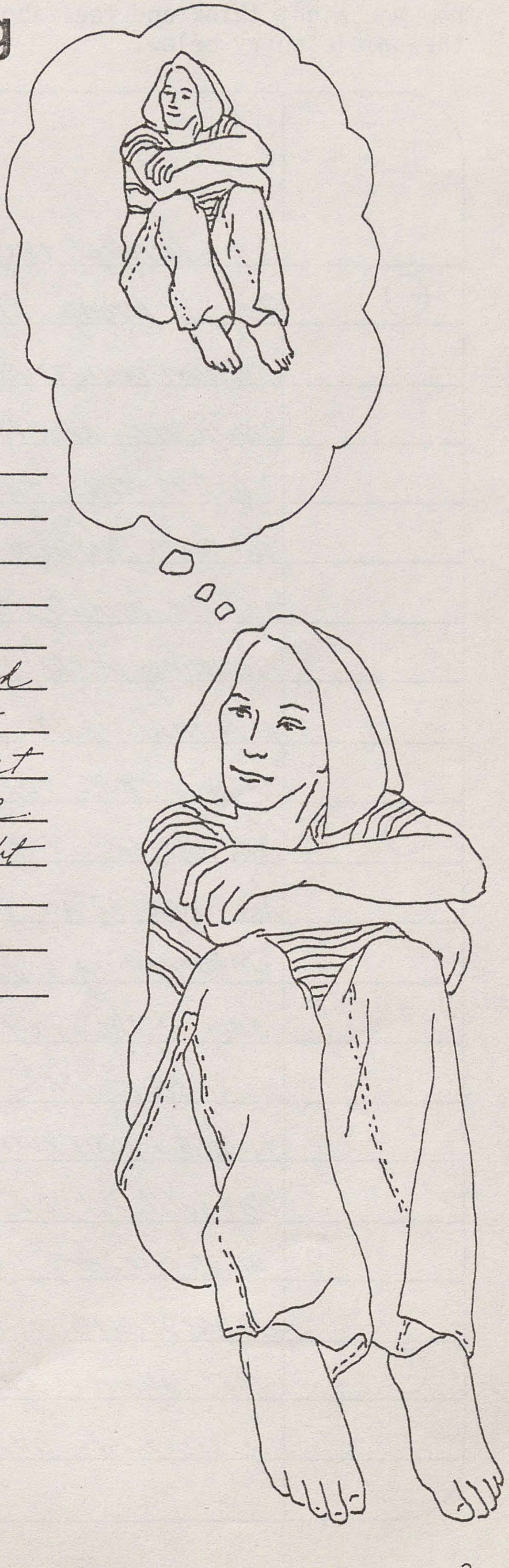
Whom Are You Writing To?

An important aspect of your journal will be the response you get from your correspondent--the person to whom you'll be writing. Your correspondent will be a teacher, a counselor or some other person you've selected who will be responding to your journal entries and helping you communicate better. While on the surface you are writing to your correspondent, underneath you will also be writing to yourself. The correspondent shares in this writing experience, but this does not mean that you must try to please someone else with your writing. It means that someone who is interested in you will be reading and responding to what you write.

Think of your correspondent as another part of yourself, and you will have the key to what is exciting, interesting and important to write about. It is very much like an internal conversation with a part of you that you may not know as well as you would like to.

You are not required to discuss anything in particular, nor are you expected to unburden your soul to the correspondent unless you feel that is what you need and want to do. The journal is YOU--let it say so, but be honest with yourself. Write what you think is important. Don't worry too much about style or correctness. Relax and enjoy your writing experience. You will be surprised at the results!

Getting Down To Writing



Remember, what is important is to share ideas, work out your thoughts or create. The journal is not so much a point-by-point description of your daily activities as how you think and feel about them. For example, don't just limit yourself to saying:

I overslept this morning and missed my bus so I was late to school. Mr. Lyon chewed me out because he had to explain to the lady at the Art Museum why I missed my appointment with that metal sculptor we'd arranged for me to interview. It was just an all around rotten day, but tonight Jan and I went out for pizza and talked till midnight so I feel better about life tonight. But I'm sleepy. So that's it for tonight.

You see? You already know what you did. Put the events of your life in a context of thinking and feeling, evaluate them a little bit. Did the experience change you, affect you in some way or give you a special insight? How do you feel about the situation? What do you think about it? What effects do you predict the experience will have on your future actions? Learn from what you write. The journal will inform you only to the degree that you inform it. Discover what is interesting to you by writing it down. Concentrate on your reactions, your observations and your judgments about what's happening to you.

For example, expand the situation shown on the preceding page in terms of how you might think and feel about it, and you will have something like the sample entry below.

I overslept this morning and that started the whole day off wrong. I had made an appointment at the Art Museum to interview a local artist, a man who does metal sculpture, and then I totally forgot about it. By the time I got to school they had already called Mr. Lyon to find out why I wasn't there. When he started chewing me out the minute I walked in, I just got mad. I was still steaming at the end of the day and needed to talk to a friend. So Jan and I went out for a pizza and had a long talk, till midnight in fact. It really helped me feel better. I guess I can understand why Mr. Lyon was mad at me because I did put him in an embarrassing spot. He had worked hard with the lady at the Art Museum to help arrange this interview. And then I blew it! Now he probably thinks I don't even care about meeting this artist, but I do. Well, I'll talk to Mr. Lyon tomorrow and maybe go to the Art Museum to work that out. Any suggestions on how to patch this up? I'm up too late again. I can't seem to pass up fun things even if it causes me trouble. I better get some sleep!

What's Expected

It is hoped that your journal will be very much "you," inside and out. The following requirements, however, can help give you a sense of continuity and organization:

1. Use a special notebook or binder which you keep only for journal writing and save all your entries. The notebook will help you keep everything in one place so you and your correspondent can see what you've written before. You should turn in the entire journal to your correspondent with each new entry.

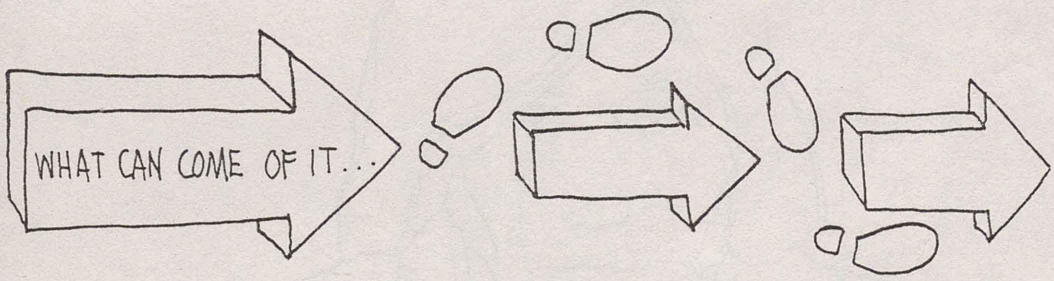
2. You are responsible for your journal.

   Don't lose it!

3. Turn in your journal each week. While your correspondent has your journal, you might find it important to keep notes to enter when your journal is returned.

4. Remember, your correspondent is another person who is listening to you with an open mind. Try not to waste anybody's time--most importantly yours--with trivia.

5. Your journal entries should cover at least two full pages for each week. Once you become involved with the process, however, you will probably go beyond this minimum.



You can expect two kinds of growth to result from writing regularly in your journal. First, your writing ability will improve, simply because you will be writing often.

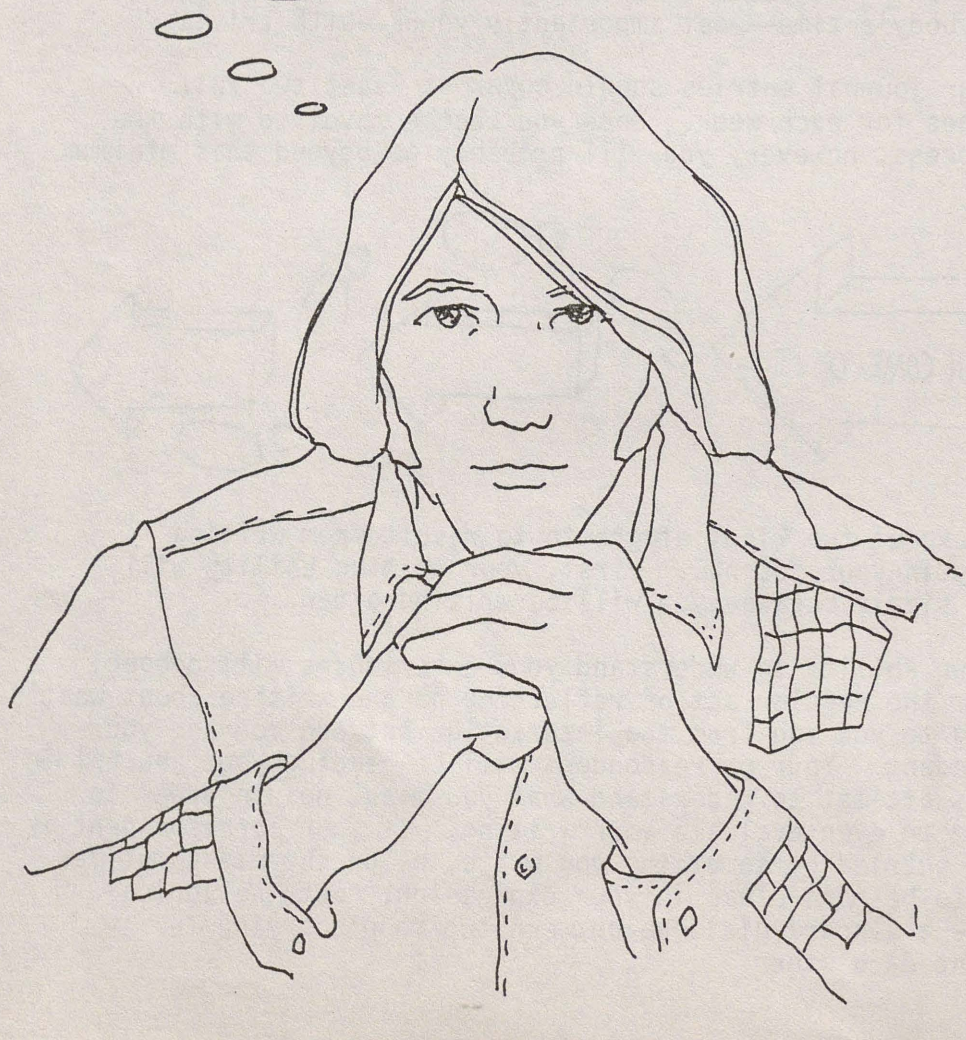
Also, your ability to understand your experiences will deepen, both from the regular act of reflecting on and writing about what's happening to you and from the interaction between you and your correspondent. Your correspondent will be reading your journal in a serious attempt to understand what you mean, not in order to criticize or even evaluate your writing. If your correspondent is honestly puzzled by something you write, he or she may sometimes ask you to be more clear in your expression. But the journal should be a sincere dialogue between two people trying to understand each other.

Getting On With It...Hints And Tips

If your mind reaches a blank space and you feel there is nothing to write about, take a look at the ideas on the next few pages...

You may find something there that will turn on your imagination. If not, make something up. You can learn a lot about yourself from the simple process of trying to put words onto paper. That's what creation is all about--taking feelings and thoughts that might be drifting anywhere and finding something about them that pulls them together into something you can give shape to, whether it's just words strung out on paper, stories about what's happening to you or what you dream about. If you put your own time and energy into it, that's creation.

IT IS IMPORTANT THAT YOU DON'T LEAVE YOUR JOURNAL BLANK. Your mind is never empty. Even when you think it is there are things floating in there doing things to you. Ask yourself questions. What's hanging you up? Write about it. You might find out something new. . .



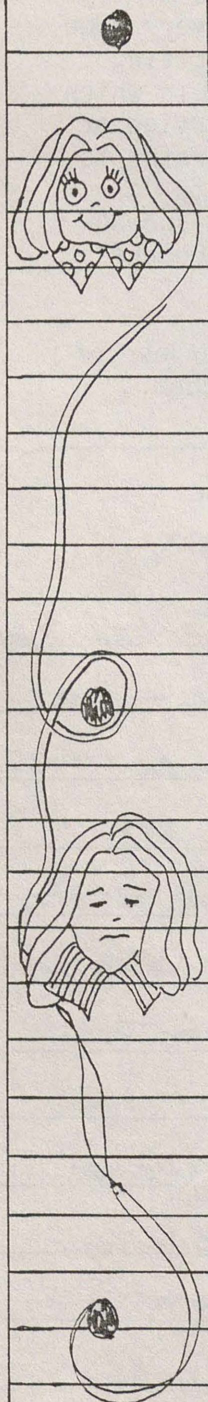
Form

There are many ways to look at yourself, to show feelings, to react to the world and your experiences. Just because your journal will be mostly in words, don't limit your expression to just one style or form every time you write. If you haven't experimented with different forms of writing before, do it now. Try writing in the form of a poem, a dialogue in which you imagine both sides of a discussion, a play, a speech, an interview or a dream. Try writing as if in the past or the future. You may prefer to write in prose (that's what you're reading right now) or stream of consciousness (writing down exactly what is going on in your here and now without using regular sentence structure, punctuation, logical sequences and so forth).

