

■ ATTITUDES TOWARD WOMEN AS MANAGERS (ATWAM)

Edward B. Yost and Theodore T. Herbert

Attitudes play a central role in the formation of people's beliefs and behaviors. Yet attitudes are intangible and unobservable; people often are unaware of their specific attitudes and the manner in which they affect their behavior. Many attitudes are developed and maintained in a nonlogical fashion, experientially and unsystematically, rather than as the result of rational analysis.

Attitudes are powerful influences on the behavior of people at work (Herbert & Yost, 1978b). If a supervisor develops a specific attitude toward an unruly subordinate, it is likely to affect their future interactions. If a supervisor has a generalized attitude about a group of individuals who are characterized by some attribute, it is likely to affect the supervisor's treatment of each member of that group with whom he or she comes into contact. Such behavior may range from preferential treatment to exclusionary, discriminatory actions.

GENDER-RELATED ATTITUDES AT WORK

Because attitudes are pervasive and powerful influences on behavior, it is important to consider their role in the treatment—both by men and by other women—of women in managerial positions. A supervisor's attitudes about the ability of women to serve in managerial capacities will affect the extent to which he or she judges a female's performance or grants or withholds developmental opportunities.

This identification is necessary if we are to achieve equity in the degree to which or manner in which women are trained and developed for managerial positions or are assigned to supervisors who will encourage them and serve as mentors.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE INSTRUMENT

Peters, Terborg, and Taynor (1974) developed the Women As Managers Scale (WAMS) to identify and measure stereotypical attitudes toward women as managers (Terborg, 1979). Despite acceptable psychometric properties reported by the authors, Herbert and Yost (1978a) found the WAMS instrument transparent and, therefore, highly susceptible to being "faked," thus limiting its usefulness. In addition, social desirability effects have been found that question whether the WAMS instrument accurately reflects sensitive

The ATWAM instrument was developed in a master's thesis by Edward B. Yost under the direction of Theodore T. Herbert.

attitudes or is contaminated by the need of respondents to answer in socially desirable ways (Herbert & Yost, 1977).

Because of these reservations about the WAMS instrument and the limited usefulness of other available instruments (primarily because of their more global application to women in general), an empirically derived instrument was developed. The Attitudes Toward Women As Managers (ATWAM) Scale is “a rating procedure which controls for social desirability and other possible response biases” (Thomas & Kilmann, 1977, p. 747). In the development of the ATWAM instrument, social desirability for all items was measured, and items with equal social-desirability attributes were matched to eliminate response bias and the possibility of “faking.” The items were factor analyzed, with only “pure” (Nunnally, 1967, p. 328) items retained. Finally, a forced-choice format was developed, similar to that used in the Mach V Attitude Inventory (Christie, 1978; Christie & Geis, 1970). Christie and Geis found that a free-choice Likert format enabled responses to be influenced heavily by social desirability, despite instructions to respondents to answer honestly. The forced-choice format reduces the ability of respondents to make selections that are not true measures of their attitudes regarding controversial or value-laden issues.

The format of the ATWAM instrument provides the respondent with two choices of equal social desirability for each item (one choice deals with the attitude of interest and the other with an unrelated attitude) plus a third choice of opposing social desirability but also unrelated to the attitude of interest. For each item, the respondent chooses the one answer that is most characteristic of himself or herself and the one that is least characteristic.

THE ATWAM INSTRUMENT

The ATWAM instrument consists of ten items, with three possible responses for each item, including a keyed or test response, a response matched in social desirability with the test response but unrelated in content, and a buffer or unrelated response. In order to disrupt any mental set on the part of respondents and to make the instrument less transparent, two additional items are introduced for response but are not scored. The ATWAM scoring system yields a possible score range of ten to seventy; the theoretical neutral point is forty.

Testing has established the superiority of ATWAM over WAMS in that it is less transparent and responses are less able to be faked (Herbert & Yost, 1977). The psychometric properties of ATWAM have been shown to be stable and internally consistent; test-retest reliability in one sample was 0.7660 ($p < .001$). For split-half reliabilities, odd-even correlation was 0.8129 ($p < .001$) and first half-second half correlation was 0.9103 ($p < .001$). Two samples demonstrate the lack of contamination of responses with social desirability: the correlation with the Crowne-Marlowe Social Desirability scale was 0.0551 in the first sample and -0.1010 in the second.

ATWAM significantly correlated with WAMS ($r = -0.4369, p < .05$); the negative correlation occurred because positive attitudes toward female managers are scored high on the WAMS and low on ATWAM. In another sample, Spence and Helmreich's (1972) Attitudes Toward Women Scale (AWS) correlated at 0.1276 (n.s., $p > .10$) with ATWAM; AWS is a measure of attitudes toward women in general, whereas ATWAM measures attitudes toward women in the managerial role.

Normative data for ATWAM are summarized in Tables 1 and 2.

Administration

ATWAM is a pencil-and-paper questionnaire that can be administered equally well in a group or a take-home situation. The instrument contains twelve items, each item consisting of a set of three statements. It takes no more than fifteen minutes to administer the instrument; the instructions are self-explanatory, although a brief description of the procedure by the administrator is helpful. The respondent is asked to examine one item (set of three statements) at a time and, from that set, to indicate the one statement with which he or she most agrees or the statement that is most characteristic of him or her by placing an M (for most agree) in the blank beside the statement. Then the respondent selects, from the two remaining statements, the one with which he or she least agrees, placing an L (for least agree) in the blank beside that statement. In each set, one statement will not be chosen.

Table 1. Summary of Normative Data for ATWAM (Student Sample)

Group	ATWAM Score				Sample		
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Median	Range	Age	Standard Deviation	Median
Nonminority, male, MBA students (n=110)	36.4	8.2	35.4	22-58	28.7	3.9	28.5
Nonminority, female, MBA students (n=11)	28.6	4.1	28.0	22-34	n/a	n/a	n/a
Undergraduate, male, business students (n=52)	38.2	8.4	38.0	26-62	25.4	4.4	23.8

Scoring

Because of its format, ATWAM is somewhat more difficult to score than are Likert-scale or free-choice-response instruments. The ATWAM format allows several choices of response rather than presenting only a single scale. The combinations of responses for each set of statements determine the variable points that are given to each set, because various combinations of responses are associated with differential attitude levels. The point values for each set of statements are summed over the ten sets to determine the single, total ATWAM score.

Table 2. Summary of Normative Data for ATWAM (Industry Sample)

Normalized ATWAM Scores: All Respondents				Normalized ATWAM Scores: Middle-Management Respondents			
Percentage Scoring Below	ATWAM Score: All (n=289)	ATWAM Score: Males (n=161)	ATWAM Score: Female (n=128)	Percentage Scoring Below	ATWAM Score: All (n=58)	ATWAM Score: Males (n=32)	ATWAM Score: Female (n=26)
1%	17	20	16	1%	19	22	18
5%	22	25	20	5%	24	26	22
10%	25	28	22	10%	26	28	24
15%	28	30	24	15%	28	30	26
20%	29	31	26	20%	29	31	27
25%	30	33	27	25%	30	32	28
30%	31	34	28	30%	31	33	29
35%	32	35	29	35%	32	34	30
40%	34	36	30	40%	33	35	31
45%	35	37	31	45%	34	36	32
50%	36	38	32	50%	35	37	32
55%	37	39	33	55%	36	37	33
60%	38	40	34	60%	37	38	34
65%	39	41	35	65%	38	39	35
70%	40	42	36	70%	39	40	36
75%	41	43	37	75%	40	41	37
80%	42	45	38	80%	41	42	38
85%	44	46	39	85%	42	43	39
90%	46	48	41	90%	44	45	41
95%	49	51	43	95%	46	47	43
99%	54	56	47	99%	50	51	47
Mean	35.13	37.89	31.64	Mean	34.67	36.56	32.35
Standard Deviation	8.09	7.93	6.88	Standard Deviation	6.70	6.51	6.28

To disrupt mental set and to reduce transparency of the instrument, the first and sixth sets of statements are not scored. Scores can range from ten to seventy; forty is the theoretical neutral point.

Interpretation

Low ATWAM scores are associated with positive or favorable attitudes toward women in the managerial role, i.e., as indicating that the respondent does not hold negative sex-role stereotypes. The lower the ATWAM score, the more favorable the attitude. High scores are associated with negative or unfavorable attitudes toward women in the managerial role, indicating that the respondent does hold negative sex-role stereotypes. The higher the score, the more unfavorable the attitude. Scores in the range of thirty to forty indicate that the respondent holds neither positive nor negative attitudes toward women as managers.

Feedback to Respondents

When ATWAM is used in group sessions for training, development, or educational purposes, it is helpful to provide feedback to each respondent regarding his or her score. It is suggested that each person's score be reviewed privately, followed by an anonymous breakdown of the group's score. It is important that this confidentiality of individual scores be preserved in disclosing group scores. The ATWAM Interpretation Sheet found at the end of this article has proven useful for such feedback and as a basis for discussion.

Administering the instrument before initiating discussion seems most useful, even though ATWAM is resistant to social desirability or "faking" effects. The group profile of scores then serves as an involving device on which to base lecture and discussion of the effects of attitudes on behavior and of bias/discrimination in particular.

APPLICATIONS OF ATWAM

The ATWAM instrument can be used both as a practical tool and as a research instrument: in management training and development sessions, for pre- and post-treatment evaluation, as an experiential activity to increase self-knowledge, and as the basis for a lecture on or discussion of discriminatory or biased behaviors.

For research purposes, the instrument can help to reveal more about the causes and dynamics of discriminatory or biased behaviors and to assess the effectiveness of various interventions aimed at attitudinal change. Life-style and socioeconomic-status correlates with ATWAM are likely to lead to new understanding of the maintenance and transmission of bias within various demographic groups and between generations within the same demographic group. Finally, the instrument could be useful in establishing a criterion against which to discover the specific differences between biased and unbiased people, both behaviorally and psychologically.

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ATTITUDES TOWARD WOMEN AS MANAGERS (ATWAM) SCALE

Edward B. Yost and Theodore T. Herbert¹

Instructions: From each *set* (of three) statements below, select the one statement with which you most agree and place an M (for “most agree”) in the blank to the right of that statement.

For each *set*, also select the one statement with which you least agree and place an L (for “least agree”) in the blank to the right of that statement.

Note that one statement in each set will not be chosen at all.

1. A. Men are more concerned with the cars they drive than with the clothes their wives wear. _____
B. Any man worth his salt should not be blamed for putting his career above his family. _____
C. A person’s job is the best single indicator of the sort of person he is. _____
2. A. Parental authority and responsibility for discipline of the children should be divided equally between the husband and the wife. _____
B. It is less desirable for women to have jobs that require responsibility than for men. _____
C. Men should not continue to show courtesies to women such as holding doors open for them and helping them with their coats. _____
3. A. It is acceptable for women to assume leadership roles as often as men. _____
B. In a demanding situation, a woman manager would be no more likely to break down than would a male manager. _____
C. There are some professions and types of businesses that are more suitable for men than for women. _____
4. A. Recognition for a job well done is less important to women than it is to men. _____
B. A woman should demand money for household and personal expenses as a right rather than a gift. _____
C. Women are temperamentally fit for leadership positions. _____

¹ The authors encourage the use of this instrument for research purposes and request that normative data be sent to them: Edward B. Yost, College of Business Administration, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio 45701, or Theodore T. Herbert, 1898 Demetree Dr., Winter Park, FL 32789-5933.

5. A. Women tend to allow their emotions to influence their managerial behavior more than men. _____
- B. The husband and the wife should be equal partners in planning the family budget. _____
- C. If both husband and wife agree that sexual fidelity is not important, there is no reason why both should not have extramarital affairs. _____
6. A. A man's first responsibility is to his wife, not to his mother. _____
- B. A man who is able and willing to work hard has a good chance of succeeding in whatever he wants to do. _____
- C. Only after a man has achieved what he wants from life should he concern himself with the injustices in the world. _____
7. A. A wife should make every effort to minimize irritations and inconveniences for the male head of the household. _____
- B. Women can cope with stressful situations as effectively as men can. _____
- C. Women should be encouraged not to become sexually intimate with anyone, even their fiancés, before marriage. _____
8. A. The "obey" clause in the marriage service is insulting to women. _____
- B. Divorced men should help to support their children but should not be required to pay alimony if their wives are capable of working. _____
- C. Women have the capacity to acquire the necessary skills to be successful managers. _____
9. A. Women can be aggressive in business situations that demand it. _____
- B. Women have an obligation to be faithful to their husbands. _____
- C. It is childish for a woman to assert herself by retaining her maiden name after marriage. _____
10. A. Men should continue to show courtesies to women such as holding doors open for them or helping them with their coats. _____
- B. In job appointments and promotions, females should be given equal consideration with males. _____
- C. It is all right for a wife to have an occasional, casual, extramarital affair. _____

11. A. The satisfaction of her husband's sexual desires is a
fundamental obligation of every wife. _____
- B. Most women should not want the kind of support that men
traditionally have given them. _____
- C. Women possess the dominance to be successful leaders. _____
12. A. Most women need and want the kind of protection and support
that men traditionally have given them. _____
- B. Women are capable of separating their emotions from their
ideas. _____
- C. A husband has no obligation to inform his wife of his financial
plans. _____

ATWAM SCORING SHEET

Instructions:

1. Record your response for the indicated items in the spaces provided.
2. On the basis of the information provided below, determine the points for each item and enter these points in the space provided to the right. For example, if in item 3, you chose alternative A as the one with which you most agree and alternative B as the one with which you least agree, you should receive three points for item 3.

Note that items 1 and 6 are “buffer items” and are not scored.

3. When you have scored all ten scorable items, add the points and record the total at the bottom of this page in the space provided. This is your total ATWAM score.

Your Response	Item No.	Points per Item Response*						Points
		1	3		5		7	
	1	Not Scored						
M _____ L _____	2	C(M) B(L)	A(M) B(L)	C(M) A(L)	A(M) C(L)	B(M) A(L)	B(M) C(L)	
M _____ L _____	3	A(M) C(L)	A(M) B(L)	B(M) C(L)	C(M) B(L)	B(M) A(L)	C(M) A(L)	
M _____ L _____	4	C(M) B(L)	C(M) A(L)	A(M) B(L)	B(M) A(L)	A(M) C(L)	B(M) C(L)	
M _____ L _____	5	C(M) A(L)	C(M) B(L)	B(M) A(L)	A(M) B(L)	B(M) A(L)	A(M) C(L)	
	6	Not Scored						
M _____ L _____	7	B(M) A(L)	B(M) C(L)	C(M) A(L)	A(M) C(L)	C(M) B(L)	A(M) B(L)	
M _____ L _____	8	C(M) B(L)	C(M) A(L)	A(M) B(L)	B(M) A(L)	A(M) C(L)	B(M) C(L)	
M _____ L _____	9	A(M) B(L)	A(M) C(L)	C(M) B(L)	B(M) C(L)	C(M) A(L)	B(M) A(L)	
M _____ L _____	10	B(M) A(L)	B(M) C(L)	C(M) A(L)	A(M) C(L)	C(M) B(L)	A(M) B(L)	
M _____ L _____	11	C(M) A(L)	C(M) B(L)	B(M) A(L)	A(M) B(L)	B(M) C(L)	A(M) C(L)	
M _____ L _____	12	B(M) A(L)	B(M) C(L)	C(M) A(L)	A(M) C(L)	C(M) B(L)	A(M) B(L)	

Total _____

*M indicates item chosen as “most”; L indicates item chosen as “least.”