Whatever form feels comfortable to you, remember your original purpose of reflecting on your experiences and clarifying your reactions to them. For example:

Hi, Jane, how are you doing? Wow, what a bad day yesterday turned out to be! School was fine — I'm still thinking about our discussion of creativity. (Maybe I'll even get the nerve to try to make something soon. Maybe.) But going home was a monster! I told my Mom I'd wash the car and my brother decided I needed a few instructions. Like, "Don't work too fast or you won't do it right." "Don't forget the windows." "You left the sponge in the drive way." He kept it up until I really felt like turning the hose on him. Sometimes he really makes me mad. Give me a few clues about why he does that. Just cuz' he's older?

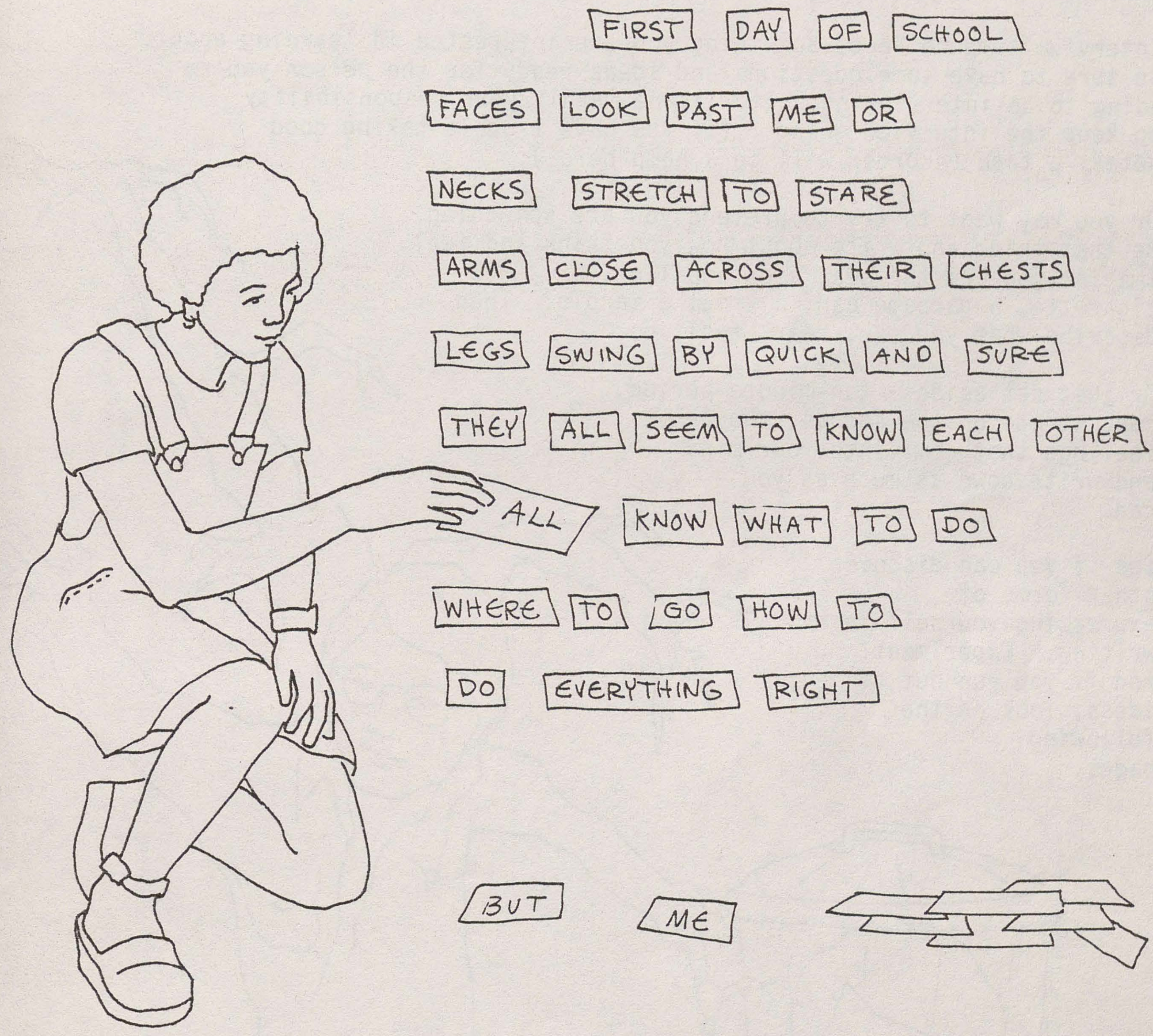
This student is using the journal entry to help her understand her emotional reactions to a changing job situation:



I've been trying hard to figure out my supervisor at work. My first day she was really nice to me, took a lot of time showing me around, introducing me to people, telling me about my duties. I felt like I belonged right away because every office she took me to, people seemed to like her and accept me because I was with her. She's so pretty and really young, too. I wondered how she got that job so young. So I decided right away to study her and try to be like her.

But then after my first week she began to seem really busy whenever I would go to ask her something or I needed to talk. I felt hurt and angry with her at first. But now I've decided to use my journal ('cause I have to write it anyway!) to write down things that happen at work — what people say and do — and try to just understand it all. (I may need some help at that. Okay?)

Playing With Words



If you are not sure how to go about writing a poem, read a few poets (maybe your correspondent can help with suggestions) and get a feeling for their rhythms and ideas. Then write a poem of your own.

A dialogue can take several directions. You can hold a conversation with another part of yourself that you don't show to most people, or you can imagine a dialogue with your correspondent. You may report an actual conversation you have overheard or taken part in. Or you can create two imaginary characters and report a conversation. Think of what you would most like to do after you finish school.

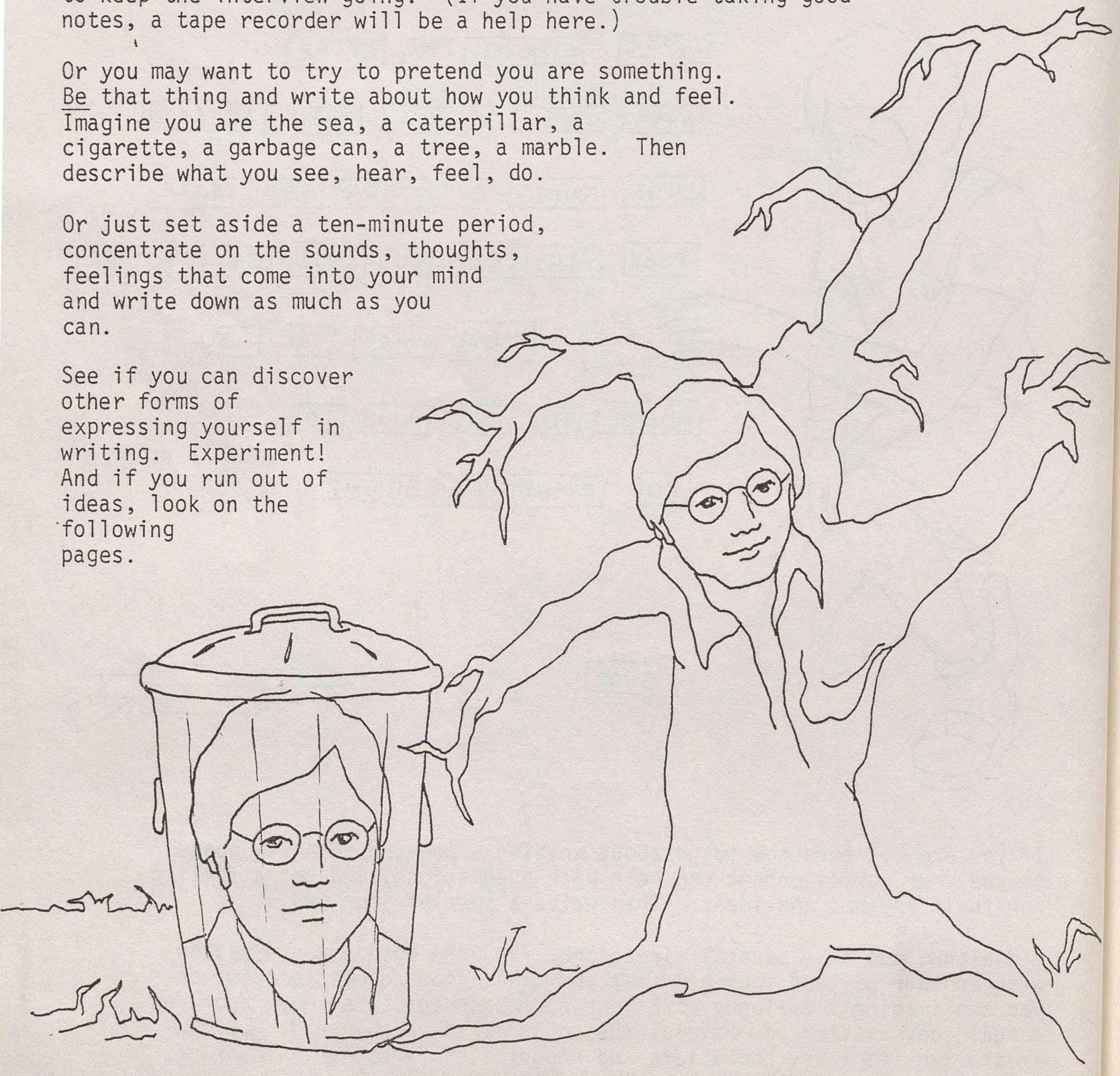
Imagine a dialogue between you as a job applicant and an interviewer for that job. Think of the thing you could say that would be most likely to get you hired. Now reverse roles: you're the interviewer--what do you want in a prospective employee? Try doing the dialogue in the form of a cartoon or comic strip. Try writing your own play with setting and directions.

Interview someone about something you are interested in learning about. Be sure to have some questions and ideas ready for the person you're going to be interviewing. It will be mainly your responsibility to keep the interview going. (If you have trouble taking good notes, a tape recorder will be a help here.)

Or you may want to try to pretend you are something. Be that thing and write about how you think and feel. Imagine you are the sea, a caterpillar, a cigarette, a garbage can, a tree, a marble. Then describe what you see, hear, feel, do.

Or just set aside a ten-minute period, concentrate on the sounds, thoughts, feelings that come into your mind and write down as much as you can.

See if you can discover other forms of expressing yourself in writing. Experiment! And if you run out of ideas, look on the following pages.



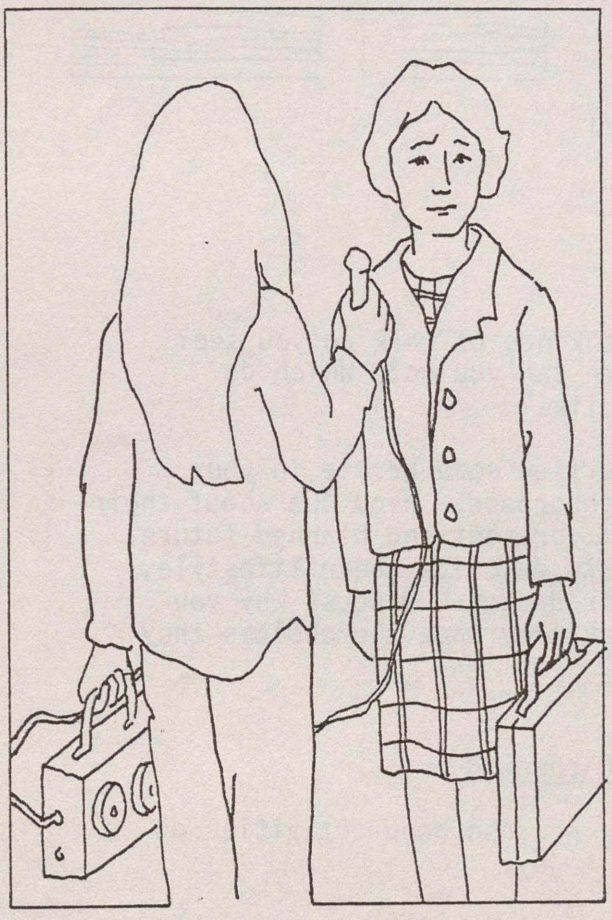
Then What...

☐ Have you ever worked in your community? What kinds of jobs were you able to find?

☐ Do you think more jobs should be available for youth in your community? What kinds of jobs?

☐ Describe your view of a perfect job. Where would it be? What would you be doing? How much money would you make? What kinds of people would your employers be? How would you relate to your fellow employees?

☐ In your opinion, how does what you are learning at school relate to future employment? Do you feel you are being prepared for getting a job? Are there any suggestions you have which would make you feel better prepared?