ATWAM INTERPRETATION SHEET

Name _____

Your ATWAM Score _____

The total score that you have received from the ATWAM (Attitudes Toward Women As Managers) provides an indication of your feelings about women in managerial roles. The higher your ATWAM score, the more prone you are to hold negative sex-role stereotypes about women in management. Possible total scores range from ten to seventy; a “neutral” score (one that indicates neither positive nor negative attitudes about women as managers) is in the range of thirty to forty.

The table that follows will show you how your ATWAM score compares to those of managers who have answered the questionnaire.

Instructions: Find your ATWAM score in the column on the left and circle the corresponding scores for all three groups in the columns to the right to compare your score with those of others.

Percentage Scoring Below You			
ATWAM Score	All Managers	Male Managers	Female Managers
16			1
17	1		
18			
19			
20		1	5
21			
22	5		10
23			
24		5	15
25	10		
26			20
27			25
28	15	10	30
29	20		35
30	25	15	40
31	30	20	45
32	35		50
33		25	55
34	40	30	60
35	45	35	65
36	50	40	70

Percentage Scoring Below You			
ATWAM Score	All Managers	Male Managers	Female Managers
37	55	45	75
38	60	50	80
39	65	55	85
40	70	60	
41	75	65	90
42	80	70	
43		75	95
44	85		
45		80	
46	90	85	
47			99
48		90	
49	95		
50			
51		95	
52			
53			
54	99		
55			
56		99	

■ BRIEF DIAGNOSTIC INSTRUMENTS

Frank Burns and Robert L. Gragg

Four examples of scales that have been constructed for various types of measurement situations are included here. These are intended to be not only immediately useful but also instructive about how to create other similar scales. Each of these instruments can be easily edited to fit given assessment need, because the format is both standard and simple. The examples and their possible uses are as follows:

Scale	Uses
Meeting-Evaluation Scale	Evaluation of meetings Critiquing of process during meetings Action research on meeting quality Meeting planning
Work-Group-Effectiveness Inventory	Team building Organization survey Team self-assessment
Organization-Process Survey	Organization survey Team building with executives Management development
Learning-Group Process Survey	Group self-assessment Clarification of expectations Comparative study of groups

These instruments are brief; their reliabilities across time would, consequently, be unimpressive. They are best used as “here-and-now” snapshots of what is happening and must be validated by the group in question. If they serve to focus attention on processes that can be managed toward more effectiveness, they can be considered valid. The instruments in this section have models that are implicit within them. The scales selected provide respondents with an easy method of describing their experience. The number of items written depends on the amount of time available for the assessment and processing.

Other inventories of this sort can be constructed easily by using variations of the Likert scale, using the following guidelines:

1. Construct a model of the process to be assessed.
2. Select a Likert-type scale.

3. Write items from the model.
4. Try out the instrument and modify it based on its use.

The following are variations on the basic attitude-measurement scale published by Likert in 1932¹ Sometimes more than one version can be incorporated into one inventory

Strongly agree Agree Undecided or uncertain Disagree Strongly disagree	Strongly approve Approve Undecided Disapprove Strongly disapprove
Very satisfied ² Fairly satisfied Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied Somewhat dissatisfied Very dissatisfied	Very ineffective Ineffective Undecided Effective Very effective
To a very great extent ³ To a great extent To some extent To a little extent To a very little extent	Little or no influence ⁴ Some Quite a bit A great deal A very great deal of influence

¹ R.A. Likert. A technique for the measurement of attitudes. *Archives of Psychology*, 1932, No. 140, pp. 1-55.

² J.C. Taylor and D.G. Bowers. *Survey of organizations*. Ann Arbor, MI: Center for Research on Utilization of Scientific Knowledge, Institute for Social Research, The University of Michigan, 1972.

³ J.C. Taylor and D.G. Bowers. *Survey of organizations*. Ann Arbor, MI: Center for Research on Utilization of Scientific Knowledge, Institute for Social Research, The University of Michigan, 1972.

⁴ *Survey of Organizations*. San Diego, CA: Pfeiffer & Company, 1980.

MEETING-EVALUATION SCALE

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Meeting: _____

Date: _____

Time: _____

Select one number for each statement using the five-point scale given below.

1 = Strongly Disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Undecided

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

- | | | | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | I was notified of this meeting in sufficient time to prepare for it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. | I understood why this meeting was being held (e.g., information sharing, planning, problem solving, decision making, open discussion, etc.) and what specific outcomes were expected. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. | I understood what was expected of me as a participant and what was expected of the other participants (including the leader, coordinator, chairperson, facilitator, etc.). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. | I understood how the meeting was intended to flow (e.g., agenda, schedule, design) and when it would terminate. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. | Most participants listened carefully to one another. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. | Most participants expressed themselves openly, honestly, and directly. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. | Agreements were explicit and clear, and conflicts were openly explored and constructively managed. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. | The meeting generally proceeded as intended (e.g., the agenda was followed, it ended on time) and achieved its intended purpose. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. | My participation contributed to the outcomes achieved by the meeting. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

- | | | | | | | |
|-----|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 10. | Overall, I am satisfied with this meeting and I believe my time here has been well spent. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. | At the start of this meeting, I understood its purpose and agenda. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

WORK-GROUP-EFFECTIVENESS INVENTORY

Frank Burns and Robert L. Gragg

Work Group: _____

Date: _____

Select one number for each statement using the five-point scale given below.

1 = Strongly Disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Undecided

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. I have been speaking frankly here about the things that have been uppermost in my mind | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. The other members of this team seem to have been speaking frankly about the things that have been uppermost in their minds. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. I have been careful to speak directly and to the point. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. The other members of this team have been speaking directly and to the point. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. I have been listening carefully to the other members of this team and I have been paying special attention to those who have expressed strong agreement or disagreement. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. The other members of this team have been listening carefully to me and to each other and they have been paying special attention to strongly expressed views. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. I have been asking for and receiving constructive feedback regarding my influence on the team. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. I have been providing constructive feedback to those who have requested it—to help them keep track of their influence on me and the other team members. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. Decisions regarding our team's operating procedures and organization have been flexible and they have been changed rapidly whenever more useful structures or procedures have been discovered. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. Everyone on the team has been helping the team keep track of its effectiveness. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 11. Members of this team have been listening carefully to one another, and we have been paying special attention to strongly expressed values. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. We have been speaking frankly to one another about the things that have been uppermost in our minds. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. We have been speaking directly and to the point. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. We have been helping our team keep track of its own effectiveness. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. Our team's internal organization and procedures have been adjusted when necessary to keep pace with changing conditions or new requirements. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. All members of this team understand the team's goals. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. Each member of our team understands how he or she can contribute to the team's effectiveness in reaching its goals. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. Each of us is aware of the potential contribution of each of the other team members | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. We recognize one another's problems and help one another to make a maximum contribution. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. As a team, we pay attention to our own decision-making and problem-solving processes. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

ORGANIZATIONAL-PROCESS SURVEY

Frank Burns and Robert L. Gragg

Organization Group: _____

Date: _____

Select one number for each item using the five-point scale given below to indicate how effective you believe each of the following organizational processes is here.

1 = Very Ineffective

2 = Ineffective

3 = Undecided

4 = Effective

5 = Very Effective

1. *Communications:* The content and flow of information between and among the senior leaders in this organization. 1 2 3 4 5
2. *Leadership:* The individual behavior and procedures senior leaders use to accomplish tasks and attain goals. 1 2 3 4 5
3. *Decisions:* The manner in which senior leaders identify and solve problems and the level at which decisions are made. (How effective is the balance between centralized and decentralized decision making?) 1 2 3 4 5
4. *Coordination:* The degree and quality of coordination and cooperation among the senior leaders. 1 2 3 4 5
5. *Planning:* The procedures used to anticipate the future, set realistic goals, and develop plans. 1 2 3 4 5
6. *Responsiveness:* The manner of reacting to unforeseen events and unanticipated requirements. 1 2 3 4 5
7. *Control and Influence:* The procedures used to assess, guide, and provide feedback on individual actions and unit activities. 1 2 3 4 5
8. *Motivation:* The manner in which senior leaders influence the conditions that encourage or discourage effective individual and unit performance, morale, and esprit de corps. 1 2 3 4 5
9. *Conflict Management:* The methods used to surface and resolve conflict between and among senior management personnel and their organizational elements. 1 2 3 4 5

10. *Training and Development:* The methods used in individual training and team development to enhance the effectiveness of all the above processes.

1 2 3 4 5

LEARNING-GROUP PROCESS SCALE

Frank Burns and Robert L. Gragg

Learning Group: _____

Date: _____

Select one number for each statement using the five-point scale given below.

1 = Strongly Disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Undecided

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Members of this learning group know each other well enough to understand the potential contribution of each of the other members. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. We have been listening carefully to each other and we have been paying special attention to strongly expressed views. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Each of us has been speaking frankly about the things that have been uppermost in our minds, and we have been speaking directly and to the point. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. The learning goals of this group have been clearly specified and understood. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. I understand what activities and procedures are planned for this learning group. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. I expect these planned activities and procedures to contribute to the group's effectiveness in reaching its learning goals. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. I understand what contribution is expected of me for each of the planned activities and procedures. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. I anticipated that the group's planned activities and procedures will contribute to the achievement of my personal learning objectives. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. So far, I am satisfied with this learning group and feel that my time in the group has been well spent. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. Overall, I am committed to this learning group and I look to our future activities with interest and enthusiasm. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

■ CULTURAL-CONTEXT INVENTORY: THE EFFECTS OF CULTURE ON BEHAVIOR AND WORK STYLE

Claire B. Halverson

INTRODUCTION: THE THEORY OF CULTURAL CONTEXT

Culture, as defined by anthropologist Edward Hall (1959, pp. 16, 20), is “The way of life of a people. The sum of their learned behavior patterns, attitudes and material things . . . It is not innate, but learned; the various facets of a culture are interrelated.”

Although people often equate culture with nationality, the concept of culture is actually much broader. In almost any country there are separate cultural groups based on differences such as race, ethnicity, religion, region, and gender. Each of these cultural groups has enough significant differences from the dominant society to have its own distinct way of life. Hall (1959, 1969, 1976, 1983) has developed a concept that is useful in understanding the differences among cultural groups. He places cultures on a continuum from high to low context. The term “context” refers to the interrelated conditions in which something exists—the social and cultural conditions that surround and influence the life of an individual, an organization, or a community.

In a high-context culture, the surrounding circumstances of an interaction are taken into account; in a low-context culture, these circumstances are filtered out. It is important to note that no value is assigned to either high or low context.

In high-context cultures, much attention is paid to the surrounding circumstances of an event. In an interpersonal communication, for example, the parties involved use such factors as paraphrasing, tone of voice, gesture, posture, social status, history, and social setting to interpret the spoken words. High context communication requires time; factors such as trust, relationships between friends and family members, personal needs and difficulties, weather, and holidays must be considered. An example of this kind of communication in organizations is the Japanese practice of long hours of socializing after work.

In low-context cultures, the circumstances surrounding an event do not warrant attention; instead, the parties involved focus on objective facts that are conveyed. Consequently, interactions in low-context cultures are characterized by speed and efficiency. The bestseller *The One Minute Manager* (Blanchard & Johnson, 1987) promotes a managerial approach based on low-context communication: The book describes how a manager can motivate employees with one-minute statements focusing on positive or corrective feedback and goal setting.

Hall has identified a number of dimensions of human activity, five of which are crucial to understanding cultural differences in organizations:

1. Association (relationships with others);
2. Interaction (verbal and nonverbal communication with others);
3. Territoriality (use of space);
4. Temporality (time orientation); and
5. Learning (what knowledge and skills are developed and how they are transmitted).

The Cultural-Context Inventory Characteristics Sheet, a handout that follows the instrument and the scoring sheet, compares high and low context on these five dimensions.

Patterns of High and Low Context in Groups

Hall has identified patterns of high/low context in nationality groups (1959, 1969) and in urban/rural groups (personal communication, August 19, 1992). Additional research and literature, as cited in the following paragraphs, document the applicability of the same framework to gender groups. It should be noted that these patterns, which are depicted in Figure 1, reflect cultural tendencies rather than stereotypes; they do not apply to all members of a group.

High	Medium	Medium-Low	Low
Latin America Asia Africa	Greece France Italy Spain Middle East	United States	Scandinavia Germany
Women Rural			Men Urban

Figure 1. Patterns of High/Low Context in Various Cultures

As mentioned previously, within a country there may be a number of “micro cultures.” In Switzerland, for example, the German, Italian, and French ethnic groups have distinct cultures; in Canada the same is true of the French and English. In the United States, assimilation has traditionally been necessary in order to gain economic power and middle-class status. Members of groups that are economically separate from the dominant society, such as people of color and white women, either have retained some cultural differences or have become bicultural—able to function in the mode of the dominant culture as well as in that of their own micro cultures. The current trend toward honoring diversity may mean that members of micro cultures will assimilate to a lesser degree than they previously did.

Studies conducted by African Americans (Foster, 1971; Hillard, 1976; Lewis, 1975) and by Mexican Americans (Castenada, Herold, & Ramirez, 1974), on those respective

cultural groups, describe high-context characteristics. Some of the characteristics they note that are different from the dominant United States culture are an emphasis on collectivism rather than individualism, the importance of process and relationships in completing a task, greater use of the message as an art form than as a simple means of communication, the perception that everything has its own time, and an emphasis on learning by practicing what is modeled rather than by experimenting.

Women tend to be more high context than men. Many studies by U.S. women (Bem, 1977; Gilligan, 1982; Sargent, 1981; Schaefer, 1981; Tannen, 1990) describe the high-context behaviors of women in the United States. For example, U.S. women have a greater concern for process (how things are accomplished and the interpersonal relationships with people in a work team) than for task; their orientation is that a task should not be accomplished at the expense of process and relationships. They heavily personalize disagreements, tending to avoid them or needing to solve them before work can progress; however, if they avoid conflict, they tend to have difficulty continuing in the work relationship. In contrast, women tend to have egalitarian social structures, a low-context characteristic. Feminist organizations, for instance, frequently have flat organizational structures and tend to avoid designating a leader.

Lewis (1975) has noted differences between Euro-American and African-American women. Euro-American women tend to avoid direct conflict, whereas African-American women are more assertive. However, in both groups, disagreement is personalized and emotions are involved.

Rural people have a tendency toward high-context behavior, which may be attributable to the need to consider time as a process that belongs to nature. Urban people are more free to schedule their time. In Japan, rural agricultural people had to exercise a high-context behavior, working collectively, in order to manage irrigation and the water supply. In the United States, in contrast, the individual farmer historically has managed his or her own land (Ouchi, 1982).

Biculturalism

The high-/low-context framework can be used to conceptualize patterns of informal behavior for cultural groups. However, it is important to re-emphasize that the framework should not be seen as a set of boxes in which to place individual people. Every person is a member of a variety of micro-cultural groups, each one of which may be on a different point on the high-/low-context continuum. In addition to membership in various micro-cultural groups, numerous factors affect one's socialization and, therefore, one's orientation toward high context or low context: amount of time spent living with different cultural groups, geographic proximity to different cultures, language, birth order in the family, education, professional status, and visible identity. Groups with high visible identity are those who are easily identified as not being of the dominant culture. In the United States, for example, people of color and women are easily identified as not being of the dominant white-male culture. Factors like visible identity can accentuate differences.