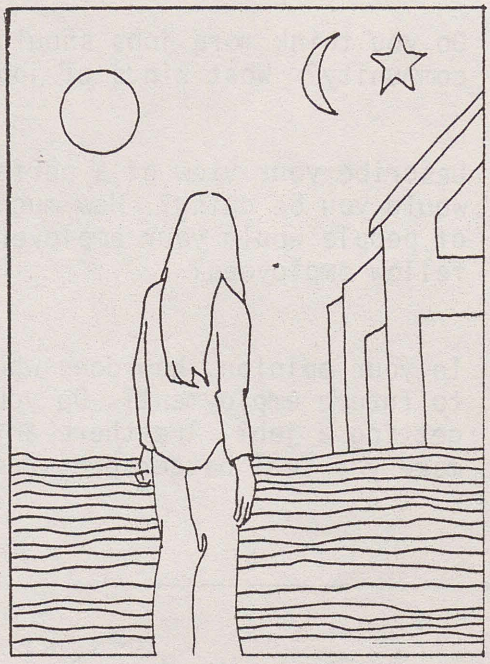
☐ Write a story about a person who is unhappy in his or her job. Try to solve the problem in a realistic manner.

☐ How do TV images of careers and life compare to the way people live in your community? What kinds of similarities and differences do you see?

☐ Interview one of your parents and a neighbor about the work they do. How do they feel about their job? How would they change things if they could?

Ideas

YOUR COMMUNITY PLACE



The Place

☐ What is pleasing about your neighborhood?

☐ What is distasteful about it?

☐ Rebuild your neighborhood so that it fits your view of the ideal.

☐ Describe your response to your surroundings at different times of the day (i.e., sunrise, noon, sunset, night).

The People

☐ What do people in your neighborhood believe in? What are they prejudiced about? How do they show these values?

☐ What kinds of work do you see? Which can you do? Which do you like?

☐ Interview some people in your neighborhood. Find out about their past, present and planned future. Try to describe their lifestyle, their dreams. Discuss why you think they made the choices they did.

What's Happening

☐ What neighborhood activities do you enjoy?

☐ What could you and your neighbors do together to make your community a better place to live?

Ideas, Ideas

YOUR SCHOOL PLACE

The Place

- [ ] Describe how your school looks. How do you think the place contributes to your learning experiences? How would you change it if you could?

The People

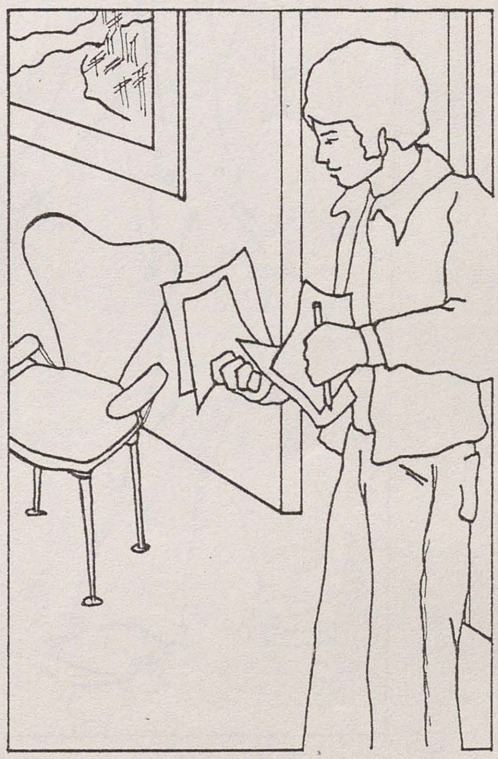
- [ ] Describe someone in your school that you care about.
- [ ] What kinds of problems do you have in school? How did they get to be problems? Who could help? How?

What's Happening

- [ ] Has some new interest developed for you lately? Are you working on any special projects? How do you feel about them?
- [ ] Describe a recent day in school. Describe an ideal day.

Then What...

- [ ] What's worth knowing? How do you know? Why do you think so?
- [ ] Describe how you would teach a class for a week in a subject you choose. What activities would you plan? Why? Try choosing one class you like and one that you don't.
- [ ] Discuss the value of the subjects in which you are now enrolled. How does the content of these courses relate to your present and future plans? What would make it better?
- [ ] List your subjects in order of preference, and discuss why you ordered them that way.

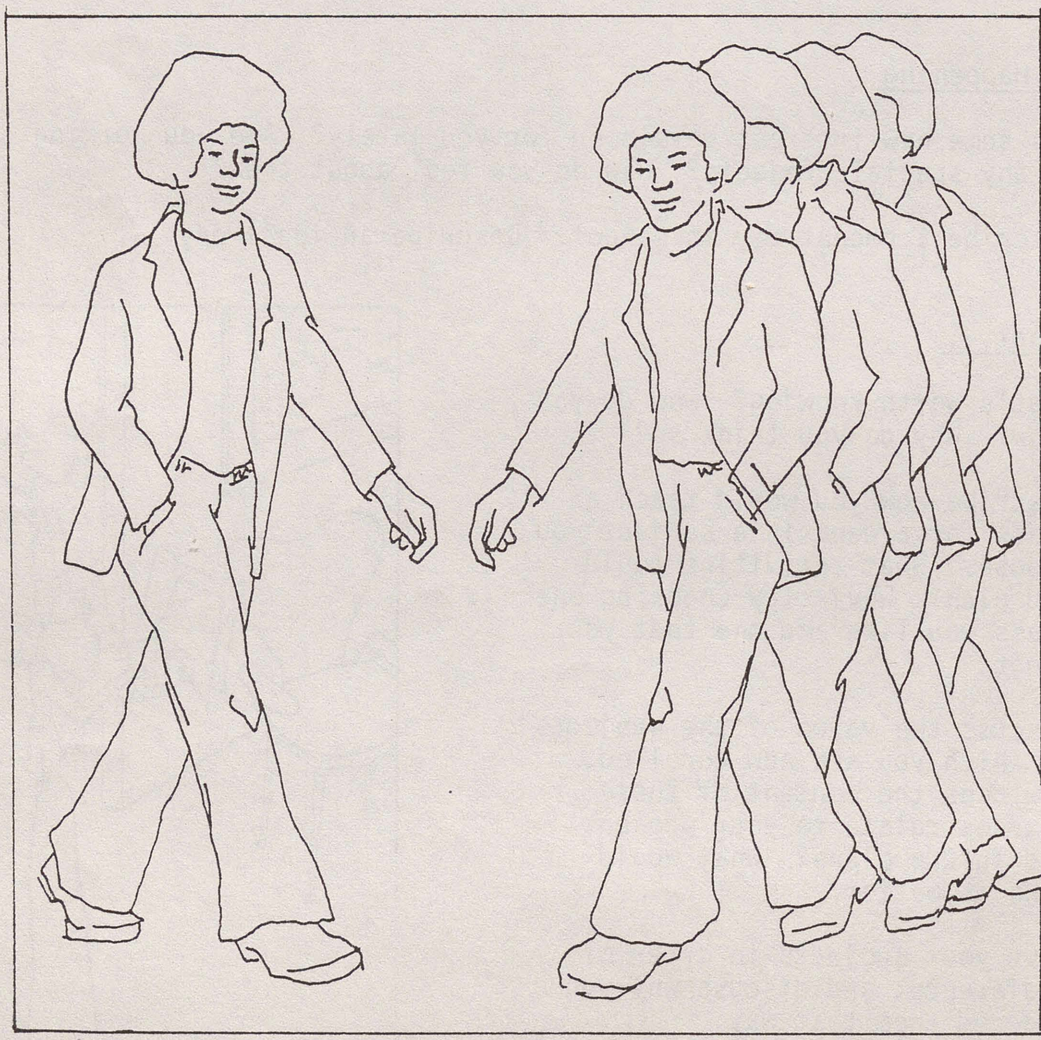


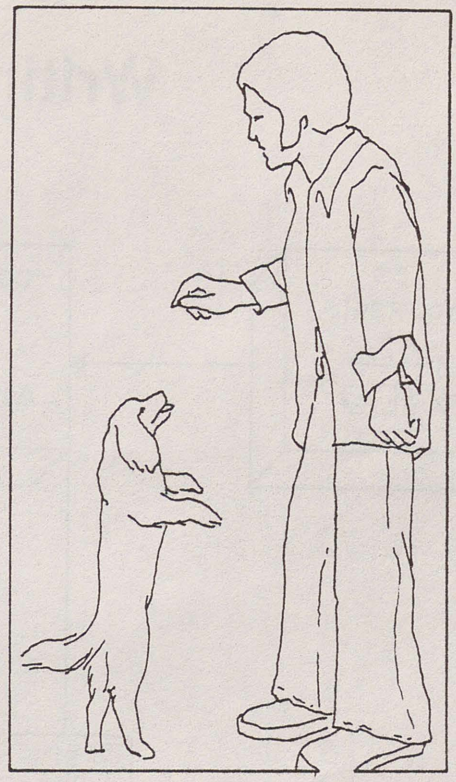
Ideas, Ideas, Ideas

YOUR PERSONAL PLACE

Describe your SELF from as many points of view as you can.

- [ ] Discuss a response you've had to some recent media experience (TV program, newspaper article, music, movie, etc.).
- [ ] Discuss your personal reaction to a recent rap session you've had with (a) friends, (b) parents, (c) correspondent, (d) other teachers, (e) a stranger.
- [ ] Develop a thought or idea you have. Anything goes!
- [ ] Step outside yourself and describe YOU as if you were a stranger just meeting you.





- [ ] Get into any kind of emotional response you have experienced (i.e., anger, sadness, happiness, etc.), and describe it with color and life.

- [ ] Do you like being alone? What do you most like to do when you are alone?

- [ ] Discuss your hopes and fears, strengths and weaknesses. What relationship do these have to your life?

- [ ] Write down a dream or a fantasy you've had recently. Analyze its meaning to you.

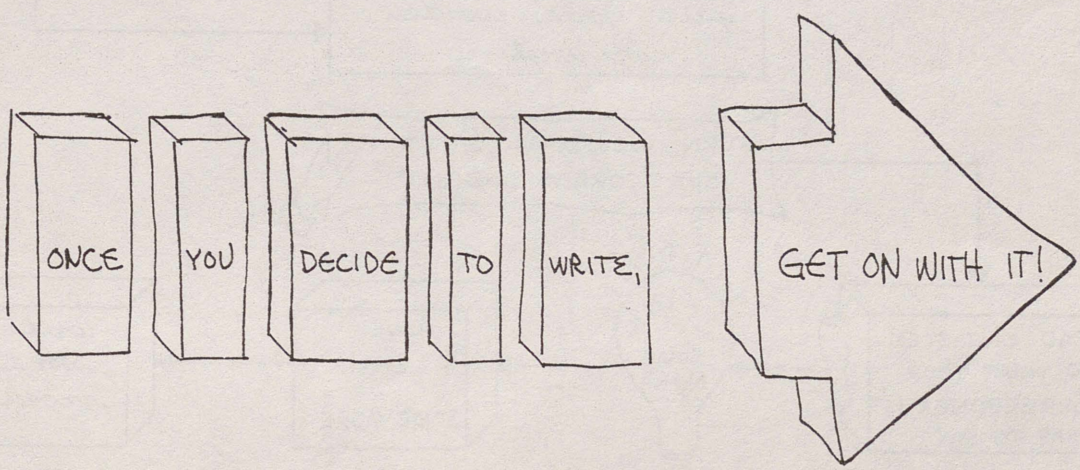
- [ ] Do you have a pet? Describe its personality and your relationship with it. Put yourself in its place and describe yourself and a day in your life.

- [ ] What kind of relationship with nature do you have? If you could spend your time anywhere in the world, where would you go and why? What would you do once you got there?

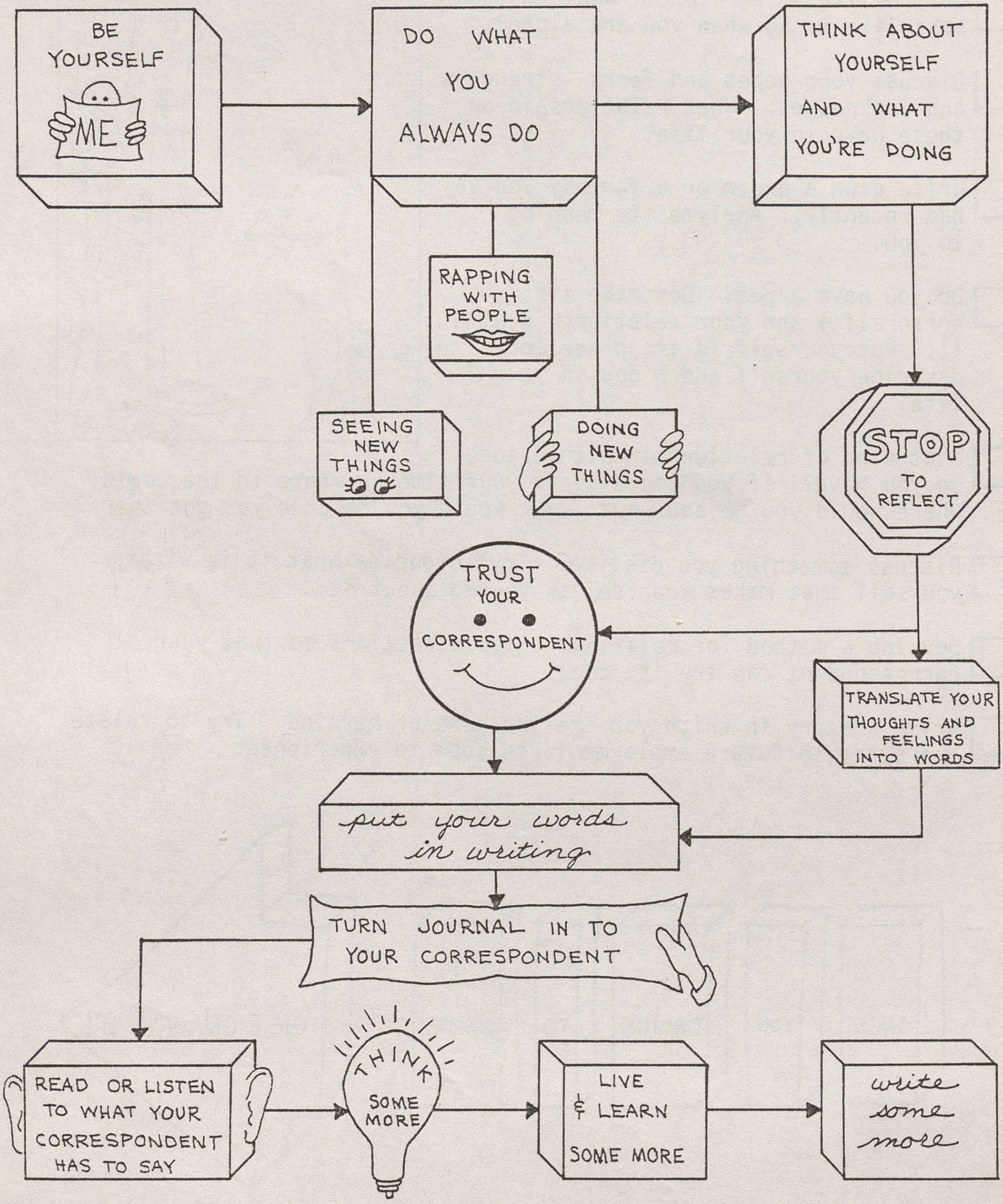
- [ ] Discuss something you dislike. Try to decide what it is within yourself that makes you feel as you do about it.

- [ ] Develop a method for relaxing. Give directions so that your correspondent can try it, too!

- [ ] Write a story in which you are the hero or heroine. Try to relate the story to future employment you hope to experience.



Writing a Journal



APPENDIX H

SPRING SESSION '81

COURSE TITLE: Experiential Leadership Training for Undergraduate Women Students who are continuing their college education.

COURSE DESCRIPTION: Six four (4) hour classes focused on improving skills in Interpersonal Communication, Decisionmaking, Assertiveness Training, Group Conflict, and Work-team Effectiveness.

TIME: BY APPOINTMENT

PLACE: Forbes Quadrangle 5H01

CREDITS: 3

CLOSED SECTION CLOSED SECTION

ARE YOU AN UNDERGRADUATE WOMAN STUDENT BETWEEN THE AGE OF 25-45 YEARS OLD?

ARE YOU INTERESTED IN SERVING AS A PART OF A LEADERSHIP TRAINING STUDY FOR WOMEN?

TIME COMMITMENT: Meet two (2) times with instructor for 10 minutes each.

APPENDIX I

Description of Experiential Leadership Training Program

Workshop I Interpersonal Communication

Exercise 1 - Structured Experience (Exercise in Communicating)

Purpose: To provide an opportunity for participants to experience their different modes of communicating.

Directions:

(1) Facilitator will divide the group into pairs.

(a) each pair of participants will sit back to back, no touching or turning of heads, use only talking to learn more about the other.

(b) each pair of participants will sit face-to-face, express as much of themselves and learn as much about the other as they can by just looking.

(c) participants will then resume face-to-face dialogue using all of their resources, touching, facial expression, gestures, eyes and talking.

(2) After exercises have been completed, participants will discuss with each other their feelings and

perceptions of the exercise
and give feedback on personal
experiences of the process.

Time Schedule for Exercise 1

5 Minutes - Part a

5 Minutes - Part b

5 Minutes - Part c

15 Minutes - Discussion

Exercise 2 - Presentation of Short Lecturette on Inter-Personal Communication (Devito, 1978)

Presentation of George Gerber's Model of Communication

Purpose: To provide participants with a cognitive framework for related experiences that will follow in this session.

Time Schedule for Exercise 2

20 Minutes - Lecture and presentation of model

25 Minutes - Discussion (A handout entitled "Communication and the Small Group" will be distributed to participants at this time).

Exercise 3 - Structured Experience (Interpersonal Communication Exercise)*

Purpose: To provide an opportunity for participants to get feedback on their own style of interpersonal communicating.

Objective: Participants will take turns being a participant and observer in a communication exercise.

Directions:

(1) Facilitator will divide the class into groups of four.

(a) one member of group is selected as observer.

(b) three chairs are placed in a line in front of the observer and the other three members take seat.

A B C

D

(c) A and C are to ignore the fact that the other exists; as far as A is concerned, only she and B are seated there; as far as C is concerned, B is the only one seated there.

(d) A and C are to try and get B's undivided attention in a conversation as best as they can. A is to ignore C and C is to ignore A during this process. Observer is to enforce rule if necessary.

(e) observer should record observations on an observer rating form (form will be distributed by facilitator).

(f) steps a-e will be repeated within each group until everyone has had a chance to be in each position (observer and participant, for five minutes each).

*Adapted from David, A. Kolb & others, "Organizational Psychology--An Experiential Approach, 3rd Ed., 1979, pp. 203-204.

Time Schedule for Exercise 3

5 Minutes - Directions

20 Minutes - Interpersonal Communication Exercise

Exercise 4 - Process (Fishbowl Exercise)

Purpose: To allow participants to focus on their direct experiences of themselves as they participated in Exercise 3 by sharing and discussing their perceptions and feelings.

To provide participants with the opportunity to discuss any individual learning that occurred for them from Exercise 3.

Directions:

(1) Class will be divided into two groups.

(a) group 1 will form a circle and group 2 will form a circle outside of group one's circle.

(b) each member of group 2 will pair with someone in group 1 and get into position to observe her partner's interaction.

(c) group 1 will begin discussing their reactions to Exercise 3 from both positions of observer and participant with particular focus on how it felt to be in each position. The other aspect to this discussion will be participants in group one's reaction to the question, "What did you learn about yourself during Exercise 3?" (A handout will be passed out to group 1 offering guidelines for factors to be considered in the discussion)

(d) group 2 is to observe, carefully, their partner in group 1 while the group discussion is in progress (paying particular attention to verbal, nonverbal, positive or negative kinds of things that group 1 partner does or does not do that appears in some way to influence her ability to communicate with others. Especially things partner might not be aware that they are doing. (Part c and d 15 minutes)

(2) After designated time for discussion is over, group 2 partner gets together with group 1 partner to feedback the observations that she perceived that might help group 1 partner to improve her communication skills. (10 minutes)

(3) Group 1 return to discussion and group 2 observes again. (10 minutes)

(4) Group 1 and group 2 will then switch with group 2 becoming the inner group and group 1 becoming the outer group; repeat processes 1-3 again. (35 minutes)

Facilitator's Role: (1) Will encourage, where necessary, participants to share their perceptions and experiences and also any discoveries they might have made about themselves during Exercise 4.

(2) Help keep inner group discussions focused on the <u>process</u> aspect of experience being discussed.

(3) To, if necessary, help participants in intergrating the outcomes of the process into some form of meaningful conclusion for them.

Time Schedule for Exercise 4

15 Minutes	-	Group 1 (inner group) discussion, Group 2 (outer group) observer
10 Minutes	-	Partner feedback
10 Minutes	-	Continued Group 1 discussion Continued Group 2 observing
35 Minutes	-	Switching of groups for process 1-3 again.

Exercise 5 - Application of Learning

Purpose: To provide a mechanism for participants to use and apply principles gained from this workshop.

Objectives: Participants will reflect upon this experience and isolate one or two major points of learning and summarize what this learning means to them.

Participants will also reflect upon a possible question that resulted from this learning experience, identifying key concepts from the question that can be used for further learning and possible means of them going about answering question posed above.

Directions: (1) An Application of Learning Sheet will be distributed to participants for them to fill out. (20 minutes)

(2) Discussion (20 minutes)

Time Schedule for Exercise 5

20 Minutes - Application of Learning Sheet

20 Minutes - Discussion

10 Minutes - Participant's evaluation of workshop (Group Reaction Form)

References for Workshop I:

Devito, Joseph, A. "The Interpersonal Communication Book," 2nd Edition, 1980, Harper & Row, New York.

Kolb, David, A. and others, "Organization Psychology--An Experiential Approach," 3rd Edition, Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliff, New Jersey, 1979.

Workshop II   Assertiveness Training

Assertiveness training involves expressing oneself without infringing upon the rights of another person. It is a direct, honest and appropriate expression of one's feelings and opinions. Assertive behavior is based on basic human rights, such as the right to say "no" without feeling guilty and to consider one's need to be as important as those of others.

Exercise 1 - Structured Experience

Purpose: To help women participants explore their views of what is possible for women to do.

Objective: Participants will be able to focus on situations or events in which they felt they could not participate because they were women.

Directions:

(1) The facilitator will distribute a sheet to participants to get their personal responses to the three phrases:

(a) "As a woman, I can't . . . ."

(b) "As a woman, I don't choose to . . . ."

(c) "As a woman, I may be able to . . . ." (10 minutes)

(2) The group will then divide into pairs and each person will read the other their phrases. After one phrase is read, the listener will summarize what the other said, to show she heard, before reading the next phrase. (15 minutes)

Time Schedule for Exercise 1

10 Minutes - Personal response to phrases

15 Minutes - Discussion in pairs

Exercise 2 - Lecturette--Assertiveness Behavior (Manis, 1977)

Purpose: To familiarize participants with the definitions of aggressive, assertive, non-assertive, and non-assertive aggressive behaviors.

Objectives: Participants will focus on distinguishing between the different types of behavior.

Directions:

(1) Facilitator will distribute a statement on Human Rights. Participants will discuss this statement with emphasis on addressing the following:

(a) Do you agree?

(b) Are there any other rights that should be involved in the declaration?

(2) Facilitator will explain the difference between aggressive, assertive, non-assertive, and non-assertive aggressive behaviors by:

(a) giving the definition of each behavior and discussing the differences (facilitator will be careful to make sure that the distinctions are clear and try to get participants to express any point of discomfort with definitions).

(b) giving an example of each behavior.

(3) Facilitator will ask participants for volunteers to tell group about a situation in which they inhibited their honest, spontaneous reaction and ended up feeling hurt.

(a) facilitator will specify that it be an example of aggressive, non-assertive aggressive, or assertive behavior.

(b) participants will be encouraged by facilitator to demonstrate each type of behavior by having someone to help them act out examples of the different behaviors.

(c) facilitator will make sure to address any questions and conflicts participants might have at this point.

Time Schedule for Exercise 2

10 Minutes - Human Rights Declaration

20 Minutes - Lecturette

30 Minutes - Participant's demonstration of inhibited assertiveness behavior

Exercise 3 - Structured Experience (Behavior Rehearsal and Escalation)*

Purpose: To provide participants with an opportunity to both practice assertive skills and reduce anxiety about acting assertively.

Objectives: Each participant will act out a situation that calls for them to exhibit assertive behavior.

Directions:

(1) Group will be divided into five or six people.

(2) Each participant will think of a situation which has happened or will happen in which they would like to act assertively. They will explain it briefly to their group.

(3) The participant will then act out the situation to the person on their right. They are to say what they would like to say or wished they had said in this situation. The person on the right is to listen only.

(4) The rest of the group will give feedback on what made the speaker's actions or words assertive, aggressive, or non-assertive. (An Assertiveness Training check-list will be distributed for feedback purposes)

(5) During the feedback process, speaker will address the question

"Why is/would it be hard to be assertive in the situation they described to the group?"

*parts adapted from Laura G. Manis, "Womanpower," 1977, p. 30.

Time Schedule for Exercise 3

45 Minutes - Group Assertive Skills Practice

Exercise 4 - Process

Objective: To allow participants to focus on their direct experiences of themselves in the previous exercise by sharing with each other.

Directions: (1) Participants will be allowed to share any information they choose concerning their reactions and observations of the previous experience.

Facilitator's Role: (1) Facilitator will encourage participants to:

(a) share any discoveries they might have made about themselves during the previous activity.

(b) share any comments or reactions in regard to their performance in group.

(c) address themselves to the question: Do you feel you can act the way you describe yourself wanting to act outside this group?

(2) Facilitator will also encourage participants to:

(a) not only share their reactions and observations but explore, discuss, and evaluate the dynamics that emerged with other participants.

(b) where necessary, help participants in integrating the outcomes of the process into some form of meaningful conclusion for them.