Many people have lived in more than one dominant culture. A person who enters a new dominant culture exhibits one or more of the following three responses:

1. *Assimilation*, which means assuming the behaviors of the dominant culture;
2. *Maintenance*, which refers to maintaining one's own cultural identity; and
3. *Biculturalism*, which means behaving differently according to the situation in which one finds oneself.

The literature on cultural adaptation discusses the concept of culture shock experienced by people who recently have moved to a different culture. The first two behavioral responses, assimilation and maintenance, are more typical for the earlier stages of adjustment, whereas the third behavioral response, biculturalism, is not always reached. For example, when members of racial, ethnic, and gender groups enter a new dominant culture, they typically undergo a process of assimilation, differentiation from the dominant group, and then integration of aspects of their own cultures with those of the dominant culture (Halverson, 1982). After integration they are able to be bicultural.

MANAGING CULTURAL DIFFERENCES

People's cultural tendencies lead to vastly different approaches to life activities. This fact has important implications for the workplace. Kogod (1991) offers a helpful explanation of these implications for organizations:

Difficulties inevitably arise when there is a great deal of diversity within an organization. Most of us have limited information about other people's world views. Frustration often occurs when two people with different world views interact; frequently, neither person feels valued or understood. Often one or the other practices ethnocentric thinking, experiencing his or her unique sense of time, use of language, and beliefs about work styles as comprising the one appropriate way to behave. When ethnocentric thinking pervades an organizational culture, the result can be exclusion of some, favoritism toward others, and intragroup conflict. (p. 8)

There are two methods of managing cultural differences in the workplace: (1) conformity and (2) synergy.

Conformity

Conformity consists of requiring members of nondominant cultures to adopt the norms, policies, and practices that characterize or favor the dominant group. (In the case of the United States, the dominant group is generally considered to be Euro-American male and low context.) Conformity generally limits the potential of nondominant groups, as they are forced to adjust. In the United States, for example, it has the disadvantage of limiting the contributions that women, people of color, and foreign-born nationals may bring to the workplace. If people from nondominant cultures are not allowed to express their diversity, the organizational culture loses the benefit of new ideas and approaches that would lead to a greater number of alternatives in solving problems.

Sometimes, though, there are norms, policies, or practices reflecting the standards of the dominant group that the team manager feels must be maintained. In these cases the following steps should be followed to minimize the impact on nondominant groups:

1. Identify the impact on the nondominant group(s).
2. Identify the advantages and disadvantages of maintaining the norm, policy, or practice in question.
3. Provide training or coaching for members of nondominant groups to clarify the norm, policy, or practice so that they understand what is expected and why.

Synergy

Synergy consists of developing norms, policies, and practices that are acceptable to both high- and low-context people; it enables full participation of all groups. Although synergy initially may be more time consuming and confusing as new methods are devised, it has the potential of producing benefits resulting from “gifts” brought by members of nondominant cultures—different communication patterns, decision-making styles, and conflict-resolution methods, for instance. The steps involved in the synergistic approach, developed by Adler (1986), are as follows:

1. Meet with people from all cultural groups involved to identify the norm, policy, or practice that is causing difficulty. Have members of all groups describe the situation from their own cultural perspectives.
2. Identify the cultural assumptions that explain the behaviors of those involved.
3. Pinpoint the cultural similarities and differences in the behaviors.
4. Create new alternatives based on, but not limited to, the cultures involved.
5. Select an alternative that will enable the full participation of all.
6. Implement the solution.
7. Assess the impact of the solution from the viewpoints of all cultural groups involved. Refine the solution if necessary.

THE INSTRUMENT

The Cultural-Context Inventory is based on the cultural framework of high/low context developed by Edward Hall (1959, 1969, 1976, 1983). The inventory was developed as a tool for increasing understanding of one’s own culturally based behavior at work as well as the behaviors of others. As a training device, it not only helps trainees to identify ways in which they are similar to or different from others but also points out the need to develop effective ways of managing interpersonal differences. Although the inventory does not address culture-specific differences, it is useful in developing understanding of the broad dimensions of cultural differences.

Objectives

The specific objectives of using the instrument are as follows:

1. To increase respondents' awareness of the cultural dimensions that affect interpersonal interactions and organizational behavior;
2. To enhance respondents' understanding of their own work-style preferences and how these preferences relate to their individual cultural identities;
3. To assist respondents in comparing their own work styles with those of others;
4. To point out the need to develop effective ways of managing differences in work style; and
5. To encourage respondents to use a synergistic approach to managing differences in work style.

Validity and Reliability

No validity or reliability data are available on the Cultural-Context Inventory, but it does have face validity.

Administration and Interpretation

The following steps offer a process for administering the Cultural-Context Inventory and conducting subsequent training in cultural context:

1. The Cultural-Context Inventory is introduced as an instrument that will help respondents to gain a better understanding of their own culture-related work styles and how their styles differ from those of others. The trainer emphasizes that the best way to complete the instrument is to focus on one's preferences or what makes one most comfortable.
2. After all respondents have completed and scored the inventory, the trainer distributes copies of the characteristics sheet and delivers a lecturette on high/low context, using the information presented in that sheet and elsewhere in this article (adding, if desired, supplementary material from Hall's books, as referenced in this article). The following are some important aspects of high/low context that should be covered in the lecturette:
 - The terms "high context" and "low context" refer only to the extent to which one either includes various elements of context or screens out such elements. No value is assigned to either high or low context. In fact, in an organizational setting, both are needed to create an effective team.
 - Although there are patterns of high or low context for cultural groups, one's cultural identity is influenced by membership in many different micro-cultural groups as well as by individual forces and experiences.

- The inventory may enhance understanding of one's work-style preferences, but it should be broadly interpreted. Establishing one's numerical score is less important than identifying items that indicate strong preferences, which could cause difficulty in interactions with others who have strong preferences in the opposite direction.
 - Previous experience with the inventory indicates that a person whose High Context and Low Context scores differ by 11 or more might have difficulty interacting with another person whose scores differ by 11 or more in the opposite direction (one person's scores favoring High Context and the other person's scores favoring Low Context).
3. The trainer forms three groups: (1) those whose HC scores are considerably higher than their LC scores, (2) those whose LC scores are considerably higher than their HC scores, and (3) those whose HC scores and LC scores are close or approximately equal. (In order to avoid labeling, the trainer gives no specific numerical scores for determining how to assemble into groups. Instead, the trainer divides the group into thirds based on their scores, ensuring that each group has enough members to facilitate a useful discussion.) The trainer asks the members of each group to discuss their responses to questions such as these:
- How do your inventory responses help you to understand your behavior in relation to the high-/low-context framework?
 - How has your membership in various cultural groups influenced your behavior?
 - How do you feel and behave with someone from a different culture?
 - What are the drawbacks of your own high- or low-context orientation? What are the advantages?
 - What are some challenges that you face in working with those whose scores are very different from your own? How might you meet some of those challenges?
 - What are some benefits of working with those whose scores are very different from your own? How might you capitalize on those benefits?
4. Representatives from the three groups are asked to share their responses to the questions. The trainer forms mixed groups, each of which has members representing all three of the groups formed during the previous step. Each new group is asked to choose a challenging behavioral difference based on contextual orientation and to develop a role play for a work setting that will demonstrate how this challenge might be met. The members of each group then use a problem-solving process to develop a synergistic method of managing the difference. These role plays are performed for the total group, and the results are

discussed.¹ *Option:* If the inventory is used as part of a team-building session, the team members may be asked to identify one or more areas of difference that are challenges for them and to develop a synergistic method of managing the difference(s).

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¹ The simulation *Bafá Bafá* is useful for identifying dimensions or cultures that are similar to high/low context. Participation in this simulation also enhances people's understanding of how they might feel and behave when visiting a dominant culture that is different from the ones in which they have been socialized. This simulation can be obtained from Simulation Training Systems, Inc., P.O. Box 910, Del Mar, California, 92014, phone 619-755-0272.

CULTURAL-CONTEXT INVENTORY

Claire B. Halverson

Instructions: For each of the following twenty items, write in the appropriate number using the five-point scale to indicate your tendencies and preferences in a work situation.

	Hardly Ever		Sometimes		Almost Always
1. When communicating, I tend to use a lot of facial expressions, hand gestures, and body movements rather than to rely mostly on words.	1		2 3		4 5
2. I pay more attention to the context text of a conversation—who said what and under what circumstances—than I do to the words.	1		2 3		4 5
3. When communicating, I tend to spell things out quickly and directly rather than talk around and add to the point.	1		2 3		4 5
4. In an interpersonal disagreement, I tend to be more emotional than logical and rational.	1		2 3		4 5
5. I tend to have a small, close circle of friends rather than a large, but less close, circle of friends.	1		2 3		4 5
6. When working with others, I prefer to get the job done first and socialize afterward rather than socialize first and then tackle the job.	1		2 3		4 5
7. I would rather work in a group than by myself.	1		2		4 5
8. I believe that rewards should be given for individual accomplishments rather than for group accomplishments.	1		2 3		4 5
9. I describe myself in terms of my accomplishments rather than in terms of my family and relationships.	1		2 3		4 5
10. I prefer sharing space with others to having my own private space.	1		2 3		4 5

		Hardly Ever	Sometimes			Almost Always
11.	I would rather work for someone who maintains authority and functions for the good of the group than work for someone who allows a lot of autonomy and individual decision making.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I believe it is more important to be on time than to let other concerns take priority.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I prefer working on one thing at a time to working on a variety of things at once.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I generally set a time schedule and keep to it rather than leave things unscheduled and go with the flow.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I find it easier to work with someone who is fast and wants to see immediate results than to work with someone who is slow and wants to consider all the facts.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	In order to learn about something, I tend to consult many sources of information rather than go to the one best authority.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	In figuring out problems, I prefer focusing on the whole situation to focusing on specific parts or taking one step at a time.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	When tackling a new task, I would rather figure it out on my own by experimentation than follow someone else's example or demonstration.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	When making decisions, I consider my likes and dislikes, not just the facts.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	I prefer having tasks and procedures explicitly defined to having a general idea of what has to be done.	1	2	3	4	5

CULTURAL-CONTEXT INVENTORY SCORING SHEET

Instructions: Transfer the numbers to the appropriate blanks provided below. Then add the numbers in each column to obtain your scores for High Context and Low Context.

High Context (HC)	Low Context (LC)
1. _____	3. _____
2. _____	6. _____
4. _____	8. _____
5. _____	9. _____
7. _____	12. _____
10. _____	13. _____
11. _____	14. _____
16. _____	15. _____
17. _____	18. _____
19. _____	20. _____
Total _____	Total _____

Put a check mark in the appropriate blank below to indicate which score is larger:

_____	High Context
_____	Low Context

Subtract your smaller score from your larger score. Record the difference in the blank below:

_____	Difference
-------	------------

CULTURAL-CONTEXT INVENTORY CHARACTERISTICS SHEET²

HIGH CONTEXT (HC)

Association

- Relationships depend on trust, build up slowly, are stable. One distinguishes between people inside and people outside one's circle.
- How things get done depends on relationships with people and attention to group process.
- One's identity is rooted in groups (family, culture, work).
- Social structure and authority are centralized; responsibility is at top. Person at top works for good of group.

Interaction

- High use of nonverbal elements; voice tone, facial expression, gestures, eye movement carry significant parts of conversation
- Verbal message is implicit; context (situation, people, nonverbal elements) is more important than words.
- Verbal message is indirect; one talks around the point and embellish
- Communication is seen as art form—a way of engaging someone.
- Disagreement is personalized. One is sensitive to conflict expressed in another's nonverbal communication. Conflict either must be solved before work can progress and must be avoided because it is personally threatening.

LOW CONTEXT (LC)

- Relationships begin and end quickly. Many people can be inside one's circle; circle's boundary is not clear.
- Things get done by following procedures and paying attention to a goal.
- One's identity is rooted in oneself and one's accomplishments.
- Social structure is decentralized; responsibility goes further down (is not concentrated at the top).

- Low use of nonverbal elements. Message is carried more by words than by nonverbal means.
- Verbal message is explicit. Context is less important than words.
- Verbal message is direct; one spells things out exactly.
- Communication is seen as a way of exchanging information, idea, opinions.
- Disagreement is depersonalized. One withdraws from conflict with another and gets on with the task. Focus is on rational solutions, not personal ones. One can be explicit about another's bothersome behavior.

² The content of this sheet is based on the following works of anthropologist Edward Hall, all of which were published in New York by Doubleday: *The Silent Language* (1959), *The Hidden Dimension* (1969), *Beyond Culture* (1976), and *The Dance of Life* (1983)

HIGH CONTEXT (HC)

Territoriality

- Space is communal: People stand close to one another, share the same space.

Temporality

- Everything has its own time. Time is not easily scheduled; needs of people may interfere with keeping to a set time. What is important is that activity gets done.
- Change is slow. Things are rooted in the past, slow to change and stable.
- Time is a process; it belongs to others and to nature.

Learning

- Knowledge is imbedded in the situation; things are connected, synthesized, and global. Multiple sources of information are used. Thinking is deductive, proceeds from general to specific.
- Learning occurs by first observing others as they model or demonstrate and then practicing.
- Groups are preferred for learning and problem solving.
- Accuracy is valued. How well something is learned is important.

LOW CONTEXT (LC)

- Space is compartmentalized and privately owned: Privacy is important, so people are farther apart.

- Things are scheduled to be done at particular times, one thing at a time. What is important is that activity is done efficiently.
- Change is fast. Once can make change and see immediate results.
- Time is a commodity to be spent or saved. One's time is one's own.

- Reality is fragmented and compartmentalized. One source of information is used to develop knowledge. Thinking is inductive, proceeds from specific to general. Focus is on detail.
- Learning occurs by following explicit directions and explanations of others.
- An individual orientation is preferred for learning and problem solving.
- Speed is valued. How efficiently something is learned is important.

■ THE GROUP INCIDENTS QUESTIONNAIRE (GIQ): A MEASURE OF SKILL IN GROUP FACILITATION

Joseph P. Stokes and Raymond C. Tait

Group-oriented therapy has become increasingly popular with many health service providers because it provides a means by which a relatively small number of counselors can see a large number of clients. The advantages of group counseling for the client include the presence of peer support and peer pressure, an opportunity to practice interaction skills, and a chance to learn that personal problems are shared by others. Unfortunately, the trend toward group counseling has been bolstered by the misconception that an unskillful counselor can get by in a group because the group members will take care of themselves.

Training of group leaders traditionally has occurred at the professional level and has consisted of reading relevant theoretical material (e.g., Yalom, 1975) and co-facilitating a group. As paraprofessionals become increasingly responsible for the delivery of health and welfare services, they may be thrust into the role of counselor with little or no experience in group treatment. Because facilitating a group's process is difficult and involves a number of skills (Banet, 1971; Conyne, 1975), an untrained leader can impede the group's progress and leave a negative effect on its members (Lieberman, Yalom, & Miles, 1973).