Time Schedule for Exercise 4

1 1/2 Hours - Group Process

Exercise 5 - Application of Learning

Purpose: To provide an opportunity for participants to use and apply principles gained from this experience.

Objectives: Participants will reflect upon their experiences in the previous workshop to try and isolate two major points of learning they have acquired.

Directions:

(1) Facilitator will distribute the same three phrases that participants reacted to at the beginning of workshop.

(2) Participants will give their personal responses to these phrases again, now that this is the end of workshop.

(3) As well as responding to the three phrases, participants will respond to three other questions that focuses on whether participants are willing to act more assertively or not.

Time Schedule for Exercise 5

20 Minutes - Application of Learning Sheet

20 Minutes - Discussion in some pairs at the beginning of workshop

10 Minutes - Participant's evaluation of workshop (Group Reaction Form)

Reference for Workshop II

Manis, Laura, G. "Womanpower--A Manual for Workshops in Personal Effectiveness," Carroll Press Publishers, Cranston, R. I., 1977.

Workshop III Decision-Making

Exercise 1 - Presentation of short lecture on different ways of decision-making (Knudson, Woodworth, and Bell, 1979)

Purpose: To provide participants with a cognitive framework for related experiences that will follow in this workshop.

Objective: To provide some basic information on the nature of the design of decision processes in organizations.

Time Schedule for Exercise 1

20 Minutes - Lecture

20 Minutes - Discussion (A handout giving the breakdown of the flow of events in the decision process will be distributed at this time).

Exercise 2 - Structured Experience*

Purpose: To give participants some indication of the effects of different ways of decision making.

Objective: To let participants experience some different ways of making decisions.

Directions:

(1) The total group will be divided into at least five or more people.

(2) A set of ranking tasks will be given by facilitator.

(3) The three groups will be assigned one of three different decision options, <u>central authority</u>, <u>democratic</u>, or <u>concensus</u>.

Phase A. Each member of the group working independently, will rank the items in terms of their importance. Most important, number 1; the second most important, number 2; and so on. Each member of the three groups will do this simultaneously. For the <u>central authority group</u>, a member of this group will be selected to be the leader in this phase. (15 minutes)

Phase B. Each group is to employ the designated decision option in reaching a group decision on the ranking of the items. For the <u>central authority</u> decision group, this would entail the group dividing into pairs and completing the group exercise in this manner. (30 minutes)

Phase C. Each person should individually re-rank the items making any changes they feel necessary. For the <u>central authority</u> decision group, the leader will rank the items during this phase. The leader can seek advice from any group member but the group leader will make the final decision. (15 minutes)

Phase D. The scoring instructions will be given by facilitator.

(a) a total group score sheet will be distributed.

(b) each individual should score the net difference between her ranking score and the correct ranking (one person should be assigned to score Phase B). (20 minutes)

Time Schedule for Exercise 2

10 Minutes - Directions

15 Minutes - Phase A

30 Minutes - Phase B

15 Minutes - Phase C

20 Minutes - Phase D

* Part of this exercise from Harry R. Knudson, and others, "Management--An Experiential Approach," 1979, pp. 158-161.

Exercise 3 - Process

Objective: To allow participants to focus on their direct experiences of themselves in the previous exercise by sharing with each other.

Directions: (1) Participants will be allowed to share any information they choose concerning their reactions and observations of the previous experience.

Facilitator's Role: (1) Facilitator will encourage participants to:

(a) focus on what happened in groups as various decisions were made, i.e., what kind of things were talked about? how was conflict handled?

(2) Facilitator will also encourage participants to:

(a) not only share their reactions and observations, but explore, discuss, and evaluate the dynamics that emerged with other participants.

(b) where necessary, help participants in integrating the outcomes of the process into some form of meaningful conclusions for them.

Time Schedule for Exercise 3

1 Hour - Group Process

Exercise 4 - Application of Learning

Purpose: To provide a mechanism for participants to use and apply principles gained from this workshop.

Directions: Facilitator will distribute an Application of Learning Sheet to group. Participants will respond to questions concerning preferences for style and types of organizational tasks suitable for particular ways of making decisions.

Time Schedule for Exercise 4

20 Minutes - Application of Learning Sheet

20 Minutes - Discussion

10 Minutes - Participant's evaluation of workshop (Group Reaction Form)

Reference for Workshop III:

Knudson, Harry R., Woodworth, Robert H., and Bell, Cecil H. "Management--An Experiential Approach," 2nd Edition, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1979.

Workshop IV		Managing Work Team Effectiveness

Increasing organizational complexity and the knowledge/information explosion guarantee that the existence of teams and the need for effective teamwork will remain organizational realities. Particularly as one moves up the organizational hierarchy, tasks become less structured and problem solutions become less programmable or routine. Whenever a task requires that two or more people coordinate their efforts to maximize effectiveness, a team exists, by definition.

Exercise 1 - Presentation of short lecturette: Task-related factors influencing team effectiveness--
The GRPI Model (Plovarich, Fry, and Rubin, 1975)

Purpose: To provide participants with the opportunity to familiarize themselves with some characteristics and variables known to be important to any group.

Time Schedule for Exercise 1

20 Minutes - Lecturette

20 Minutes - Discussion (Handout will be distributed of an outline of the GRPI Model to help facilitate discussion)

Exercise 2 - Structured Experience (Group task exercise utilizing GRPI Model of work team effectiveness)*

Purpose: To provide participants with the opportunity to learn about the task-related factors that influence team effectiveness and also to experience the impact of these factors upon team functioning.

Objective: Group members will act as <u>participants</u> or <u>observers</u> in a team problem-solving exercise to develop a plan for improving a corporation's profit picture.

Directions:

(1) Facilitator will:

(a) familiarize group with background of Universal Wicket, Inc. (5 minutes)

(b) explain nature of excessive and specific instructions. (10 minutes)

(c) supervise election of officers. (5 minutes)

(2) Groups will break down into appropriate departments for team meeting. (20 minutes)

(3) Groups will come together for Board meeting with President, Vice President, and Head of Department. (Observers will be observing meeting and using observer rating form as a guideline as to what to focus on in this process) (30 minutes)

(4) Discussion

(a) observers will begin to feedback their impressions of what helped/hindered the team effectiveness of the Board.

(b) besides the guidelines of the observer rating form, there will be some specific questions, passed out, to serve as a stimulus of discussion.

*From, "Organizational Psychology--An Experiential Approach," 3rd Edition, 1979, pp. 10-13.

Time Schedule for Exercise 2

5 Minutes	-	Background information
10 Minutes	-	Explanation and nature of exercise
5 Minutes	-	Election of officers
20 Minutes	-	Team meetings for different departments

30 Minutes - Board meeting

20 Minutes - Discussion

Exercise 3 - Process

Objective: To allow participants to focus on their direct experiences of themselves in the previous exercise by sharing with each other.

Directions: (1) Participants will be allowed to share any information they choose concerning their reactions and observations of the previous experience.

Facilitator's Role: (1) Facilitator will encourage participants to:

(a) share any discoveries they might have made about themselves.

(b) share any comments or reactions in regard to their performance in group.

(c) not only share their reactions and observations, but explore, discuss, and evaluate the dynamics that emerged with others in the group.

(d) where necessary, facilitator will help participants in intergrating the outcomes of the process into some form of meaningful conclusion for them.

Time Schedule for Exercise 3

1 Hour - Group Process

Exercise 4 - Application of Learning

Purpose: To provide a mechanism for participants to use and apply principles gained from this learning experience.

Objectives: Participants will reflect upon this experience and isolate one or two major points of learning and summarize what this learning means to them.

Participants will also reflect upon a possible question that resulted from this learning experience, identifying key concepts from the question that can be used for further learning and possible means of them going about answering question posed above.

Directions: (1) An Application of Learning Sheet will be distributed to group for them to fill it out. (20 minutes)

(2) Discussion (20 minutes)

Time Schedule for Exercise 4

20 Minutes - Application of Learning Sheet

20 Minutes - Discussion

10 Minutes - Participant's evaluation of workshop (Group Reaction Form)

*Reference for Workshop IV:

Kolb, David, and others, "Organizational Psychology--An Experiential Approach," 3rd Edition, Prentice-Hall, Inc., New Jersey, 1979.

Workshop V Managing Group Conflict

It is almost impossible for two people to live or work together for any length of time without some irritations or conflicts. Most people try to ignore the irritating behavior, but the resulting feelings accumulate and become a barrier to maintaining the relationship and often, to the accomplishment of the group in a work situation. Sometimes a person can store up so many feelings against another that they finally explode out of proportion to the trifling incident that triggered the explosion. Others may resolve their anger by withdrawing. Neither response is productive or satisfying.

Exercise 1 - Structured Experience*

Purpose: To provide participants with an opportunity for them to become aware of their own style of handling conflict.

Objective: Participants will pair with a partner to take part in a non-verbal conflict exercise.

Directions:

(1) Group will pair up.

(2) Face each other in a sitting position with knees touching

and eyes closed--join hands.
(This is a non-verbal exercise, no talking!)

(3) Facilitator will read directions pertaining to a conflict situation that each pair of participants will act out non-verbally. (10 minutes)

*From Laura G. Manis, "Womanpower," 1977, p. 110.

Time Schedule for Exercise 1

10 Minutes - Non-verbal exercise

20 Minutes - Discussion

Exercise 2 - Structured Experience (Group meeting task)*

Purpose: To provide opportunity for participants to experience themselves in an activity utilizing a set of organizational relationships among groups.

Objective: Participants will be given a task that will divide them into two groups and the two groups will have to competitively complete the task together.

Directions:

(1) Facilitator will give group background information.

(2) Group will be divided into section A and section B.

(3) Instructions will be given to both groups. (Memo will be passed out)

   (a) both sections will meet separately to prepare response to memo. Addressing the criteria stated:

      1. listing criteria for choosing new president.

      2. must be short phrases.

      3. rank/order phrases in terms of importance to company.

(4) Members of section A will pair with a member of section B to evaluate criteria reports.

   (a) task for pair is to decide between the two criteria reports, which one is the better in its entirety.

   (b) points will be allotted, 10 points total, for both reports. The allottment cannot be 50-50, but has to equal the total 10 points. Concentrate on content of criteria only.

(5) Facilitator will tabulate results and announce to group which set of criteria was judged the best.

(6) Groups will reconvene to original sections A and B for discussion. (Guidelines to help facilitate discussion will be passed out)

*Idea from David A. Kolb, and others, "Organizational Psychology," 1979.

Time Schedule for Exercise 2

15 Minutes	-	Background information
25 Minutes	-	Sections A and B preparation of responses to memo
20 Minutes	-	Selection of criteria by pairs
15 Minutes	-	Discussion (original sections)

Exercise 3 - Process

Objective: To allow participants to focus on their direct experiences of themselves in the previous exercise by sharing with each other.

Directions: (1) Participants will be allowed to share any information they choose concerning their reactions and observations of the previous experience.

Facilitator's Role: (1) Facilitator will encourage participants to:

(a) share any discoveries they might have made about themselves.

(b) share any comments or reactions in regard to their performance in group.

(c) not only share their reactions and observations, but explore, discuss, and evaluate the dynamics that emerged with others in the group.

(d) where necessary, facilitator will help participants in integrating the outcomes of the process into some form of meaningful conclusions for them.

Time Schedule for Exercise 3

1 Hour - Group Process

Exercise 4 - Application of Learning

Purpose: To provide a mechanism for participants to use and apply principles gained from this learning experience.

Objectives: Participants will reflect upon this experience and isolate one or two major points of learning and summarize what this learning means to them.

Participants will also reflect upon a possible question that resulted from this learning experience, identifying key concepts from the question that can be used for further learning and possible means of them going about answering question posed above.

Directions: An Application of Learning Sheet will be distributed to group for them to fill out. (20 minutes)

Discussion (20 minutes)

Time Schedule for Exercise 4

20 Minutes - Application of Learning Sheet

20 Minutes - Discussion

10 Minutes - Participant's evaluation of workshop (Group Reaction Form)

References for Workshop V:

Kolb, David A. and others, "Organizational Psychology--An Experiential Approach," Prentice-Hall, Inc., New Jersey, 1979.

Manis, Laura G. "Womanpower--Workshop in Personal Effectiveness," Carroll Press, Cranston, R. I., 1977.

APPENDIX J

Handouts of Workshops

Workshop I

INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION OBSERVER RECORDING FORM

Your role during this part of the exercise is important since one goal for today's unit is that idividuals get feedback on their styles of interpersonal communication. In giving feedback during the iscussion, try to follow the guidelines that were outlined in the Introduction. A few suggested dimenons to focus upon are listed here.

1. Who was more aggressive? Passive?
2. What methods (verbal, physical) were used by A and C to get B's attention? What methods seemed most successful?
3. Did B try to satisfy both A and C equally? What did B do in response to their efforts?
4. How did A or C react to being ignored? How did they seem to feel in their position? Upon what basis did you decide they felt that way?
5. How did B seem to feel about his position—enjoying the power, concerned about keeping A and C happy, withdrawn?
6. What kinds of nonverbal communication were exhibited by each of the three parties? With what effects?
7. What kinds of motivation did each exhibit? What did they do that made you feel that way?

Notes

3. Inner group returns to discussion; outer group observes. (Time: 10 minutes.) *Switch roles (outer group becomes inner group) and repeat steps 1-3.*

Any remaining time should be spent in pairs (the partners), sharing observations aimed at helping each other improve their own communications skills.

V. SUMMARY

If one were to ask the question, "How can people improve their ability to communicate?" the answers would probably be of the form, "Speak more clearly, articulate the words more carefully, think about what you want to say, don't use unfamiliar, technical jargon." There is no doubt that these will serve to improve one's ability to communicate, yet communication is also influenced by interpersonal factors. We have already mentioned some of these factors:

1. Communication is much more than just the words that flow between people; *all behavior* conveys some message—it is a form of communication—words as well as feelings, nonverbal as well as verbal cues.
2. People spend a good deal of energy "managing their communications"—i.e., not saying what they really mean or feel.
3. Listening is a selective process—i.e., we hear what we want to hear.
4. Communication (and interpersonal relationships in general) is *not* a static process—rather, it is a dynamic process.

One simple but powerful model for analyzing the dynamic process of interpersonal communication is transactional analysis (TA).[3] TA begins from the premise that within each personality there are elements of the Parent, the Adult, and the Child. Clues that the Parent in us is operating are the use of such words as "always," "never," "should," "ought"; global evaluative feedback (e.g., "What a stupid person you are!") vs. specific descriptive feedback (e.g., "When you leave your clothes on the floor, it upsets me"); guilt-inducing statements (e.g., "If you respected me, you would never___"; and physical cues (such as pointing an accusing finger at somebody). In the exercise of power, the Parent in us is very likely to use threats (e.g., the withholding of affection) and resolve conflicts by forcing ("I'm boss; we'll do it my way").

The use of such words as "I wish," "I guess," "I don't care" (baby talk); comparative statements coming from the "Mine is better than yours" game; and physical cues such as slouching or looking away or down are indicators of the Child in us. The Child is likely to lead us to behave like "pawns," to be dependent, to be competitive (e.g., sibling rivalry), and to approach conflict resolution through avoidance or smoothing.

The Adult in us, by contrast, shows itself in a variety of ways: in such phrases as "I see," "I think," "It is my opinion"; in an emphasis on data collection—e.g., why, what, where, when, who, how; and in an emphasis on data processing and problem solving.

Interpersonal transactions can be analyzed in terms of whether the communications between two people are complementary (congruent) or crossed (incongruent). Let us look at an example:

[3]Thomas A. Harris, *I'm OK—You're OK* (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1969). Also, M. James and D. Jorgewood, *Born to Win* (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Inc., 1971).

GERALD M. PHILLIPS

Communication and the small group

SECOND EDITION

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INDIANAPOLIS AND NEW YORK

Deviant opinions must somehow be expressed and heard. A minority may influence the majority, and sometimes the minority is right. Often, people believe what they do because they have insulated themselves against hearing something else. Small-group discussion is the appropriate place for the expression of new and sometimes strange-sounding ideas. Contact between majority and minority ideas is the material out of which consensus is built. Sulking in silent opposition is not useful either to the member or to the group. The member may find that stomach turbulence is the result of bottling up his ideas; the group is denied the use of a potentially worthwhile contribution. If members can somehow get the idea that the best group is one made up of a seething ferment of ideas, some of the personal fears and threats will be dropped and true cooperative efforts will be made to achieve a discussion goal.

To a very large extent, the success of a small group, whatever its goals, depends on the communication skills of its members. Control of communication style can be learned, and the result of effective style is the inculcation of effective attitude. We will turn now to an examination of the communication requirements of the participant in small-group activity.

Communication requirements in the small group

Advocacy of cause or self is dangerous in a small group. Intense advocacy can stimulate hostility and, what is even more dangerous, can push the advocate into a position of responsibility that he may not want to assume. One of the major communication requirements of small-group members is avoidance of the role of advocate.

In theory, the small-group member is supposed to cooperate with his colleagues to help achieve a goal. The goal is a collective one. Therefore it is not necessary for a member to show excessive concern about proving that he is "right." Direct clash of ideas is often important, but clash of personalities subverts the tone of the group and reduces the chance of consensus. Conflict is often a constructive contribution to the discussion so long as it succeeds in laying out issues that the group can decide. Polarized conflict, however, where the group is restricted to two choices, results in a destruction of goodwill and usually concludes in the choosing up of sides and the eventual dissolution of the group as a functioning entity.

The member of a small group has understanding as his communication goal. It is impossible to arrive at consensus unless each member understands what the others are talking about. For this reason, the speaker in a small group will try to avoid partisan, persuasive, and emotion-laden statements. He will not attempt to overpower the group with his erudition or zeal, either, but he will try to express his ideas so clearly that they can be understood with minimal effort by his listeners. When he is not speaking, he will listen with care, seeking understanding. He will try to avoid the preparation of a rebuttal in his head while he listens.

To avoid sounding like a verbal duelist challenging others to combat, the effective discussant adopts a moderate tone of voice. A normal conversational demeanor is the most potent style. Antagonisms between people can develop because of response to tone of voice as easily as they can from the clash of ideas. It is not difficult to stir up unnecessary tension without attacking directly. The close proximity of members to each other makes them hypersensitive to the mannerisms of their associates. The muttered comment, facial grimace, or intolerant posture, all of which can be easily ignored by a platform speaker, can be most threatening to a speaker in a discussion group. The whole pattern of discussion brings people into contact more intensely than they are in a formal audience situation. Fellow members of the group cannot be regarded as an abstract audience. They must be considered associates, partners who will respond almost with hair-trigger rapidity to messages sent their way. At no time can anyone lose sight of the fact that everyone present is a joint participant in a cooperative effort. It seems almost like an evasion for some groups to impose parliamentary regulations on discussion. Such an imposition signals the end to closeness, the end of consensus, and makes members of the group into team contestants. To avoid the necessity for close regulation of behavior, each member must assume responsibility for the emotions of the other members.

Since advocacy is not helpful in the achievement of consensus, care should be taken in criticizing or questioning ideas to make sure that the comments cannot be construed as an attack. It is most helpful to the group, for example, if opposing sentiments are phrased as questions rather than as frontal assaults. Members need the right to self-expression without feeling hidden threats. Sooner or later, if the discussion is to succeed, differences will have to be

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reconciled. For this reason, it is better to disagree as quietly as possible. This does not mean that potential critics must swallow their remarks and work for spurious harmony. It does mean that care must be taken to be sure of points of difference before critical remarks are made. Careful listening and calm questioning will permit members to separate out what they agree on before undertaking a consideration of differences.

A direct assault on a member will usually elicit a response in kind. The person under attack will feel compelled to defend his opinion and, more important, may feel it necessary to defend his personality. If questions are presented, however, details can be added and defenses can be made without involving the entire personality of the speaker, provided that the questions are posed gently. Even questions, however, can sound like an attack if posed aggressively. Interchange about an idea should be constructed in such a way that the idea becomes acceptable to the members of the group. Pressures to accept ideas should be avoided.

Excessive talk can also injure group harmony. Individuals avoid gaining an aura of dominance because of excessive participation. The group is not necessarily assisted by a great deal of talk by one person, unless that person has some unique and significant contribution to make. Often, groups are ineffective because one person seeks to talk more than is reasonable. Those who are not as volatile or effusive will feel frustrated because they cannot say what is on their minds. Eventually they will become hostile and may work actively to thwart group progress. Of course, while it is ideal that talkative members curb their desires, this is often hard to achieve. It usually takes some clash and some hostility to quiet a talkative member or at least to get him to take turns in presenting ideas. It is at this point, however, that a little sensitivity training is useful, even in a task group. If one of the group norms, or part of the group agenda, is a periodic feedback session, where one member or a formal observer has the opportunity to talk about what might be subverting the group in its efforts to achieve the goal, disruptive influences like excessive talk can be pointed out.

The normally quiet person must also recognize that he has an obligation to present ideas to the group. Group decisions optimally are the result of interaction among all the members. The quiet person is normally self-critical and often succeeds in destroying his ideas

before he presents them. For him, this destruction is a method by which he avoids opening himself up before the group. While it probably is not possible to compel contribution, it is useful for the leader to attempt to solicit remarks from quiet members. He should be particularly alert to nonverbal cues indicating that quiet members have something to say, and he must act on them.

It is also useful for group members to attempt to stay on the subject. Digressions are not always injurious to the group. A little levity frequently helps group morale. On the other hand, if digressions are attenuated, return to the agenda is difficult, the session takes too long, boredom sets in, and group decisions are not as cogent as they could be. Members should take reasonable care to confine their remarks to the point and to use digression only when it is helpful to the mood of the group.

Good listening is vital to successful communication in a discussion group. The good listener will attempt to understand remarks in the context in which they are made. He will not jump to conclusions about what another member means. Instead, he will wait until the speaker is done, and if he feels uneasy or hostile, he will attempt to find out whether or not disagreement is necessary by first asking questions sensitively and intelligently. Members should also be alert to the nonverbal behavior of their colleagues. Facial expressions, hand gestures, nods of the head, and body motions communicate significant cues, which, if responded to, may be very useful in understanding the feelings as well as the words of other members. The shy, quiet person will often try to express his ideas in the form of nonverbal cues. Response to these makes him feel more a part of the group and may even motivate him to contribute orally.

Above all, clarity in speaking should be sought. The skills required of the extemporaneous speaker can be applied to speaking in discussion. The ability to organize material rapidly and present it in a unified structure helps maximize understanding and cooperation. Improvising cogent discussion contributions demands a great deal of skill and practice, but once achieved it is of great value to the group as a whole.

Most of what has been said above represents an idea. It is virtually impossible for anyone to achieve optimal skills. It is useful, however, to maintain some critical standards and provide the group with a relatively formal means of assessing how well they are doing.

The use of an observer-recorder is helpful, both in advising the group of progress toward the goal and in informing the group about behaviors that may be causing difficulty.

There are several problems to be looked for that can contribute to difficulty in small-group problem solving. Reminders to show caution about these matters are frequently helpful to members and to the group.

1. It is not prudent to assume that each person uses words precisely the same way. A serious problem in interpersonal communication arises from the assumption that a word means the same thing to everyone. Phrases like "private enterprise," "the American way of life," "morality," "truth," or "virtue" may be defined in many ways. To understand what a speaker means, it is often necessary to question him so that he gives information on a behavioral level by offering answers that refer to events that can be observed or checked. Speakers should be assisted to avoid abstractions and generalities. Often contradictions which lead to conflict are premature and result from the assumption that the speaker means something he does not mean. Members of groups may find themselves embroiled in conflict, only to discover that there are no real issues separating them. This cannot be ascertained, however, until vague words are made concrete. Once this is done, if conflict is necessary, it may at least revolve around a real and legitimate disagreement. Discord about vagueness is virtually impossible to quell. Understanding based on specifics helps to prevent this kind of disruption.

2. Disproportionate involvement of personality in communication is dangerous. There is a tendency for all of us to assume that someone else's ideas are invalid if they are not similar to our own. This attitude is injurious to discussion. Members must recognize that they come from different backgrounds and as a result their points of view will differ. If a group is homogeneous, there will be no problem in reaching consensus, but the quality of the consensus will likely be very weak, since various views and opinions will not have been taken into consideration. Consensus comes out of synthesizing disagreements. Prearranging it by having all the members of the group believe the same things does not result in fruitful outcomes.

3. There is a tendency, particularly in problem-solving discussions, to jump to a consideration of conclusions before a thorough analysis has been made of the problem. Questions often seem transparently clear at the outset, only to have subsequent investigation reveal their complexity. A group may arrive at an unworkable solution if it is premature in agreeing on solutions. The desire to suggest conclusions should be resisted by the group until it is obvious that the entire group is satisfied with what has gone before. There should be sufficient information presented to the group to enable solutions to be satisfactorily evaluated. This means that members must take time during the early stages of development to be sure that the steps of the standard agenda are thoroughly covered before moving on.

4. Overformalization of process frequently subverts the value of discussion. Most people have had perfunctory experience with parliamentary procedure, and there is a natural tendency to apply those rules to discussion. However, more often than not, the phrase "let's vote" represents a sign of fear to face necessary conflict. The minute a vote is called on anything, the group is necessarily polarized. While polarization is not always harmful, in most cases it signals the end to cooperation and the beginning of team conflict.

A group should not have to resort to formal recognition by the chair and the use of points of order to get its business done. Parliamentary procedure is relevant to legislation done by large groups. In a small group, however, it prevents working toward consensus and reduces the number of alternatives a group may consider. A conversational format operated through a democratic leader should be the most effective way of working to consensus. This does not mean, however, that the group can afford to be disorderly about its agenda. It ought to know where it is going and what it has to do to get there, and the leader should be particularly concerned about maintaining some kind of orderly pace at working through the agenda.