In order to assess the competence of group leaders and in order to evaluate programs that are designed to train potential leaders, an instrument that measures skills in group facilitation is needed. Both Wile (1972) and Arbes (1972) have developed instruments to measure leadership styles, but these instruments are nonevaluative; they provide feedback without evaluating the effectiveness of the various leadership styles. They are not useful, therefore, in measuring competence or in evaluating training procedures.

The Group Incidents Questionnaire (GIQ) is a fifteen-item instrument designed to measure skill in leading process groups, including the ability to identify and respond to issues in an ongoing group. An assumption underlying the GIQ is that the greatest therapeutic value in groups derives from attending to how members interact within the group context (Yalom, 1975); thus, effective leader interventions focus on the "here and now" of the group interaction and encourage members to be responsible for the movement of the group.

The instrument consists of fifteen descriptions of critical incidents that might occur in groups. Each description is followed by three interventions that the leader might make. The respondents are instructed to rank the three interventions according to which intervention they like the most and which they like the least.

Reliability and Validity

The reliability of the GIQ is satisfactory, both in terms of internal consistency (coefficient alpha = .80) and test-retest reliability ($r = .76$ with a two-week retest interval). Evidence for the validity of the GIQ includes its ability to discriminate professional group leaders from undergraduate students in psychology. The professionals had a mean score of 52.6 (SD = 3.1) on the GIQ; the undergraduates scored an average of 36.9 (SD = 7.1). More complete information about the development and psychometric properties of the GIQ can be found in Stokes and Tait (1979).

Scoring

To score the GIQ, the rank orders chosen by the respondents are compared with the “correct” rankings. Each response to each item is assigned a value: one, for the least appropriate response; two, for the intermediate response; or three, for the most appropriate response. A respondent’s score for each item is determined by subtracting the value of the response ranked least appropriate from the value of the response ranked most appropriate. Thus, if a respondent completely agrees with the a priori rankings on an item, the score on that item is 2 ($3 - 1 = 2$). Scores of 1, = 1, and = 2 also are possible. A respondent’s total score is determined by summing the fifteen scores and adding a constant of 30 to eliminate negative scores.

Suggested Uses

The GIQ can be used to assess an individual’s competency to lead process groups or it can help to evaluate training programs that are designed to impart skills in leading process groups. The instrument also can be used to instruct people who are being trained as group leaders by discussing the various situations and the possible responses to them. Finally, the GIQ may be useful in the selection of group leaders, since it is likely that high scorers would respond more positively to training in group facilitation skills.

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GROUP INCIDENTS QUESTIONNAIRE

Joseph P. Stokes and Raymond C. Tait

Instructions: On the following pages, a number of group incidents are described. Following each situation are three interventions (comments) the group leader might make. Read each intervention and decide which one you think is best (most appropriate for the group process). Put a plus (+) beside the best one. Put a minus (–) beside the intervention you think is the worst, or least facilitative. So for each situation you will put a plus (+) by the intervention you like the best, put a minus (–) by the one you like the least, and leave one intervention blank.

1. As the members of this group have begun to get to know each other, hostility seems to have developed between Ned and Tom. This has been shown in a number of ways. Usually, they ignore each other. At times, when one of them speaks, the other responds in a sarcastic way. Occasionally, they belittle each other's accomplishments openly. These behaviors have been mentioned by other members, but Ned and Tom have ignored them.

During the current meeting, Ned is speaking of problems he has in relating to women, and Tom responds with a laugh: "I'm not surprised. You have trouble relating to the group, too." Ned looks furious and stops talking.

Interventions:

- ___A. "Tom, you seem to be intent on teasing Ned. I feel irritated when you do that. I bet it gets you into trouble a lot."
- ___B. "There you guys go again. You're always cutting each other up. If you can't grow up, I'm going to have to consider dropping you from the group."
- ___C. "There seems to be something going on between Ned and Tom. Ned, since Tom made that remark, how are you feeling about him?"

2. Elaine is an intelligent young woman who is afraid of being rejected. During the last two meetings she has spent much of the time exploring her problems and has been frustrated at her apparent inability to change. After forty-five minutes of the third session, Elaine still seems to be stuck. Frustrated, she wonders out loud whether she should keep talking, inasmuch as she has been dominating the group. She also says: "I'm afraid that people in the group will be mad at me for taking up so much time."

Interventions:

- ___A. "Elaine, you are wondering whether the people in the group are angry. Why don't you check it out with them?"

- ___B. “Elaine, it seems to me that you are making this awfully tough for yourself. Didn’t you join the group to work on your problems?”
- ___C. “Elaine, you shouldn’t feel that way. Don’t worry about being rejected; just go ahead and tell us about your problems.”

3. By the eleventh meeting of this group, all the members except Joan have shared personal material with the group. Joan, who is withdrawn and fidgety, has not spoken at all during this session. The other group members seem to be frustrated and stuck at this point, waiting for Joan to join in. Jim says: “I’d like to help Joan but I can’t until I find out what is going on with her.” Sue echoes the same feelings. Helen expresses some anger at Joan. Bob says: “I can’t feel comfortable talking about myself with people I don’t know.” Throughout these comments, Joan sits silently and bites her nails.

Interventions:

- ___A. “The group seems eager to have Joan aboard, but Joan doesn’t seem to feel secure enough to share some things yet. Joan, is there anything you can share with us that will help us to know you better?”
- ___B. “Since Joan doesn’t seem to feel like talking, I wonder if we could change the subject to something we can talk about.”
- ___C. “Joan, you have been quiet. I have the feeling that you are afraid to say anything. You know, you have to take some chances if you are going to make progress in here.”

4. This is the third meeting of a newly formed group. The first two meetings were a little tense, and people spent a lot of time talking about general topics and getting to know one another. So far, this session has been an awkward one. There were long silences at the beginning, and attempts to initiate general discussions failed. Finally, Gail turns to you and says,

“We don’t seem to be going anywhere. I thought that you were trained to guide us through tough spots like this. What should we talk about?”

Interventions:

- ___A. “You seem to be feeling uncertain about your direction now. Why don’t people talk about how it feels to be uncertain about where they want to go?”
- ___B. “It is early in the group and I’m willing to give you some help now, but once you get started, I want you to know that I’m not going to be here for you to lean on. Why don’t people talk about some of the things that brought them into the group?”

___C. “I understand that you feel uncertain about where to go, but I feel uncomfortable in being asked to tell people in the group what they should talk about. I think people have to decide for themselves where they want to go.”

5. Stan is a nineteen-year-old member of an established group. He has been silent during many of the meetings. On the few occasions on which he has talked, he has indicated that he is facing some very difficult issues with his parents, who are separated. At the opening of this session, Stan says that he is feeling depressed and anxious about some of the incidents that have occurred with his parents. Jane, Al, and Sue all express interest in hearing more from Stan. Stan continues in general terms, speaking of “how hard it is to figure out what to do” and “how painful it is to think of the things that have happened.” Silence follows these vague statements, and the group continues to look at Stan.

Interventions:

___A. “Stan, I feel pretty irritated at you: you seem to be holding back from the group. How do other group members feel?”

___B. “Stan, you’re being pretty vague. I get the feeling that you want to talk but that you also want to set it up so that we come looking for you. How does this check out?”

___C. “Stan doesn’t really want to talk. As I’ve said before, we’ll be back next week, so Stan can pick his time. Who else has something to say that we can talk about?”

6. In an established group, Jan and Lisa rush into the meeting ten minutes late, laughing and giggling. George, Harold, and Ed had been talking comfortably with one another but became silent when Jan and Lisa burst in and explained that they had just been to a party for a friend and apologized for being late.

For the past five minutes, Jan and Lisa have been talking about the party and how they are happy to know each other outside the group. The other members of the group have said nothing during this time.

Interventions:

___A. “Since Jan and Lisa have arrived, the rest of you have not said anything. I wonder what other people are thinking.”

___B. “So you feel that you know each other better now that you are doing things together outside the group. Could you tell us a little more about that?”

___C. “Jan and Lisa, you two seem to be leaving the rest of the group behind. How are other people feeling?”

7. During the last few sessions, several members have taken risks and have shared some problems with the group. Two weeks ago, Jim, a thirty-one-year-old married man, spoke of a homosexual incident he had experienced in his early twenties; he said that it still bothers him a lot. Keith and Mark seemed to be uncomfortable with the discussion, but the rest of the group members seemed to handle the topic well. Today, when Jim mentioned his difficulties in asserting himself, Keith responded, “Well, no wonder you can’t assert yourself. After all, you’re perverted!” A few uncomfortable laughs and some shifting around in chairs have followed this comment.

Interventions:

- ___A. “I wonder if other people have difficulty in asserting themselves in certain situations. I know that I do.”
- ___B. “Jim, I wonder if you can tell us how you react to Keith’s comment.”
- ___C. “Keith, that’s a pretty mean thing to say. Jim has been sharing information with us, and now you attack him for it.”

8. Helen is an attractive woman who desperately wants people, especially men, to like her. In the past, she was hurt in several relationships that she entered against the advice of her friends. Since the beginning of the group, she and Barry have seemed to get along well. They have come into the group together, sat together, and expressed support for each other in times of stress. For the last two weeks, Barry has spent time discussing problems in his marriage and Helen has responded by blaming his wife. During this meeting, when Barry opens the discussion with a story about another fight with his wife, Helen asks, “How can you live with that woman? I know I couldn’t.” Barry smiles and asks, “Do you have a place for me to stay?” Helen giggles and blushes.

Interventions:

- ___A. “As Helen says, Barry seems to be in a tough spot. What suggestions do other people want to give him? Has anyone else had similar problems?”
- ___B. “Helen has made a lot of comments about your marriage, Barry. How do you respond to what she has been saying?”
- ___C. “Barry, you seem to be joking, but I wonder if part of that comment was serious.”

9. Ellen has been a very active member of the group. From the start, she has not hesitated to express her opinions or to question other group members about their reactions. In particular, her aggressive questioning has made her a powerful figure in the group and has kept other people from focusing on her. You know that outside the group she keeps people away with her dominating manner and has lost several jobs as a result of “personality conflicts.”

In this session, Harry, one of the more withdrawn members, has been speaking of problems he has in socializing with people. Ellen has been questioning him about what situations he is talking about, whether he dates, what his past experiences with women were like, and other topics. After ten minutes of this, Harry says, "I'm tired of your constant questions, Ellen. I feel as though I am being cross-examined. Situations like this scare me. I wish I hadn't said anything." Ellen replies, "Why are you afraid?" Then Joe cuts in and says, "Harry has a point. Ellen is always asking us questions and never giving anything herself." Other members nod their heads and look at Ellen, who looks anxious.

Interventions:

- ___A. "Often experiences in the group reflect events that take place outside the group. Ellen, have you had any experiences similar to this in other situations?"
- ___B. "The group seems to have moved away from Harry. Ellen has been active in the group from the beginning, so we can always go back to her."
- ___C. "People in the group seem to feel a little distant from you, Ellen, and also a little angry. How do you react to that?"

10. Steve walks into the sixth meeting of the group looking very angry. The group, aware that he is upset, becomes silent. Eventually, Kathy asks Steve what is bothering him. When he shakes his head, you encourage him to talk. At this point Steve says, "Why should I talk? Last week I shared some things with the group, and it wasn't easy, but I did it. How do you think I felt when my friend Hank stopped me at the lab today and gave me a hard time about problems I have with my folks. Hey, nobody knows about that except the people here! If I can't trust people not to gossip about me, I'm not going to say a word!" As Steve finishes, the other group members look uneasily at one another.

Interventions:

- ___A. "Steve, I can understand that you are really angry about that. Other people seem to be upset about it, too. How do people feel about what Steve has just said?"
- ___B. "You think that someone has talked outside the group about what you said. Are you absolutely sure that Hank couldn't have found out from someone else? Could someone in your family have told him?"
- ___C. "You're angry about the gossip and so am I. We agreed at the beginning not to talk outside the group about things that go on in here. It would be a nice gesture if the person who gossiped would leave the group, but that won't happen. Let's try to go on as if nothing has happened."

11. The members of the group have begun to talk about what it means to share feelings and problems with others in the group. Mark says that he feels very uncomfortable revealing anything to the group. Most other members nod their heads in agreement. When Linda says that she feels tense just talking about the issue, Mark and most of the others agree. Susan, however, says that talking in the group is easy for her and that once she starts to talk she has a hard time stopping. Then Susan launches into a long discussion of the unsolvable difficulties she now is facing. The other group members seem to be relieved because Susan has taken the focus off them. They encourage Susan to talk by asking her numerous questions.

Interventions:

- ___A. “Susan, I wonder if you could tell us more about your problems. I’m interested in your relationship with your husband.”
- ___B. “There seems to be lots of interest in the group in Susan’s problems. Could people tell us what they are feeling about her right now? It would probably be wise for Susan to get some feedback about that.”
- ___C. “I wonder if Susan’s willingness to talk isn’t being used by the group members to avoid some of our own issues.”

12. Hank is a thirty-eight-year-old man who has avoided talking about his feelings throughout the group’s history. As the other members have shared their feelings with each other, he has become more and more isolated. In this meeting, he is speaking of feeling “turned off” in his visits to a doctor’s office because they treated him like a “hunk of meat without feelings.” After he says this, Shirley turns to him and says, “Hank, even though you talk in here about some things that happen to you, I don’t feel like I know you as well as I know the others. I have a feeling that you want to keep me away, and I’m hurt by that.” Hank tenses up and responds, “I’ve participated as much as anyone. If that’s the way that you feel, I can’t help it.” Other group members react angrily and begin to agree with Shirley.

Interventions:

- ___A. “I can see both sides of this. Hank has talked a lot but he hasn’t told us much about how he feels. How do you react to that, Hank?”
- ___B. “I don’t understand why people are so upset. After all, Hank has just shared with us some of his feelings about being at the doctor’s office. It seems to me that Hank has been participating as much as anyone today. What else might be going on that people are angry about?”

- ___C. “Hank, people seem to be angry with you for not sharing your feelings with the group. You say that you’re not willing to change this. Has this ever happened to you before?”

13. In an established group, Harry, Linda, and Sue have been working on certain issues and seem to be making progress. Betty, Steve, and Al initially were more reluctant to talk, but have been more open recently. Pairings have occurred in the group along the lines of early participation, so that Harry, Linda, and Sue generally speak to one another and Betty, Steve, and Al talk chiefly within their own subgroup. At the end of last week’s meeting, several members expressed dissatisfaction with the group’s progress. Today, people seem to be tense. The discussion has followed the usual patterns for the first ten minutes and now has begun to fade. The members are looking at one another uneasily.

Interventions:

- ___A. “I have a hunch that a split among members of the group is causing much of the discomfort I sense here today. How does that check out with people?”
- ___B. “I wonder what this silence means.”
- ___C. “We seem to be pretty quiet today. Something must have happened in the past week that someone wants to talk about. Sue, Steve, how about you. What’s going on?”

14. Alice has been talking about problems that she is having with her husband. She has told the group about the fights that they have, how they cannot talk with each other without arguing, and how she has begun to look outside the marriage for gratification. As she talks, her voice starts to tremble and her eyes fill with tears. When Paul remarks on how miserable Alice seems, Alice breaks into tears and says, “I am miserable and there’s nothing the group can do about it. Just leave me alone for a few minutes.” As she continues to cry, John says, “I’d like to talk about some problems I’m having with my boss.”