5. Emotional problems displayed in talk disrupt discussion. People often clash because they perceive threats to their personal needs and values. Part of this comes from their inability to distinguish between statements of belief and statements of fact. A statement like "Jones is a good governor" is not a fact, no matter how declarative the mode of assertion is. If the man who makes the statement regards it as factual while others question his opinion, the resultant clash may lead the group astray. If group members cultivate the technique of labeling opinions as such and questioning them to discover their factual basis, the group may avoid considerable unnecessary conflict.

It is also unwise to stigmatize or label fellow members. Name-calling only hinders the discussion process. Evaluative statements generally should be avoided, but particularly those about other people. Critical comments should be confined to the ideas expressed rather than the behavior of the people who expressed them. It is equally unwise to presume that any difference of opinion justifies a personal attack. Anger and partisanship arise when individuals assume that a comment about their remarks constitutes an attack on themselves as persons. A leader should be particularly concerned about observing the threat level of his group members. If a member seems to come under attack, care should be taken to resolve the problem before it polarizes the group.

6. Each member ought to regard himself as having some potential value in the group. A group made up of members with healthy self-images will share ideas constructively and arrive at constructive consensus. One of a leader's main problems is to develop a relatively balanced discussion, in which all members share responsibility. The more problem-centered his members become, the more likely this is to happen.

7. In discussion, each member should consider himself, insofar as possible, a group member rather than an autonomous individual. Introspective remarks are disconcerting to others. Communication in discussion must be mutual. It is not communication to people but with them. The goal is understanding. Each member is responsible for contributing all he can to the accomplishment of that goal.

8. Perhaps the most important element of successful communication in a discussion group is listening skill. If a norm of attentive listening develops, there is little possibility for misinterpretation and consequent clash over irrelevant matters. Good listening can be learned within the context of discussion if the group takes care to control and regulate "pouncing" behavior on the part of its members. Normally, in a discussion, people do not raise their hands in order to gain the floor. They enter the conversation spontaneously in response to remarks previously made. When members cut other members off before they have finished speaking, or when members spend their time preparing their remarks rather than listening responsively, the group can quickly descend to the level of a "cutting match." One technique a leader can employ when he discovers that members are not listening is to require each member to summarize the remarks of the previous speaker before he makes his own statement. A very little of this technique will help to implant the idea that essential courtesy and intelligent communication demand careful listening.

Interaction games

When this section was being drafted for the first edition, the writer had just encountered an "obscure" little book by Eric Berne called Games People Play (New York: Grove Press, 1964). By the time the final draft was composed, it had become a best seller. The writings of Eric Berne are generally recommended for their deep insight into the human transaction. (My thanks, posthumously, to Eric Berne for providing a format for the writer to hold his own cynicism.)

People tend to develop patterns in personal communication. People working together develop norms or regularities of behavior. Talk between them becomes stylized and regularized. This, in turn, leads to the development of expectancies in communication, the failure of which is disrupting. When two or more people regularly engage in a series of verbal interactions designed to serve some purpose, their activity may be referred to as an "interaction game."

Communication in a small group can be understood as a multi-player game according to Eric Berne's definition of a game as "an ongoing series of complementary, ulterior transactions progressing to a well-defined outcome." Games need not be fun, as ice hockey is often not fun for the participants. The distinguishing feature of a game is its conformance to rules and expectations.

There are both constructive and destructive games that can be played in discussion. The quality of a game may be assessed by examining the outcome, not the moves; more often than not, however, the outcome of game playing is disruptive. A game begins with a statement made by one member. Another member responds in expected fashion. The game is then played out to the finish, each member participating on some level. Even those unfamiliar with the game end up being sucked into playing, and until the game is completed or broken up, the group cannot move on to its goal. There are an unlimited number of games that people in small groups may play, but some occur more frequently than others. Following are some of the recurrent games found in small groups.

Application of Learning Sheet

1. List two major points of learning for you from this workshop. What does this learning means to you?

2. List two ways in which this learning can be applied to your functioning as an admininstrator.

Workshop II

A Comparison of Non-Assertive, Assertive, Aggressive, Non-Assertive Agressive Behavior*

	Non-Assertive Behavior	Assertive Behavior	Aggressive Behavior	(NAG) Non-Assertive Aggressive Behavior
Characteristics of the behavior	Emotionally dishonest, indirect, self-denying, Allows others to choose for her. Does not achieve desired goal.	Emotionally honest direct, self-enhancing, expressive. Chooses for self. May achieve goal.	Emotionally honest direct, self-enhancing at the expense of another, expressive, Chooses for others. May achieve goal at expense of others.	Emotionally dishonest, indirect, self-denying, Chooses for others. May achieve goal at expense of others.
Your feelings	Hurt, anxious, possibly angry later.	Confident, self-respecting.	Righteous, superior, derogative at the time and possibly guilty later.	Defiance, anger, self-denying. Sometimes anxious, possibly guilty later.
The other person's feelings toward you	Irritated, p.ty, lack of respect.	Generally respect	Angry, resentful	Angry, resentful, irritated, disgusted.
The other person's feelings about her/himself	Guilty or superior.	Valued, respected.	Hurt, embarrassed, defensive.	Hurt, guilty or superior, humiliated.

*Idea from Robert E. Alberti and Michael Emmons, *Your Perfect Right: A Guide to Assertive Behavior* (San Luis Obispo, Calif.: Impact, 1970). p. 11.

Human Rights

. . . **Right** to refuse requests without having to feel guilty or selfish.

. . . **Right** to feel and express feelings including anger, as long as we don't violate the rights of others.

. . . **Right** to be competitive and to achieve.

. . . **Right** to enjoy rest and leisure.

. . . **Right** to have one's needs be as important as the needs of other people.

. . . **Right** to decide which activities will fulfill those needs.

. . . **Right** to make mistakes.

. . . **Right** to have one's opinions given the same respect and consideration that other people's opinions are given.

. . . **Right** to be treated as a capable adult and taken seriously.

. . . **Right** to be independent.

. . . **Right** to get what we pay for.

. . . **Right** to ask for information from professionals.

. . . **Right** to decide when to be assertive.

Rights Also Involve Responsibilities

Assertiveness Training Checklist

1. How did you look?

   Eye contact ?

   Relaxed posture?

   Nervous laughing or joking?

   Excessive or unrelated hand and body movements?

2. What did you say?

   Comments concise, to the point, appropriately assertive to the situation?

   Comments definite and firm?

   A factual statement with no long-winded explanations, excuses or apologetic behavior?

3. How did you say it?

   An immediate response to what the other person said?

   No whining, pleading, sarcasm?

4. How did you feel about your performance?

   Did you gain in self-respect?

   Rate yourself on your SUDS (Subjective Units of Disturbance) score below:

0	100
Relaxed	Panic Stricken

As a woman, I can't . . .

As a woman, I don't choose . . . .

As a woman, I may be able to . . .

Are you willing to act assertively in some situation now?

How and when will you try?

Is their a need for you to act assertively in some situation related to your administrative functioning?

If so, how can this workshop help you in this respect?

What specific assertiveness skills of your own did you get in touch with during the workshop?

Workshop III

In addition to this set of alternatives, the manager has another important set of options that has to do with the decision process itself.

EVENTS IN THE DECISION PROCESS

> IMPORTANT
>
> We should look at decision making as a *process* made up of several events rather than the single event of selecting the solution.

Below is a breakdown of the flow of events in the decision process.[1]

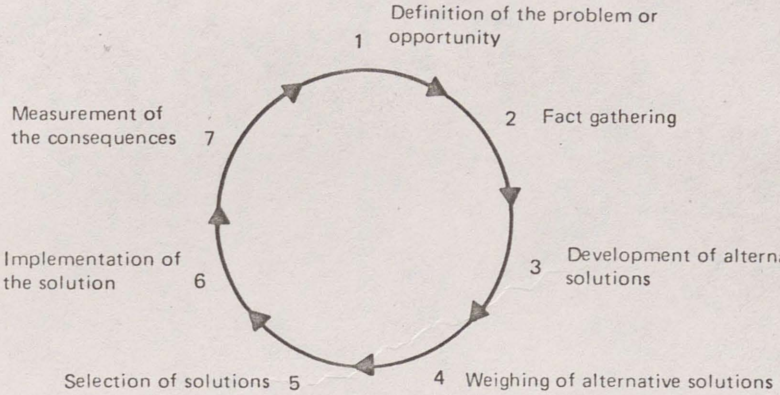


FIGURE 12-1

As you look at these seven steps in the decision process, it is important to realize that at each stage of the process there can be a separate decision made regarding who can participate in the process and in what way or ways. This, then, presents the manager with a vastly increased number of alternatives with which to approach the design of the decision process.

For instance the manager may have some people involved in the development of alternatives but not in the definition of the problem. An example of this might be a manager in the automobile industry who, working alone, defines the problem as one involving the need for low-cost transportation in developing areas of the world. Having defined the problem in this way, the manager may then ask the research and development department to develop creative alternatives for consideration. Once they have developed these alternatives he or she may ask the engineering and the accounting departments to try to estimate the cost of these alternatives. After this work is done, the marketing department may be asked to estimate the chances of each of the alternatives of penetrating the market in developing countries. Then an entirely different group may be called together to decide whether or not the company will produce the vehicle.

The reason for this is fairly obvious. The desirable skills in all steps of the process may not reside in the same individual or group of individuals. The cost-accounting department may not be of much use in trying to brainstorm and creatively develop new ideas for products. On the other hand, the engineers may be very fuzzy about steps and processes involved in correctly evaluating the alternatives.

In summary, then, a wide variety of options are available to the manager in determining the nature of decision processes.

[1] While this is a normal breakdown of the steps or stages in making a decision, one could further break down these seven steps into subprocesses.

RANKING SCORE SHEET

Phase A			Phase B		Phase C	
Individual ranking		*Items (to be filled in according to instructor)*	*Group ranking*		*Individual ranking*	
	Score			Score		Score
Phase A Score ______			Phase B Score ______		Phase C Score ______	

Place number 1 by the most important item, number 2 by the second most important, and so on, through the least important. You have forty-five minutes to complete this phase.

Phase C. After the group has made its decision, each person individually should rerank the items making any changes felt to be correct.

RANKING SCORE SHEET

Phases A and B **Phase C**

Group consensus ranking	Score	*Items (to be filled in according to instructor)*	*Individual ranking*	Score
Phases A & B Score ______			Phase C Score ______	

RANKING SCORE SHEET

Phase A			Phase B		Phase C	
Pairs ranking	Score	*Items (to be filled in according to instructor)*	*Leader ranking*	Score	*Individual ranking*	Score
Phase A Score ____			Phase B Score ____		Phase C Score ____	

When your group finishes the exercise, ask for scoring instructions from the instructor.

Application of Learning*

(1) What is your preference for style in making a decision?

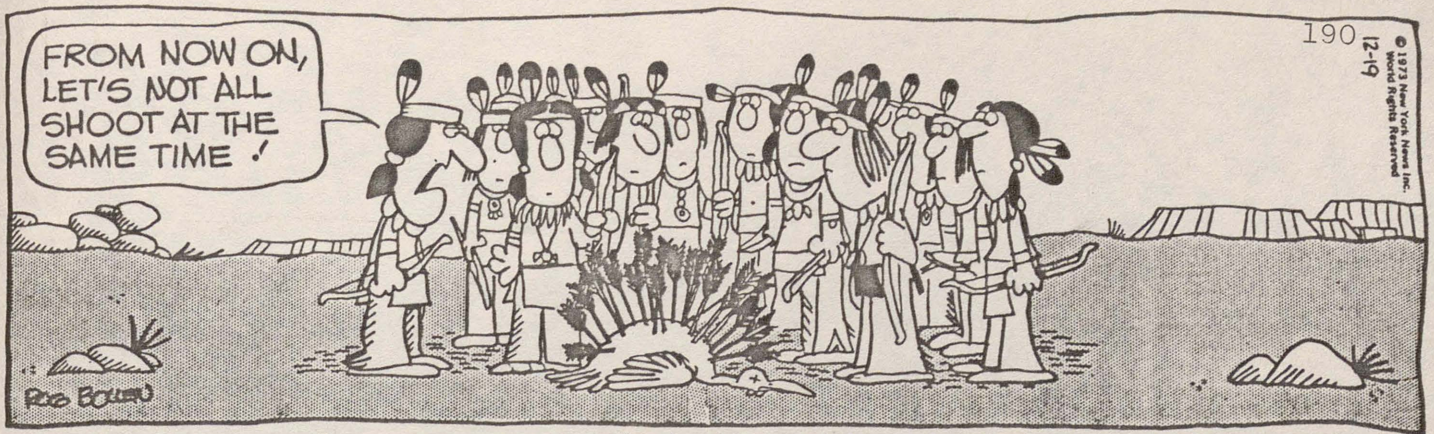
Why?

(2) What types of tasks are there in organizations that might be especially suitable for a particular way of making decisions?

Nature of Task	Particularly suited for which type of decision method

*Adapted from Harry R. Knudson, and others, "Management--An Experiential Approach," 1979, p. 164.