Interventions:

- ___A. “You’re still having troubles with your boss, John? Could you tell us what kinds of things have happened? I thought that you and she had worked things out.”
- ___B. “Alice, I understand that you are in a difficult situation, but trying to ignore it won’t help. Tell us more about your problems with your husband.”
- ___C. “John, I sense that you are responding to Alice’s request. Alice is feeling bad enough to cry. How do other people in the group feel about that?”

15. Tom has been in several groups prior to this one, but the other members have not had that experience. Consequently, Tom has assumed a position of some power. Recently, people in the group have been sharing many personal issues. Tom has attended these sessions irregularly, but no one has mentioned this to him. Last week's session was a very good one, but Tom missed it, leading Dan to comment at the end: "I wonder what's happened to Tom. He doesn't seem to be too interested in us because he's never here."

The beginning of this week's group meeting has been awkward. Tom tries to start things up by asking: "Hey, what happened last week? I had some things to do and couldn't make it." Anita mumbles a few words, and then silence follows.

Interventions:

- ___A. "Tom, I want to remind you that when we started this group, we agreed to attend all the meetings possible. You have missed a lot of them lately. I want you to be aware of that."
- ___B. "Tom, I'm irritated at you for missing our meeting last week and I suspect that other people are too. What was going on that was so much more important than the group meeting?"
- ___C. "Lots of things were shared last week that Tom missed, and it seems hard to summarize them. How do people feel about Tom's missing a lot of that?"

GROUP INCIDENTS QUESTIONNAIRE SCORING SHEET

1. Indicate your plus and minus responses for each item on the scoring table below.
2. Calculate your score for each item by subtracting the value given to your minus (-) response from the value given to your plus (+) response. (Item scores will be either 2, 1, -1, or -2.)
3. Add all the item scores together and enter the total in the space marked "Total of item scores."
4. Add 30 to your total of item scores. This number is your score for the GIQ.

Response				
Item	A	B	C	Item Score
1	____2	____1	____3	
2	____3	____2	____1	
3	____3	____1	____2	
4	____2	____1	____3	
5	____2	____3	____1	
6	____3	____1	____2	
7	____1	____3	____2	
8	____1	____2	____3	
9	____2	____1	____3	
10	____3	____2	____1	
11	____1	____2	____3	
12	____3	____1	____2	
13	____3	____2	____1	
14	____1	____2	____3	
15	____1	____2	____3	

Total of item scores

+30

GIQ score

GROUP INCIDENTS QUESTIONNAIRE NORMS AND INTERPRETATION SHEET

Instructions: The facilitator will develop a set of norms for your group. Copy these frequencies onto the table below.

Tally of Group Scores	
Score	Number
55+	_____
50-54	_____
45-49	_____
40-44	_____
35-39	_____
30-34	_____
25-29	_____
20-24	_____
15-19	_____
10-14	_____
5-9	_____
0-4	_____

Interpretation suggestions:

1. Compare your score with the scores of other members of your group.
2. Isolate items on which you scored low and study the situations again in the light of the “correct” answers.
3. Study the rationales that follow to find ways to plan more effective interventions in your own groups.

The Underlying Model

A basic assumption underlying the development of the Group Incidents Questionnaire is that the greatest value in groups comes from attending to how members interact within the immediate group context. Thus, the developers of the GIQ assume that an effective group leader will focus largely on the processes that occur during the group sessions. Yalom (1975) has argued strongly for the adoption of such a process focus in therapy groups. In a study of encounter groups, Lieberman, Yalom, and Miles (1973) identified four functions performed by group leaders; all are concerned primarily with how the actions of the leader impact a group’s current functioning. Furthermore, Lieberman (1977) has described a trend among traditional group psychotherapists toward a process orientation. Finally, other people writing on the subject of training group leaders have

recommended that potential leaders learn skills relevant to leading process groups (Banet, 1974; Conyne, 1975).

The model underlying the GIQ describes leader interventions in a group along three dimensions:

1. *Focus*. This dimension refers to the number of group members addressed by an intervention; e.g., an individual member, a subset of members, or the entire group.
2. *Immediacy*. This refers to the extent to which an intervention focuses on the here-and-now process in the group as opposed to there-and-then content topics.
3. *Responsibility*. Responsibility refers to the locus of control in the group—at one extreme, the leader directs the group's activities; at the other extreme, the group members make decisions about what happens in the group.

Although these dimensions are descriptive—and can be applied easily to most process interventions—there also is an evaluative component to the immediacy and responsibility dimensions. Interventions aimed at here-and-now issues are considered superior to those directed at there-and-then material. Interventions that place responsibility for group movement on the members rather than on the leader also are considered preferable.

Interventions that focus on what is going on in the group are desirable for several reasons: (a) members learn to attend to ongoing feelings and events and see that conflicts can be resolved if they are attended to; (b) keeping the focus on immediate material helps group members to work through issues together and helps to increase the cohesiveness of the group; (c) members act out their problems, rather than merely talking about them; and (d) the participants become entangled with one another, and much of the learning that takes place is experiential.

Helping the group to be responsible for its own activities fosters member-to-member interactions. This prevents the group meetings from becoming a sequence of one-to-one counseling sessions in which most interactions are member-to-leader. If the group members feel responsible for their actions, increased solidarity and involvement result. Members relate personally to one another, which facilitates communication and interaction within the group. Finally, as the group develops a sense of potency and cohesion, individuals feel that they belong to the group and learn that the group can be effective.

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■ GROUP LEADER SELF-DISCLOSURE SCALE

Robert R. Dies

One of the more controversial issues in the literature of group psychotherapy, personal growth, and encounter groups concerns the relative advantages or drawbacks of leader self-disclosure or “transparency.” Theoretical positions range from complete therapeutic anonymity to total self-disclosure.

The traditional position maintains that a comparatively detached, objective, and impersonal approach to group leadership is most appropriate. From this point of view, the revelation of personal feelings and experiences and involvement in the group process at an emotional level are contratherapeutic. Advocates of this “nontransparent” style of group psychotherapy include most practitioners inclined toward psychoanalytical approaches (e.g., Locke, Slavson, and Wolf and Schwartz), theorists oriented toward group dynamics (e.g., Ezriel, Foulkes and Anthony, and Whitaker and Lieberman), and practitioners of several other theoretical approaches, including many behavior therapies, Gestalt therapy, and psychodrama (see Shaffer & Galinsky, 1974, for an excellent review of these theories). Although within the encounter movement it is difficult to find arguments against leader transparency, the Tavistock approach to groups is a noteworthy exception (Rioch, 1970).

Each of these therapeutic and encounter group approaches emphasizes leadership techniques and the role of the group conductor as overseer and manager of the group process; as a consequence, the personal relationship of the leader with group members is not pertinent. The anonymity of the leader affords him or her an unequalled opportunity to influence the group culture in a way that no member can.

On the opposite extreme of the impersonal-personal continuum are those group psychotherapists and encounter group facilitators who endorse a transparent leadership posture. These group leaders are willing to share their immediate here-and-now experiences as well as various aspects of their lives outside the group, thus serving as models for spontaneous, genuine, and creative interaction. Psychotherapists in this category include several existential-experiential theorists such as Hora, Mullan, and Berger (Shaffer & Galinsky, 1974), humanists (Jourard, 1971), integrity therapists (Mowrer, 1968), and actualization therapists (Shostrom, 1967). Among encounter group leaders, Egan (1970), Gibb and Gibb (1969), Rogers (1970), and Schutz (1973) are prominent.

Moderate views concerning leader self-disclosure can, of course, be found. Thus, in the therapy and encounter group literature, respectively, we have Yalom’s (1975) judicious use of self-divulgement and Cohn’s (1971) concept of selective authenticity.

Unfortunately, our understanding of leadership transparency is limited by the lack of research on the topic. The studies that have been conducted often yield confusing and contradictory findings, due, in part, to the tendency of investigators to treat self-disclosure as a global and broadly defined variable. Even the relatively meager evidence suggests, however, that the meaning and significance of group-leader transparency is decidedly more complex than most theoreticians and researchers imply. The type of group, phase of group development, content of the verbalization, and personality attributes of the therapist or facilitator moderate the reactions of group members to their leader's personal revelations (Dies, 1977).

To illustrate this point, consider the leader who admits sharing many of the conflicts experienced by the group members. This remark would probably elicit different responses depending on whether the leader was viewed as competent and emotionally stable or as lacking in confidence and of questionable adjustment. Similarly, encounter group participants are more likely to appreciate the significance of this revelation, and be less threatened by it, than are people who have sought a group experience for the amelioration of interpersonal conflicts. Then, too, members of a recently formed group would experience greater uneasiness on hearing this admission than would individuals possessing more familiarity with the leader and greater experience in the group.

A host of additional questions concerning this hypothetical example may arise. The impact of the self-disclosure may be contingent on what prompted it. Was this remark initiated by the leader or was it given in reaction to an inquiry? Was it offered spontaneously or with considerable hesitation or resistance? Was it credible? The research literature on self-disclosure suggests that the closeness of the therapist-member relationship(s) and a leader's likability, nonverbal behavior, status, and personality, as well as the composition of the group, may influence perceived credibility (Dies, 1977). All these factors, of course, vary with the nature of the conflicts being discussed by the group. Furthermore, the perceived intent of the leader's personal disclosure, i.e., whether it was viewed as sincere and authentic or distrusted as a therapeutic device, a form of contrived modeling, or a token reinforcement. Most proponents of leader transparency are adamantly opposed to openness as a planned manipulation (Rogers, 1970), yet the manipulative aspects of self-disclosure have been noted (Koch, 1972).

A final question that might be asked about the hypothetical group leader's admission relates to the responses that follow. That is, how is the comment handled once it has been offered? Is it dropped or integrated into the group experience as a form of genuine support for particular members or used to facilitate the group process? It is not necessarily the specific act but the ensuing events that determine how leader transparency is received. Self-disclosure is not a static variable or an isolated act; it occurs within a context of past and anticipated events. The effects of leader self-disclosure will be enhanced if an adequate framework is provided for understanding its potential influence. Thus, a leader might use the admission of conflict to strengthen such group curative factors as universality, cohesiveness, or interpersonal learning (Yalom,

1975), or he or she might employ the disclosure to help group participants overcome self-abnegation.

GROUP LEADER SELF-DISCLOSURE SCALE

Several instruments have been developed to assess transparent leadership styles (Dies, 1973a, 1973b, 1977; Dies & Cohen, 1976).

In one study (Dies & Cohen, 1976), a list of statements that might be made by a leader during a therapy or encounter group discussion was compiled. These items are contained in the Group Leader Self-Disclosure Scale. The questionnaire incorporates statements varying along a self-disclosure dimension and representing a broad sample of potential interventions. Content ranges from relatively innocuous self-revelations to more intimate disclosures. Moreover, the items were written to include external past and present issues and here-and-now attitudes and feelings of the leader toward himself or herself and individual group members or the group as a whole.

In the Dies and Cohen study, 108 advanced undergraduate psychology majors were instructed to indicate on a seven-point scale how helpful (1) or harmful (7) they felt it would be for the leader to share a particular statement in both a therapy and an encounter group context during the first, eighth, and fifteenth sessions of a weekly group. Appropriate methodological controls were introduced to counterbalance for presentation of session sequence and item position within the forty-five statements. A substantial portion of the students had participated in an intensive group experience (therapy and/or encounter), but students without such prior experience reacted to the questionnaire in virtually the same fashion. It was therefore concluded that scores would represent realistic attitudes concerning self-revelation by a group leader. A variety of statistical analyses, too complex to consider here, were conducted to evaluate responses to the scale. It is sufficient to furnish a brief descriptive account of the findings and to provide the raw data in tabular form. (See Table 1, which gives the mean scores of the study, based on a helpful-harmful scale of 1 to 7.)

The composite results of the content analyses suggested a reasonably coherent picture. Subjects indicated a preference for a leader who is confident in his or her leadership abilities and emotional stability and who is willing to share positive strivings (personal and professional goals) and normal emotional experiences such as worries and anxieties and feelings of pride, loneliness, sadness, helpfulness, and anger.

On the other hand, subjects expressed reservations about the appropriateness of a group leader confronting individual members, especially early in the group sessions, with such negative feelings as distrust, anger, prejudice, and disdain, or offering criticism of the overall group experience by admitting feelings of frustration, boredom, or isolation.

While our subjects favored a personal style of group leadership, it was clear that they made a sharp distinction between the appropriateness and value of openness in psychotherapy and in encounter group settings. Self-disclosure by an encounter group

Table 1. Group Leader Self-Disclosure Scale: Mean Scores

Personal History			Personal Characteristics			Here-and-Now Reactions		
<i>Item</i>	<i>Encounter Group</i>	<i>Psychotherapy Group</i>	<i>Item</i>	<i>Encounter Group</i>	<i>Psychotherapy Group</i>	<i>Item</i>	<i>Encounter Group</i>	<i>Psychotherapy Group</i>
1.	2.71	4.14	2.	2.30	3.48	3.	3.10	4.51
4.	2.27	3.10	5.	2.85	3.46	6.	3.60	5.33
7.	2.71	3.60	8.	3.38	4.43	9.	3.25	4.34
10.	2.59	3.58	11.	2.87	4.35	12.	3.38	4.70
13.	2.81	3.88	14.	2.91	4.33	15.	3.42	5.17
16.	2.55	3.90	17.	2.48	3.54	18.	3.31	4.68
19.	3.21	4.13	20.	2.46	4.06	21.	3.41	4.86
22.	3.35	4.38	23.	2.53	3.55	24.	3.04	4.52
25.	2.90	3.98	26.	3.30	5.19	27.	3.77	5.41
28.	3.24	4.85	29.	1.80	3.19	30.	3.47	4.42
31.	2.38	3.60	32.	3.60	4.47	33.	4.58	5.74
34.	3.29	4.50	35.	3.57	5.50	36.	4.19	5.40
37.	2.92	3.95	38.	2.37	3.48	39.	4.62	5.59
40.	4.18	5.61	41.	2.40	3.83	42.	3.18	4.39
43.	3.09	3.91	48.	2.53	3.68	45.	3.52	5.14
<i>Overall</i>	2.94	4.07		2.75	4.03		3.58	4.94

facilitator was evaluated as far less injurious to the group than self-disclosure by a leader of a psychotherapy group. Although the respondents gave the leader greater freedom, in both groups, to share intimate material as the sessions progressed, they were substantially more conservative about leader self-disclosure in the therapy setting.

These results are compatible with findings from large-scale research conducted in actual group situations (e.g., Lieberman, Yalom, & Miles, 1973). Nonetheless, caution should be exercised in using and in evaluating the Group Leader Self-Disclosure Scale. The present version of the instrument is preliminary; research (Dies & Cohen, 1976) was not focused on scale construction and validation, and reliability estimates, normative data, and validity research cannot be furnished at this time.

Potential Uses of the Scale

A number of potentially valuable applications in leadership training, clinical practice, and research can be suggested. Prior research (Dies, 1973a) has shown that it is feasible to develop a valid questionnaire on leadership transparency.