Workshop IV



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IV. PROCEDURE FOR GROUP MEETING

A. Background of Universal Wicket, Inc.

For the purposes of this exercise, the total group should assume they are an organization entitled Universal Wicket, Inc., a 53-year-old specialized company engaged in manufacturing and selling recreational supplies. During its history it has failed to show a profit only during the years 1932–1934. It began by producing croquet sets, and in recent years has diversified into closely allied lines, including aboveground swimming pools. Its largest seller at the present time is the 108-gram professional-model flying saucer. During the fiscal year just concluded, Universal Wicket showed an operating loss of over $500,000 on sales of just over $26,000,000. The cash on hand has decreased, but not markedly. Current cash account is about $1 million; weekly payroll is $150,000. The stockholders and board members, as well as management and labor, are deeply concerned about the operating loss. Most people in the organization feel that immediate remedial action is required.

The company president not only feels this pressure but he also feels a definite commitment to get the company on the upward track again. He knows that the situation cannot continue as it is now, and has called on the various departmental vice presidents to meet with managers in their departments preparatory to a later meeting at which decisions will be reached about the future of the company.

He and the executive vice president, who serves as V.P.–Finance and who works closely with him on overall company affairs, have been given as much latitude as they need by the board of directors. They can deal with the various problems and formulate any new policies they wish.

In addition to the president and executive vice president, Universal Wicket has the following functional groups, each headed by a vice president.

1. Research
2. Production
3. Personnel
4. Sales
5. Marketing

Brief thumbnail sketches of the present situation in each of the five major departments of Universal Wicket follow: *Each department will have to be creative and imaginative in the additional assumptions they make about their own and other departments in the organization. The only constraint is that all assumptions be consistent with the general descriptions provided.*

OBSERVER RATING FORM

In the spaces below, write down *behavioral* examples of these kinds of issues that you observed which helped or hindered the accomplishment of the task.	Next to your observations, write down any *consequences* you saw. What was the result of the behavior in terms of the team's ability to get its work done?
G. Things to do with goals	
R. Things to do with roles	
P. Things to do with procedures (i.e., decision making) or group process	
I. Things to do with personality or interpersonal communication	

TO: All Vice Presidents
FROM: Mr. A. Pex, President, Mr. J. Jones, Executive Vice President
SUBJECT: Profit Situation

As you are all undoubtedly aware, company profits took a substantial turn for the worse during the past year. This is a matter of serious concern and Mr. Jones and I would like, therefore, to meet with all of you to discuss this problem. It would be helpful if before the meeting, each of you would:

1. Meet with your department heads and prepare an assessment of the strengths and weaknesses you see within your respective departments—i.e., areas where fat could be eliminated, sources of inefficiency, hidden assets we are not using, and so on.
2. Give some thought to the company as a whole and what we might be able to do to improve our position.

We must come out of this meeting with decisions concerning what we plan to do in response to this problem.

Instructions to President and Executive Vice President

In response to your memo, your functional vice presidents will arrive shortly to discuss plans for improving the company's profit picture. The two of you should use the time until they arrive to plan a format for this meeting and do whatever else you feel you must to prepare yourselves. Midway through this meeting there will be a 10-minute break wherein each of the vice presidents will reconvene with his own group. *The meeting must end 1 hour after you begin.*

Instructions to Vice Presidents and Their Department Members

Twenty minutes from now, all vice presidents will be meeting with the president and executive vice president to develop a plan for improving the company's profit picture. To facilitate observation and save time, department members will be able to *observe* (no interaction) this meeting. An Observer Form has been provided for this purpose (p. 315). This will eliminate the need for each vice president to fill in his group as to what has transpired in the meeting. There will be a short break (10 minutes) midway through the meeting. After the break, the vice presidents should return to the meeting, which will continue until the *1 hour* allotted for it is over. Then the entire group will discuss the exercise.

Application of Learning Sheet

(1) List two major points of learning for you from the previous workshop.

What does this learning mean to you?

(2) List a question that you now have as a result of the previous learning experience:

Identify key concepts that could lead to further learning for you.

List two possible ways of your finding answers to the question you raised above:

Workshop V

Apogee Corporation
Inter-Office Memo

TO: Manufacturing Department
Marketing Department
FROM: Brian Cleary, Executive Vice President
RE: Criteria for choosing new president, Nadir Corporation

You are requested to hold a department meeting for the purpose of establishing criteria for choosing a new president for Nadir Corporation. Please prepare a brief report listing five criteria, in short phrases, that you think should be used in the choice. Please rank-order them in terms of their importance to the Nadir Corporation.

When you have prepared your reports, we will have a joint meeting of the two departments to evaluate them.

Step 1 (10 minutes). The total group will be the Nadir Corporation, with half representing marketing, half manufacturing. Assign or divide into the groups on whatever basis seems most appropriate, keeping the same number of members in each group. The group leader or instructor will act as Brian Cleary, the EVP, and coordinate the simulation and discussion.

Step 2 (30 minutes). Marketing and manufacturing meet separately to prepare their response to Cleary's memo, listing their criteria for choosing a new president of the Nadir Corporation. Short phrases should be used, and there should be no more than five criteria listed by each group. They should be rank-ordered in terms of importance to the company. *Each group member* should make a clear, legible copy of the group report for use in the next step.

Step 3 (20 minutes). To evaluate the two reports, Cleary has asked individuals in marketing to pair off with someone in manufacturing. During this period you will be paired with a member of the other team. The pairings may be done as you wish. You will be expected to provide a copy of your group's criteria report for your discussion partner to review.

Your task as a two-person team will be to decide which set of criteria is better in its entirety and by how much. You must allot 100 points between the two, but cannot allot them 50-50. There must be a preference indicated, whether by 52-48 or by 90-10. Concentrate on the content of the list rather than peripheral things such as style or elegance of wording.

At the end of 20 minutes (the instructor or leader should let you know when the time is up) give your numerical results to the instructor or leader and return to your original group. S/he will tabulate them and announce which report is best.

Step 4 (20 minutes). Back in your original groups, discuss the preceding hour's events, focusing on:

a. How this group operated during the time in which you were generating the criteria report.

1. What was the predominant leadership style? What were its effects?
2. What were the effects of time and task pressures on group interaction?
3. How were conflicts handled? Decisions made?

b. The state of this group now.

1. What is the climate in this group right now? Is it different from when you were doing the task?
2. How willing would you be to give or receive help from someone in the other group right now? How easy would it be for you to work with the other group now (e. g., to implement the winning criteria list)?
3. What effect did winning or losing have on your group?

Step 5 (30 minutes). Reconvene as a class. Read the summary (pp. 323-325) and, using it as a guide, discuss:

a. What happened within the groups during the task? Were the summary predictions correct? How did they vary from the reality?

b. What happened between the two groups?

c. In the group discussion (step 4), what was the winning group's discussion like? Were the summary predictions valid?

d. What was the climate in the losing group? Were the summary predictions valid for them?

e. What conclusions can you draw about the effect of intergroup competition on group behavior? On your behavior as an individual group member?

f. How might the EVP's memo be rewritten to reduce conflict?

Optional
Step 6 (20 minutes; if time permits). Meet once again with your partner from the other group for purposes of giving each other feedback on your influence styles. Discuss:

a. Your perception of your partner's influence style during the interaction and your reasons for it.

b. Your partner's perception of your influence style and the reasons for it.

c. How these perceptions agree or conflict with your own perception of your influence style.

(Refer to your experience in the unit, "Leadership: the Effective Exercise of Power and Influence," and compare your style then and now. Do you perceive changes in your style of influencing others?)

V. SUMMARY

Schein, in *Organizational Psychology*,[4] provides a brief but lucid description of intergroup problems in organizations. This summary draws heavily upon his ideas. The simulation you have just experienced has been replicated many times with a variety of groups.[5] Because the results have been surprisingly constant, it is now possible to predict, with relative certainty, what will generally happen as a consequence of intergroup competition. These predictions are summarized here.

A. What Happens *Within* Groups?

The members of each of two competing groups begin to close ranks and quickly experience increased feelings of group loyalty and pride. Each group sees itself as the best and the other group as

[4] Edgar H. Schein, *Organizational Psychology* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965), pp. 80-86.
[5] The most systematic research in organizational settings is reported in Robert R. Blake, H. A. Shepard, and Jane S. Mouton, *Managing Intergroup Conflict in Industry* (Houston, Tex.: Gulf Publishing Company, 1964).

Application of Learning Sheet

(1) List two major points of learning for you from the previous workshop.

What does this learning mean to you?

(2) List a question that you now have as a result of the previous learning experience:

Identify key concepts that could lead to further learning for you.

List two possible ways of your finding answers to the question you raised above:

APPENDIX K

CLINICAL NOTES

Session number 1

Activity engaged in: In Workshop I, participants were involved in structured experiences, lecture, and an application of learning exercise focused on Interpersonal Communications.

Process created by activity: Participants engaged each other in pairs and in groups in exercises designed to: (1) provide an opportunity for participants to experience their different modes of communicating, and (2) allow individuals to receive feedback on their specific style of communicating with others.

Outcome: One major outcome was the consensus among participants that this was one of the few times (and first for some) that they were consciously aware of their style of communicating and its effect on others. Another outcome of this workshop was that participants did not feel as if they understood what was happening in terms of workshop procedures.

Clinical comments: Participants had trouble utilizing the experiential model of learning initially (this was expected, because experiential learning being different from traditional learning, it would take major emphasis by facilitator in the initial stages to focus participants into the experiential mode of thinking). Towards the end of the workshop it was felt by the facilitator that the group was moving into the experiential perspective. This could be seen through more frequent use of "I" statements and more emphasis in discussions on process rather than content.

CLINICAL NOTES

Session number 2

Activity engaged in: In Workshop II, participants were involved in structured experiences and applications of learning exercise focused on Assertiveness Training.

Process created by activity: Participants engaged each other one on one, in pairs, and in groups on the topics of assertive behavior, distinguishing between the different types of assertive behavior, practicing assertive skills, and role playing exhibiting assertive behavior.

Outcome: One major outcome was that participants, as a whole, felt that the familiarization of the definitions of the various types of behavior was really helpful to them as females. Another outcome was that some participants were able to experience themselves exhibiting assertive behavior (after understanding definition thoroughly) while not experiencing the usual accompanying anxiety.

Clinical comments: Participants were really involved in this workshop. The facilitator's presentation of the definition of the different types of aggressive and assertive behavior and accompanying example of each type of behavior was the catalyst to learning in this session. Once participants understood definitions and had a clear idea of the specific types of behavior exhibited by each, group members were willingly open to sharing their experiences and discussing reactions with each other.

CLINICAL NOTES

Session number 3

Activity engaged in: In Workshop III, participants were involved in structural experiences, application of learning exercises, and discussions focused in the area and the nature of decision-making.

Process created by activity: Participants engaged each other in group tasks, discussions, and process discussion on different ways of decision-making and effects of different ways of decision-making.

Outcome: The major outcome of this workshop was that many participants experienced themselves being more flexible in utilizing a decision-making style other than central authority; even though before the workshop they might have felt that central authority was the most appropriate decision-making style for them.

Clinical comments: The segment of the workshop that focused on "effects of different ways of decision-making" seemed to have had the most impact on the group. After this segment of the workshop, there was noticeable emphasis by participants on the question "What effects does my style of decision-making have on others?" Facilitator introduced this question for each participant to react to before responding in any manner. This helped participants to keep in mind who the decision-making style is being exhibited to as well as how it is being exhibited. The statement that this segment had the most impact is substantiated also by participants' application of learning sheets for this workshop. There were statements to the effect that many participants felt subordinates should have at least a minimal amount of input in decisions involving them.

CLINICAL NOTES

Session number 4

Activity engaged in: In Workshop IV, participants were involved in structured experience, lecturette, and process discussion focusing in the area of managing work team effectiveness in group tasks.

Process created by activity: Participants were involved as participant or observer in a team problem-solving exercise and engaged each other in sharing reactions and observations of each other during activities.

Outcome: One major outcome was that many of the participants were surprised at their behavior in a group task in which cooperation was stressed instead of competition. Some participants stressed that they had never spent much time reflecting on their behavior in group task situations.

Clinical comments: During the group task the facilitator pointed out the competitiveness being exhibited by individuals as a focus for the group's attention. After discussing the issue of competitiveness and reflecting, group members were able to objectively center on their behavior and its effectiveness to team functioning in completing a group task. This was one of the goals of this workshop.

CLINICAL NOTES

Session number 5

Activity engaged in: In Workshop V, participants engaged each other one-on-one and in groups in non-verbal exercise, group meeting task and process discussion. The focus of these activities was managing group conflict.

Process created by activity: Group members were divided into two sections and given a task in which the two groups were to competitively complete the task together.

Outcome: One major outcome was that participants didn't have too much trouble resolving conflict between themselves and their partners in the group task. Another outcome was that participants felt they were better able to experience themselves and their actions in this group situation.

Clinical comments: This workshop didn't generate too much conflict in the group task. The conflict that was generated was handled between the two partners and a decision was reached without taking it to the large group. There could be a question as to the placement of managing group conflict as the last workshop.

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