Psychotherapy and encounter group facilitators are continually faced with questions about the appropriateness of personal openness. "How disclosing should I be?" "What material is proper for me to reveal?" "When is a suitable time for intimate revelations?" Leaders react less defensively when they have had the opportunity to reflect on the issue of leadership transparency before they are confronted with it during their group sessions. The Group Leader Self-Disclosure Scale represents a convenient vehicle for generating a discussion of transparency within a training program. By having the chance to discuss

topics relating to self-disclosure with their fellow trainers, students can more effectively work through their own stances regarding this issue. They can consider the pros and cons of sharing here-and-now versus there-and-then material, of divulging positive and negative feelings, and of moderating the frequency and intensity of their revelations. The Group Leader Self-Disclosure Scale also provides the opportunity to assess changes in self-divulgement during the course of training (e.g., pre- and post-testing). Research (Dies, 1973a) has demonstrated that trainees are likely to modify their views on transparency more dramatically than are more established or experienced group facilitators.

The Group Leader Self-Disclosure Scale may also prove useful in clinical settings as a source of feedback to group leaders and participants alike. For example, clients or members of personal growth groups could complete the questionnaire under instructions to respond as their leader would or, again, as they would want their leader to answer. This procedure can be an interesting source of information on group process (Dies, 1973b). Greater member dissatisfaction would be expected, for example, in groups where there is a large discrepancy between the two scores (i.e., predicted versus desired scores). The group might also benefit from a frank discussion of the merits and disadvantages of self-disclosure by the leader. In fact, the items from the Group Leader Self-Disclosure Scale could be altered to focus on members' willingness to disclose certain topics during the group sessions. This "willingness to disclose" version of the scale can be a valuable way to measure members' readiness to participate in group encounter (Dies, 1976).

Finally, the research potential of the Group Leader Self-Disclosure Scale is apparent. Empirical investigations of leadership transparency are only beginning to emerge. Research instruments such as this scale or other forms of leadership-transparency scales (e.g., Dies, 1973a) could be of considerable utility in identifying the innumerable parameters of leader self-disclosure.

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GROUP LEADER SELF-DISCLOSURE SCALE

Robert R. Dies

The following items represent a range of topics that leaders of experiential groups might share with their group members. The statements were written to include external past and present issues and here-and-now attitudes and feelings of the leader toward himself or herself and group members or the group as a whole.

You are to indicate how helpful or harmful you feel it would be for you to share each statement within the context of your group sessions. Before every item, write the number on the helpful-harmful continuum (1 to 7) that best represents your feeling about the appropriateness of that self-disclosure or personal revelation. Respond according to your own beliefs, rather than the way you think others might respond. Also, respond as if each disclosure is true of you.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very helpful			Neutral		Very harmful	

Topics I might share with the group:

- ___ 1. Guilt feelings, if any, I have (or have had) about sexual behavior.
- ___ 2. Whether or not I am able to let myself go when I get angry.
- ___ 3. Feelings of fondness toward another member in the group.
- ___ 4. Whether or not I ever cry as an adult when I am sad.
- ___ 5. My professional goals.
- ___ 6. Feelings of sexual attraction toward a member of the group.
- ___ 7. The greatest point of disagreement I have (or have had) with my parents.
- ___ 8. How I feel my colleagues view me, i.e., how they assess my competence.
- ___ 9. My feeling that the group is too dependent on me.
- ___ 10. One of the worst things that ever happened to me.
- ___ 11. Feelings about inadequacy in sexual behavior-ability to perform adequately in sexual relationships.
- ___ 12. My feeling of isolation from the group.
- ___ 13. Any doubts I ever had about religious beliefs.
- ___ 14. The parts of my body I am most ashamed for anyone to see.
- ___ 15. My disgust toward a group member.
- ___ 16. Things in the past or present that I feel ashamed of or guilty about.

- ___ 17. My feelings about how much independence I need.
- ___ 18. The sense that I am being manipulated by the group members.
- ___ 19. Times I have been tempted to steal something.
- ___ 20. The aspects of my personality that I dislike, worry about, or regard as a handicap.
- ___ 21. Anger toward a group member.
- ___ 22. Times I almost had, or did have, trouble with the law.
- ___ 23. Feelings I have when I am severely criticized.
- ___ 24. My worry about acceptance by the group members.
- ___ 25. Dreams I have had about sex.
- ___ 26. Questions about my emotional stability.
- ___ 27. My feelings of prejudice toward particular members in the group.
- ___ 28. Past suicidal thoughts.
- ___ 29. The admission that I have many conflicts that are similar to those of my group members.
- ___ 30. My protective feelings toward specific group member(s).
- ___ 31. Times when I have felt helpless.
- ___ 32. How much I enjoy gambling.
- ___ 33. The fear that the group will fail.
- ___ 34. Times when I have not been dependable.
- ___ 35. Feelings of anxiety or uncertainty about my leadership.
- ___ 36. My feelings that what the members are doing is ridiculous.
- ___ 37. Times when I have been discouraged in my work.
- ___ 38. Things that anger me.
- ___ 39. My boredom with the group process.
- ___ 40. Past experiences of failure as a group leader.
- ___ 41. What feelings, if any, I have trouble expressing or controlling.
- ___ 42. The worry that I am less sensitive than some of the group members.
- ___ 43. Times I have “played sick” (or wanted to) to get out of something.
- ___ 44. What it takes to make me worried, anxious, or afraid.
- ___ 45. My feeling of being inferior to other members in the group.

GROUP LEADER SELF-DISCLOSURE SCALE SCORE SHEET

Instructions: You will derive three scores from the instrument. The pattern of these three scores will indicate your belief about the potential harmfulness of a group leader's self-disclosure of his or her personal history, personal characteristics, and here-and-now reactions to group members.

Personal History. The first item and each third one thereafter (1, 4, 7, 10, etc.) deals with disclosing the group leader's personal history. Sum your ratings to these items and divide by 15 to obtain your average harmfulness rating in this area. Write your average here: _____

Personal Characteristics. The second item and each third one thereafter (2, 5, 8, 11, etc.) focuses on the leader's disclosure of his or her present personal characteristics. Sum these ratings, divide by 15, and write your score here: _____

Here-and-Now Reactions. The third item and each third one thereafter (3, 6, 9, 12, etc.) contains a leader's reaction to what is occurring in the group and to individual members. Sum your ratings for these fifteen items and compute your average: _____

Comparisons. Locate your averages by writing an "X" on each of the three scales below and compare your beliefs about what is harmful for the group leader to disclose within group meetings.

	<i>Very Helpful</i>			<i>Neutral</i>		<i>Very Harmful</i>	
Personal History	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Personal Characteristics	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Here-and-Now Reactions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

You may wish to compare your averages with those derived in a study of university psychology students. They were asked to rate the items twice, on perceived harmfulness in psychotherapy groups (P) and encounter groups (E). Averages for these 108 students are plotted below for the two types of groups.

	<i>Very Helpful</i>			<i>Neutral</i>		<i>Very Harmful</i>	
Personal History	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Personal Characteristics	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Here-and-Now Reactions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

■ INCREASING EMPLOYEE SELF-CONTROL (IESC)

Barron H. Harvey

As a topic in the area of management training, motivation has received enormous attention. Many theorists have come forth with motivational theories that attempt to explain and predict behavior from the point of view of motivation. The concept of self-control is an important element in most motivational theories, even those that are built on the principle of hedonism. Organization-wide attempts to improve motivation have as their goal increasing employee self-control within organizational constraints.

The Increasing Employee Self-Control (IESC) questionnaire was developed to assess managers' receptiveness toward increasing employees' self-control in organizations. Many techniques today are built on this concept: e.g., management by objectives (MBO), participative decision making, flexitime, job enrichment, goal setting, motivation training, personal time bank, and staggered work hours. Because the success or failure of these techniques may rest on management's reactions, it is important for the organization to determine how these suggestions will be received by managers. The IESC responses will indicate if respondents are in favor of, indifferent to, or not in favor of conveying more control to subordinate employees.

DEVELOPMENT

The IESC questionnaire was developed using Likert's method of summated ratings. Originally, twenty-four statements were composed based on four definitions of employee-self-control:

- Definition 1. Employees (especially lower-level personnel) manage their own organizational contingencies and consequences (on an individual basis whenever possible).
- Definition 2. Employees participate in decision making.
- Definition 3. Employees in organizations have more responsibility.
- Definition 4. Employees determine their contingencies.

After a factor analysis, the original statements were reduced to sixteen. The questionnaire contains items that are assumed to be approximately equal in attitude loading. Half the items are negative and half are positive.

The reliability of IESC was estimated using the internal consistency method. The technique used was Behrstedt's (1969) method of determining the reliability of multiple-item scales (which utilizes a covariance matrix) from data generated during the pretest. The reliability estimate for IESC was .76.

SCORING AND INTERPRETATION

The questionnaire consists of an equal number of positive and of negative statements. The responses available are Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Undecided (U), Disagree (D), and Strongly Disagree (SD). These responses are scored in reverse numerical order for positive and negative statements: for positive statements, (SA) = 5, (A) = 4, (U) = 3, (D) = 2, and (SD) = 1; for negative statements, (SA) = 1, (A) = 2, (U) = 3, (D) = 4, and (SD) = 5. The total score may range from sixteen to eighty. The letter responses are translated to numerical scores with the aid of the IESC Scoring and Interpretation Sheet.

The final numerical score on the IESC questionnaire is designed to indicate the manager/respondent's attitude or receptiveness toward increasing subordinate employees' self-control. A score of 16-23 indicates that the manager is definitely not in favor of the items assessed; a score of 24-29 indicates that the manager is not in favor of the items assessed; a score of 40-55 indicates that the manager is undecided; a score of 56-71 indicates that the manager is in favor of increasing employee self-control; a score of 72-80 indicates that the manager is strongly in favor of increasing employee self-control. Based on these interpretations, initial or additional training may be necessary before a particular technique is implemented.

ADMINISTRATION AND USES

Approximately ten to twenty minutes is required to complete the questionnaire. The following are suggested uses for IESC:

1. This questionnaire can be administered prior to training (in areas such as motivation, goal setting, participative decision making, job enrichment, delegation, etc.) and again at the end of the training. By comparing the two sets of scores, participants have an indication of how much new knowledge and/or attitude change has occurred.
2. The IESC questionnaire can be administered before an organization implements a technique that seeks to increase employee self-control. Scores will indicate whether management training on the technique is necessary prior to implementation in order to increase the chance of success.
3. IESC can be used to assess training needs when organizational morale/satisfaction is low. The results may indicate which techniques employees desire most.
4. The questionnaire can be administered to management personnel and to subordinate personnel and the results from the two groups compared. Such comparison serves as excellent feedback and workshop discussion, especially in team-development activities.
5. IESC can be used effectively to assess Theory X ("definitely not in favor," "not in favor") managers and Theory Y ("strongly in favor," "in favor") managers.

6. A trainer will find that various items in the IESC questionnaire can also serve as excellent discussion items in training sessions.

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INCREASING EMPLOYEE SELF-CONTROL (IESC)

Barron H. Harvey

Your Name _____

Date _____

Instructions: For each statement below circle your response:

Strongly Agree (SA)

Agree (A)

Undecided (U)

Disagree (D)

Strongly Disagree (SD)

- | | | | | | |
|--|----|---|---|---|----|
| 1. When opportunities exist for employees to work independently (without supervision), there will be an increase in efficiency. | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 2. Although attempts are made at giving employees more responsibility, they will seldom utilize these opportunities. | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 3. Employees, on their own, will in most cases do what is required of them. | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 4. Employees should be given more opportunities to determine the tasks to be accomplished by them. | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 5. Strict controls in organizations are required for efficient operation. | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 6. Subordinate participation in decision making produces greater harmony between supervisor and subordinate. | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 7. More responsibility given to subordinates will result in benefits to the individual employee and organization. | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 8. Allowing employees to manage their own personal leave time (sick, vacation, personal business, and holiday time) will result in abuse. | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 9. Allowing more employee initiative in the work place would cause much confusion. | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 10. Participative decision making is of little value because most subordinates do not understand the overall objectives of the organization. | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 11. When employees are given more responsibility in the work environment, they will be more | | | | | |

	committed to organizational goals and objectives.	SA	A	U	D	SD
12.	Allowing employees to start work anytime they desire (within a two-hour flexible range) will result in confusion and inefficiency.	SA	A	U	D	SD
13.	When left on their own, most subordinates will not do the work that is required of them.	SA	A	U	D	SD
14.	Employees who are committed to organizational goals and objectives require little supervision.	SA	A	U	D	SD
15.	Given the opportunity, most employees will make decisions that benefit the organization and the employees.	SA	A	U	D	SD
16.	Most employees are unable to identify with the organization or its objectives.	SA	A	U	D	SD

IESC SCORING AND INTERPRETATION SHEET

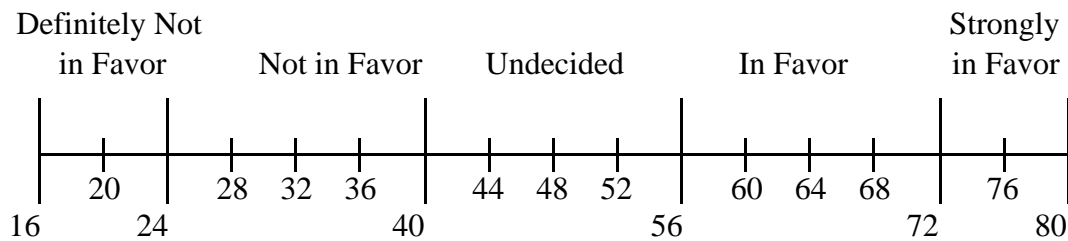
Instructions: Circle the response you gave to each item; sum all circled numbers under each column (SA, A, U, D, and SD), and then sum across all columns for an overall total score.

	SA	A	U	D	SD	
1	5	4	3	2	1	
2	1	2	3	4	5	
3	5	4	3	2	1	
4	5	4	3	2	1	
5	1	2	3	4	5	
6	5	4	3	2	1	
7	5	4	3	2	1	
8	1	2	3	4	5	
9	1	2	3	4	5	
10	1	2	3	4	5	
11	5	4	3	2	1	
12	1	2	3	4	5	
13	1	2	3	4	5	
14	5	4	3	2	1	
15	5	4	3	2	1	
16	1	2	3	4	5	
Subtotals		+	+	+	+	= <div style="display: inline-block; width: 80px; height: 60px; border: 1px solid black; vertical-align: middle;"></div>
						Total

Interpretation

Place an “X” on the continuum below to indicate the degree to which you are in favor of increasing employee self-control and self-determination. For example, scores of 16-24 indicate that you are definitely not in favor of having employees manage their own organizational contingencies, have more responsibility, and participate more in decision making.

A Continuum of Attitudes Toward Increasing Employee Self-Control



■ THE INDIVIDUAL-TEAM-ORGANIZATION (ITO) SURVEY: CONSCIOUS CHANGE FOR THE ORGANIZATION

Will Anderson

THE ITO MODEL: GIVE-AND-TAKE AMONG INDIVIDUALS, TEAMS, AND THE ORGANIZATION

Organizations have three major components that share a give-and-take relationship: individuals, teams, and the organization itself (ITO). The ITO model (Figure 1) recognizes that give-and-take is a fact of organizational life, just as it is in many other human activities. It is the chief characteristic of the symbiotic relationship among the people, resources, structure, and goals that make up the organizational world.

The individual is the basic resource of any organization; most of the power with which an organization accomplishes its goals is ultimately derived from its individual members.

Individual	Team	Organization
Individual-to-Team Interface		
Individual Gives; Team Takes	Team Gives; Individual Takes	
Time Energy Creativity Skills and Expertise Information Dedication Loyalty Integrity	Income Recognition Job Satisfaction Growth Support Direction Structure Fulfillment of Social Needs	
Team-to-Organization Interface		
	Team Gives; Organization Takes	Organization Gives; Team Takes
	Time Energy Dedication Group Strength Synergy Task Management People Management Individual-to-Organization Liaison	Policy and Goals Financial Support Material Resources Facilities Strategic Planning Structure Ethics Climate

Figure 1. The Give-and-Take Relationships of the ITO Model

The work team is the mechanism through which individuals make their contributions. In any organization the team occupies a central and precarious position. On the one hand, it must serve the individual members who do the work; on the other hand, it must serve the organization, which provides additional resources needed to accomplish the team's assigned tasks. Conflict can exist—sometimes in sharp form—when the interests of these two masters collide.

The organization interacts with its teams in a way similar to that in which the team interacts with its individual members. (For this reason the team and the organization can be perceived as one in a small organization.) Because the individual does not have a direct relationship with the organization, the organization can sometimes lose the perspective that it is a collection of individuals.

Each of the three components also interacts with the rest of the world: the individual in areas involving his or her own health and growth needs, family, and other interests and concerns; the team in areas that provide other needed expertise and resources; and the organization in a way that enables it to finance its operations and market its products or services. Although these external environmental factors are not as amenable to managed change as the internal ones are, proper responses to the environment are essential to the organization's success. These responses may involve issues and areas such as employee-assistance programs, community and state concerns, markets, technological advances, strategic planning, economic conditions, and the national and world political climate.

AGREEMENT, PERCEPTIONS, AND ATTITUDES

The chief characteristic of relationships among the three components is the flow of energy, communication, and resources on which they are based. Underlying and directing this basic flow are agreements between and among individuals. These agreements, which may be written, spoken, or assumed, are the fundamental reasons that the individual works for the organization and that the organization hires the individual.

When agreements are consciously recognized and understood by all of the parties involved, the flow of energy, communication, and resources is free and the organization is healthy. Typical areas about which agreements are clearly recognized include salaries, job descriptions, time and cost agreements, and sales quotas. When agreements are hidden or unclear, the flow is restricted and the organization suffers in terms of lack of clear goals, inability to mobilize resources, and loss in productivity. Hidden or unclear agreements are not verbal or written and frequently are not in the conscious awareness of at least one of the individuals involved. An agreement can exist even when one of the parties feels coerced; he or she still agrees, although reluctantly. Some areas that can be affected by hidden agreements are influence, roles, and organizational norms.

Clearer agreements result in fewer gaps in expectations among individuals. An important objective in using the ITO model and its associated instrument, The Individual-Team-Organization (ITO) Survey, is to create greater conscious awareness of

these agreements and the differences in people's perceptions of them. Once agreements and differences in perceptions have been identified, a step-by-step process can be employed to change agreements as necessary and to resolve differences in an informed way (Ackerman, 1984).

Perceptions, unlike agreements, are entirely individual; they can be gathered and used, however, as hard, numerical data with which to assess organizational effectiveness. Attitudes are another valuable organizational-assessment measure, but they cannot be gathered and used with the same precision as perceptions. It is important to note, though, that perceptions are not entirely divorced from attitudes. Clearly, we all see what we want to see to some degree. An individual's organizational reality is greatly affected by attitudes and thoughts that can "color" his or her conscious perceptions of the organization. Thus, conscious organizational change involves not only making changes in a conscious manner, but also altering people's conscious perceptions of organizational functioning.

The idea of conscious change has been an inherent part of the definition of organization development since its inception (French, 1984; Goodstein & Cooke, 1984). Terms such as *databased* or *planned change* imply increasing the awareness of the individual involved in the change process. The starting point for the individual is an accurate assessment of his or her current perception of the organization. This assessment stage is the point at which the ITO model and the ITO survey become useful. The ITO survey is used not only to collect data about individual perceptions, but also, by feeding back the results and acting in accordance with them, to change these perceptions.

DESIGN OF THE ITO SURVEY

The design of the ITO survey is based on an individual's perception of the frequency with which certain conditions or behaviors occur in the organization. The survey consists of fifty-two items divided into three sections corresponding to the three components of the ITO model. Most of the categories dealt with in the survey conform to those traditionally used in organizational-assessment instruments, but two categories—risk taking and employee assistance—are relatively new. The emphasis given to risk taking acknowledges the need for innovation in the organization; the items on employee assistance recognize the growing use and importance of these programs in the workplace. Three categories—time management, influence, and purpose—are of high concern at all three organizational levels; thus, they are dealt with in all three sections.

ADMINISTRATION OF THE ITO SURVEY

It is recommended that the ITO survey be administered to twenty to fifty people at a time, usually assembled in intact work groups. It is also recommended that the

respondents be assembled and educated about the survey and how its data will be used prior to actual administration. The basic purposes of the survey can be stated as follows:

- To provide each employee with an opportunity to assess and influence the work environment;
- To provide work teams with information about their own functioning so that they can determine areas in which improvement might be needed as well as areas of particular strength; and
- To provide management with information that will be useful in designing future training and other programs intended to improve the work environment and productivity.

Plans for feedback of results also should be clearly announced.

FEEDBACK AND USE OF SURVEY RESULTS

After all respondents have completed the survey and the scoring sheet, the data are collected and averaged at team and higher organizational levels. If desired, an internal or external consultant may analyze the individual scores within each team and plot the overall team scores on a graph. Such a graphic representation of a team's data can be extremely helpful to the team members as they discuss which areas of their own or the organization's functioning may need improvement. Organization-wide data also can be plotted on a graph to illustrate how the organization is perceived by the various organizational components and levels. Individual anonymity can be preserved by reporting the results only as team or organizational averages.

The ITO survey uses comparisons rather than absolute scores. These comparisons can be made with what managers and/or nonmanagerial workers expect the scores to be; or, if the survey has been administered previously, comparisons can be made with previous scores. Equally useful is an examination of the "spread" of individual perceptions, that is, the differences or gaps between and among individuals in their perceptions of the same organizational characteristics. These gaps indicate the areas in which there is more or less confusion regarding individual perceptions of agreements.

Other ways to use the data for comparative purposes are as follows:

- To compare an individual's perceptions with those of his or her team and/or organization;
- To compare the perceptions of teams that are responsible for similar work (in conjunction with other productivity measures, if desired);
- To compare the perceptions of one or more teams with organizational norms; and
- To compare the perceptions of an individual, a team, or the entire organization with the perceptions that existed at some other point in time.

Although the analyzed ITO survey data reveal gaps in perceptions and areas of concern, the survey is not designed to yield specific information about the perceptions and agreements themselves or to provide answers about actions that might be taken in accordance with the results. For these kinds of specific information, each work team uses group-problem-solving techniques to plan action designed to address identified areas of concern. The resulting action plans can be used to institute, guide, and monitor a change process within the organization that is consistent with needed improvements indicated in the survey data. If desired, the organization can combine action plans with programs involving quality of work life, participative management, or other human resource development issues. In addition, the ITO survey can be administered yearly as part of an ongoing, evolutionary-change process based on continual review of changes in individual perceptions.

VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

The ITO survey has face validity, and its results can serve as a useful base from which to start an organizational-change process. Because of the intended purpose of the instrument, no attempt has been made to establish validity and reliability beyond this point.

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THE INDIVIDUAL-TEAM-ORGANIZATION (ITO) SURVEY¹

Will Anderson

Instructions: This instrument consists of fifty-six statements. It is divided into three sections, each of which is designed to help you evaluate how you perceive a different aspect of your life at work. In addition, each section is divided into categories representing issues that are pertinent to that section.

On the same line with each statement are the numbers 5, 4, 3, 2, 1, and 0; these numbers correspond to the headings Almost Always, Usually, Frequently, Occasionally, Seldom, and Almost Never. For each statement, circle the number that most closely represents how often that statement is true for you. For example, if a statement is true for you almost always, circle 5; if it is frequently true, circle 3; if it is almost never true for you, circle 0. Be sure to read the information provided at the beginning of each section; it is intended to provide you with background on that aspect of your life at work so that you can more easily respond to the items in that section.

SECTION 1: INDIVIDUAL

The basic resource of any organization is its individual people. The items in this section deal with how you see yourself and your coworkers as individuals with regard to such issues as role clarity, satisfaction, rewards, communication, collaboration, risks, and influence.

	How Often Statement Is True					
	Almost Always	Usually	Frequently	Occasionally	Seldom	Almost Never
Role Clarity						
1. I know what my job is.	5	4	3	2	1	0
2. The roles of my coworkers are clear to me.	5	4	3	2	1	0
Job Satisfaction						
3. I am satisfied with my job.	5	4	3	2	1	0
4. My work is meaningful to me.	5	4	3	2	1	0
Rewards						
5. I receive the recognition I deserve.	5	4	3	2	1	0
6. I believe that rewards are given fairly here.	5	4	3	2	1	0

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	How Often Statement Is True					Almost Never
	Almost Always	Usually	Frequently	Occasionally	Seldom	
Communication						
7. I know in plenty of time when anything important happens.	5	4	3	2	1	0
8. My coworkers and I communicate clearly and effectively.	5	4	3	2	1	0
Collaboration						
9. I assist and help my coworkers.	5	4	3	2	1	0
10. When I need help, I can find someone who is willing and able to give it to me.	5	4	3	2	1	0
Time Management						
11. I get things done in plenty of time to avoid a last-minute rush.	5	4	3	2	1	0
12. My coworkers have enough time to do a good job.	5	4	3	2	1	0
Risk Taking						
13. I am supported in using unique and different approaches to problem solving.	5	4	3	2	1	0
14. In this organization, failures are forgiven rather than held against people forever.	5	4	3	2	1	0
Employee Assistance						
15. There are people here to whom I can go for confidential help when I have personal problems that affect my work.	5	4	3	2	1	0
16. If I or my coworkers had problems with drugs or alcohol, I would feel that I could use the resources my organization provides.	5	4	3	2	1	0
Influence						
17. I have the authority I need to get my job done.	5	4	3	2	1	0

	How Often Statement Is True					
	Almost Always	Usually	Frequently	Occasionally	Seldom	Almost Never
18. I feel that I have a significant impact on my work team and my organization.	5	4	3	2	1	0
Purpose						
19. I have a clear sense of what my goals are.	5	4	3	2	1	0
20. My work is important.	5	4	3	2	1	0

SECTION 2: TEAM

Your work team is the organizational environment in which you accomplish things most frequently. It is the vehicle through which you interact with the rest of the organization, and it can be an important source of social contact and support. The items in this section address issues such as leadership, meetings, conflict, problem solving, and productivity with regard to your immediate work team.

	How Often Statement Is True					
	Almost Always	Usually	Frequently	Occasionally	Seldom	Almost Never
Leadership						
21. My team has effective leadership.	5	4	3	2	1	0
22. My team leader is available to discuss issues and resolve problems.	5	4	3	2	1	0
Meeting Effectiveness						
23. When the members of my team meet, we accomplish what we set out to accomplish.	5	4	3	2	1	0
24. My team's meetings help me to get my job done.	5	4	3	2	1	0
Conflict Management						
25. My team is free of the kind of conflict that might affect its progress.	5	4	3	2	1	0
26. The members of my team have clear ways to resolve our differences.	5	4	3	2	1	0

		How Often Statement Is True					
		Almost Always	Usually	Frequently	Occasionally	Seldom	Almost Never
Problem Solving							
27.	My team is solves problems in a timely fashion.	5	4	3	2	1	0
28.	My team has clear and effective decision-making procedures.	5	4	3	2	1	0
Productivity							
29.	My team produces effective and valuable results.	5	4	3	2	1	0
30.	My team's productivity compares favorably with that of other teams here.	5	4	3	2	1	0
Time Management							
31.	In my team we spend our time in activities that are directly useful to our work.	5	4	3	2	1	0
32.	The quality of my team's output is more important than any deadlines the members have to meet.	5	4	3	2	1	0
Influence							
33.	My team's recommendations are given thoughtful consideration by management.	5	4	3	2	1	0
34.	The solutions that my team offers to management are implemented.	5	4	3	2	1	0
Purpose							
35.	I have a clear sense of what the goals of my team are.	5	4	3	2	1	0
36.	My team has an important function here.	5	4	3	2	1	0

SECTION 3: ORGANIZATION

Your organization provides you with the overall framework and resources with which you do your work. The items in this section address the issues of planning, structure, procedures, climate, stress, and purpose within your organization as a whole.

	How Often Statement Is True					
	Almost Always	Usually	Frequently	Occasionally	Seldom	Almost Never
Planning						
37. My organization takes planning seriously.	5	4	3	2	1	0
38. The planning we do here is useful.	5	4	3	2	1	0
Structure						
39. This organization has the flexibility needed for changing conditions and career growth.	5	4	3	2	1	0
40. The reporting system and accountability channels here run smoothly and effectively.	5	4	3	2	1	0
Procedures						
41. People around here are more concerned about getting the job done than they are about accounting for time and cost.	5	4	3	2	1	0
42. Our company regulations make sense and support my work.	5	4	3	2	1	0
Climate						
43. I enjoy working here.	5	4	3	2	1	0
44. I have positive feelings about my work relationships	5	4	3	2	1	0
Stress						
45. I can handle the amount of work I have to do.	5	4	3	2	1	0
46. People in this organization function so that they avoid crises and having to “put out fires.”	5	4	3	2	1	0

Time Management

47. I am able to take time to sit back and get a broader perspective on my work.	5	4	3	2	1	0
48. Work flows easily here with no excessive delays.	5	4	3	2	1	0

Influence

49. This organization can provide the resources needed to get the job done.	5	4	3	2	1	0
50. This organization has a significant impact on its professional field and/or its market place.	5	4	3	2	1	0

Purpose

51. I have a clear understanding of the organization's mission and goals.	5	4	3	2	1	0
52. I am happy to contribute to the accomplishment of the organization's mission and goals.	5	4	3	2	1	0

I think the following work areas need the most attention (circle up to five numbers).

1. Role Clarity
2. Job Satisfaction
3. Rewards
4. Communication
5. Collaboration
6. Time Management (*Individual*)
7. Risk Taking
8. Employee Assistance
9. Influence (*Individual*)
10. Purpose (*Individual*)
11. Leadership
12. Meeting Effectiveness
13. Conflict Management
14. Problem Solving
15. Productivity
16. Time Management (*Team*)
17. Influence (*Team*)
18. Purpose (*Team*)
19. Planning
20. Structure
21. Procedures
22. Climate
23. Stress
24. Time Management (*Organization*)
25. Influence (*Organization*)
26. Purpose (*Organization*)
27. _____
28. _____
29. _____
30. _____

THE ITO SURVEY SCORING SHEET

Instructions: When you have completed the survey, transfer the frequency number you circled for each item (5, 4, 3, 2, 1, or 0) to the corresponding blank on the scoring form on the next page. Next, add the two scores in each category and write the total in the appropriate square. The third step is to total all the squares in each of the three sections: Individual, Team, and Organization. Now check your copy of the survey to see which five categories you selected as needing the most attention; circle these five on the scoring form. (If you selected some categories that do not appear in the survey, write these selections at the bottom of this sheet).

The ITO Scoring Form

Individual	Team	Organization
1 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	21 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	37 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>
2 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	22 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	38 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>
<i>Total Role Clarity</i> <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	<i>Total Leadership</i> <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	<i>Total Planning</i> <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>
3 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	23 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	39 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>
4 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	24 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	40 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>
<i>Total Job Satisfaction</i> <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	<i>Total Meeting Effectiveness</i> <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	<i>Total Structure</i> <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>
5 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	25 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	41 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>
6 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	26 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	42 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>
<i>Total Rewards</i> <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	<i>Total Conflict Management</i> <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	<i>Total Procedures</i> <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>
7 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	27 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	43 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>
8 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	28 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	44 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>
<i>Total Communication</i> <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	<i>Total Problem Solving</i> <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	<i>Total Climate</i> <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>
9 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	29 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	45 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>
10 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	30 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	46 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>
<i>Total Collaboration</i> <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	<i>Total Productivity</i> <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	<i>Total Stress</i> <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>
11 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	31 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	47 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>
12 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	32 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	48 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>
<i>Total Time Management</i> <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	<i>Total Time Management</i> <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	<i>Total Time Management</i> <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>
13 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	33 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	49 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>
14 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	34 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	50 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>
<i>Total Risk Taking</i> <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	<i>Total Influence</i> <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	<i>Total Influence</i> <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>
15 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	35 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	51 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>
16 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	36 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	52 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>
<i>Total Employee Assistance</i> <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	<i>Total Purpose</i> <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	<i>Total Purpose</i> <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>
17 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>		
18 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>		
<i>Total Influence</i> <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>		
19 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>		
20 <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>		
<i>Total Purpose</i> <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>		
Total Individual <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	Total Team <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>	Total Organization <input style="width: 40px;" type="text"/>

THE ITO SURVEY INTERPRETATION SHEET

The scoring of the ITO survey helps individuals, teams, and organizations to focus on areas that need improvement. Comparisons can be made with what managers and/or nonmanagerial personnel expect scores to be; or, if your company has used the survey previously, comparisons can be made with previous scores. You may find it equally useful to examine the “spread” of individual scores (the gaps between individual perceptions of the same organizational characteristics).

Other ways to use the results of this survey for comparative purposes are as follows:

- To compare your perceptions (as shown by your scores) with those of your fellow team members or of the company population as a whole;
- To compare your team’s perceptions with those of other teams that are responsible for similar kinds of work;
- To compare the perceptions of one or more teams with those of the company population as a whole; and
- To compare the perceptions of one person, a team, or the entire company with the perceptions that existed at some other point in time.

You and your fellow team members can work with your supervisor or a consultant to determine other uses of the survey results and how to address any areas of particular concern that you identify.

■ NONRESEARCH USES OF THE GROUP LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE (GTQ-C)

Daniel B. Wile

The GTQ-C is an instrument for the measurement of style in group leadership. It presents brief descriptions of group situations and asks the subject to indicate how he or she would respond if leading the situation. Although originally devised for research purposes, the GTQ-C has proven to have several nonresearch uses. This paper describes these uses, makes reference to related research findings, and includes a sample copy of the instrument along with the answer sheet and scoring system.

The GTQ-C can be used for the following educational purposes: to stimulate discussion in classes devoted to small groups, to evaluate what students have learned from a course in group leadership, to focus attention on group and leadership processes in an ongoing group, and to aid an individual leader in the examination and study of his or her own leadership orientation. Because the GTQ-C is backed by limited validation evidence, it provides suggestive and tentative rather than definitive information.

The GTQ-C can be used to stimulate discussion of leadership issues in a course on small groups. It can do this because it presents these issues in the intuitively meaningful form of concrete examples. A class discussion of the twenty-one GTQ-C situations typically develops into a series of vigorous and spontaneous debates regarding the relative value of directive vs. nondirective leadership, individual vs. group focus, reassurance vs. confrontation, asking questions vs. making interpretations vs. remaining silent, etc. The GTQ-C thus raises in clear and concrete form the important decisions or choices that anyone who leads a group must make.

Some classes attempt to determine the “correct,” “right,” or “proper” response for each GTQ-C situation. There is, of course, no such response. Although research results have suggested that some response types tend to be more sophisticated than others (Wile, Bron, & Pollack, 1970b), these results are tentative and, in any event, apply to groups and not to individuals. A response that, in the hands of one leader, is naive, ineffective, and a function of this leader’s inexperience, may, because of a difference in the tone and manner in which it is delivered, have a facilitative effect when made by another leader.

The GTQ-C can be used to evaluate what students in a course or training program in group leadership learn from the course. If the GTQ-C is administered at the

The GTQ-C is a revision by the author of a parent form, GTQ-B, which was originally constructed by the author and Gary D. Bron. The GTQ-B was specifically designed for group therapy. The letters GTQ stand for “Group Therapy Questionnaire.” These letters are maintained in the present form, for the purposes of consistency, despite the fact that the GTQ-C has been broadened to apply, not merely to group therapy, but to group work in general.

beginning and again at the end of the course, the score will indicate how the students have been influenced by the program. Different courses appear to teach different things. While one course taught its students to be directive, for example, a second taught its students to be nondirective. Similarly, while one course encouraged students to ask group members more questions, another course encouraged them to ask fewer questions (Wile, Bron, & Pollack, 1970b).

This evaluation procedure is most informative, for the instructor as well as for the student, when the students' precourse/postcourse changes are reported back. In fact, the students' GTQ-C changes can be discussed as part of a general evaluation session held at the end of the course. Such an evaluation session can consider both general effects—the systematic effect that a course tends to exert on all its students—and specific effects—the unique or idiosyncratic manner in which certain individuals respond. For example, one student took advantage of a recent seminar in group leadership to develop nondirective tendencies while a second student reacted to the same seminar by developing directive tendencies. Both students showed dramatic GTQ-C changes, although in opposite directions.

The GTQ-C can be used in an ongoing group to study the leader's style and the manner in which each individual member is reacting to it. This is most appropriate when the group is itself composed of potential or practicing group leaders. Each member fills out the GTQ-C to describe the leader's approach. These protocols can then be compared with one another and with the leader's own GTQ-C responses. This exercise has the advantage of bringing up for group consideration issues that had previously remained unrecognized or concealed. If one member is alone in seeing the leader as directive and attacking, for example, this information can be used to study whether the interaction between the leader and this member has, in fact, been unusually aggressive (and if so, what this might mean), or whether this member's perception is a projection of his or her own aggressive or competitive feelings toward the leader. Similarly, a member's perception of the leader as extremely reassuring and supportive may reflect this member's fantasy-wish of being nurtured by an unconditionally loving authority or may accurately indicate the existence of a special relationship between the two.

Finally, the GTQ-C can be used as part of the reexamination or reevaluation in which group leaders engage at various points in their careers. A leader who takes the GTQ-C at systematic intervals can trace the development of his or her leadership approach (at least within the limits of the reliability and validity of the instrument). The special value of the GTQ-C exists in the manner in which it pins a leader down. Because the GTQ-C asks a leader to specify what he or she would do in concrete group situations, it helps that person to discover the degree of consistency between his or her actual group behavior (as determined by GTQ-C responses) and his or her theoretical views. Leaders are sometimes surprised by the disparity between their theory and their practice. For example, in one case, a leader who was theoretically committed to a nondirective approach to group leadership discovered that he was actually quite directive in his leadership behavior: helping the group over awkward spots, making

partly concealed suggestions as to how members might best proceed, and protecting members who were being criticized. Recognizing this, he was then in a position to reevaluate his leadership orientation and make a conscious and deliberate choice either to become truly nondirective, to continue in his subtly directive style, or possibly, to become even more and unabashedly directive.

Some subjects experience difficulty filling out the GTQ-C, and a few become bored, irritated, and antagonistic. Although these difficulties are often a result of the threatening quality of the questionnaire—e.g., fear about making “wrong” responses, resistance against being pinned down, or discomfort in being faced with one’s own uncertainties as a leader—this resistance can also be a reaction to the inherent limitations of the instrument. Because the GTQ-C provides only brief descriptions of each of the twenty-one group situations, it asks respondents to make decisions on partial information. Leaders who are either unwilling or unable to do this—particularly those who lead groups entirely in terms of their intuitive “feel” for the immediacy of each particular group situation—experience considerable difficulty with this instrument. A subject’s negative attitude toward the GTQ-C is itself a valuable piece of data. An exploration of the meaning of this attitude can lead to information that may be useful to recognize and consider: for example, a realization of the intuitive nature of his or her leadership functioning or concern about being “found out.”

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GROUP LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE (GTQ-C)¹

Daniel B. Wile

This questionnaire presents twenty-one situations that sometimes occur in human interaction groups and asks you to indicate how you would respond if you were the leader in the group. A list of *nineteen* alternative responses is provided for each situation.

On the separate answer sheet there are three columns to use in recording your preferences.

For each situation:

- a. List (in Column 1) the numbers of all of the responses among the nineteen that you might consider making if you were the leader faced with this particular situation.
- b. Then choose from among your selections the one response that you feel is most important to make and write its number in Column 2.
- c. Record in Column 3 those responses that you might make that have not been included on the list.

Situation 1: Starting the Group

You are the leader in a group that is meeting today for the first time. All eight members, young adults, are present as you enter the room and sit down. You introduce yourself and the members introduce themselves. Then everyone turns and looks at you expectantly. There is silence. What do you do?

Do nothing.

1. Say that the group is theirs to make use of as they wish.
2. Reassure them that a certain amount of tension is typical in the beginning of a group.
3. Break the ice with casual conversation.
4. Describe the purposes and procedures of the group.
5. Say that everyone seems so uptight that you wonder if the group is going to get off the ground.
6. Ask how they feel in this first meeting (about being in the group or about each other).
7. Say how you are feeling (example: tense and expectant).
8. Share an experience in your own life.
9. Ask why everyone is silent.
10. Ask what they think might be going on in the group.

¹ Form C is an experimental modification of Form B of the GTQ, which was originally developed by Daniel B. Wile and Gary D. Bron.

11. Describe how they seem to be expecting you to start things.
12. Suggest that they are wanting you to be an inspirational and protective leader.
13. Describe the silence as an expression of their anxieties about the group.
14. Ask each person to say why he or she came to the group.
15. Lead into a discussion of their family relationships and past experiences.
16. Encourage them to discuss their goals in behavioral terms.
17. Use a nonverbal procedure (examples: milling around; focusing on bodily tensions).
18. Use a role-playing or psychodrama procedure (example: encourage a member to act out a problem).

Situation 2: Personal Questions

Near the beginning of the first meeting, the members ask you personal questions about your family and background. What do you do?

1. Do nothing.
2. Invite them to say what they think your answers to these questions might be.
3. Say that you can understand why they might be curious about you.
4. Avoid answering the questions without drawing attention to the fact that you are not answering—bring up another issue.
5. Say that you cannot see how this information would be of any use to the group.
6. Say that it is none of their business.
7. Ask how they feel about you and about the way the group has been set up.
8. Say how you are feeling about their questioning (example: uncomfortable).
9. Answer the questions.
10. Ask why they are asking these questions.
11. Ask what they think might be going on in the group at the moment.
12. Describe how the group's attention has become concentrated on you.
13. Describe these questions as an expression of their concern about what is going to happen between you and them.
14. Suggest that they may be asking about you to avoid talking about their own thoughts and feelings.
15. Encourage them to talk about themselves.
16. Lead into a discussion of their family relationships and past experiences (example: ask if they would like to answer these same questions about themselves).
17. Encourage them to consider behaviors they may wish to change.

18. Ask them to express nonverbally how they feel about you and the group.
19. Ask one of the members to roleplay your position in the group.

Situation 3: The Chairman

Later in this first session, someone suggests that the group appoint a chairperson to conduct the meetings. This idea is received enthusiastically. They explain that this will permit the group to function in a more orderly fashion. Everyone appears to agree with the idea. What do you do?

1. Do nothing.
2. Say that you are willing to go along with whatever the group decides about this.
3. Agree that it is worth a try.
4. Direct attention away from this idea by bringing up another issue.
5. Recommend against the idea.
6. Say, "It's beginning to sound like a PTA meeting in here; I guess no one is really interested in group interaction."
7. Ask how they feel about the way the group has been set up.
8. Say how you are feeling about the discussion.
9. Share a similar experience in your own life.
10. Ask why it is important for the group to function "in an orderly fashion."
11. Say, "What happened that made us decide we need a chairman?"
12. Describe the group's feeling of enthusiasm about the idea.
13. Suggest that their interest in a chairman may be a way of dealing with the ambiguity of the group situation.
14. Interpret their discussion as resistance to becoming involved in the group.
15. Encourage them to talk about themselves.
16. Lead into a discussion of their family relationships and past experiences.
17. Encourage them to consider behaviors they may wish to change.
18. Ask them to express nonverbally how they feel about you and the others.
19. Ask them to roleplay how the group would be with a chairman.

Situation 4: A Filibuster

The group spends much of the second session talking about politics. No one appears displeased with the discussion, and it looks like it may continue for the remainder of the meeting. What do you do?

1. Do nothing.
2. Ask if they are satisfied with how the group is going today (say, “Is this really the way you want to use the time?”).
3. Join in the discussion.
4. Try to draw them into a more meaningful discussion without criticizing what they were doing.
5. Suggest that they talk about more immediate things.
6. Describe their discussion as cocktail party chatter.
7. Ask how they feel about what has been going on.
8. Say how you are feeling (example: bored).
9. Share an experience in your own life.
10. Ask why they are talking about politics.
11. Ask what they think might be going on in the group today.
12. Describe the group mood of avoidance and withdrawal.
13. Suggest that their interest in politics may have something to do with their concern about the interrelationship—or “politics”—within the group.
14. Suggest that they are discussing politics to avoid talking about more immediate thoughts and feelings.
15. Encourage them to talk about themselves.
16. Lead into a discussion of their family relationships and past experiences.
17. Encourage them to consider behaviors they may wish to change.
18. Use a nonverbal procedure to get things going.
19. Use a role-playing or psychodrama procedure.

Situation 5: An Attack on the Leader

After spending much of this second meeting talking about dieting and politics, the group suddenly turns on you, accusing you of being uninvolved, distant, and uncaring. What do you do?

1. Do nothing.
2. Say that it is up to them what happens in group, not you.
3. Talk in an approving way about the directness and honesty with which they are able to say how they feel.
4. Direct attention away from their attack by bringing up another issue.
5. Defend yourself—say that you do not see yourself as uninvolved and uncaring.
6. Describe them as a group of whiny complainers.

7. Ask how they feel when they are criticizing you in this way.
8. Say how you are feeling.
9. Share an experience in your own life.
10. Ask why they suddenly became angry with you.
11. Ask what they think might be going on in the group today.
12. Describe the group attitude of dissatisfaction with you.
13. Suggest that they are disappointed that you are not the inspirational and protective leader that they had wanted you to be.
14. Describe how you may be a scapegoat for their dissatisfaction with their own participation in the group.
15. Encourage them to relate this to what is happening in their lives outside the group.
16. Lead into a discussion of their family relationships and past experiences (example: suggest that you may be reminding them of people they have known).
17. Encourage them to use this situation to consider behaviors they may wish to change.
18. Use a nonverbal procedure (example: arm wrestling).
19. Suggest that they role play both how they see you and how they would want you to be.

Situation 6: A Group Silence

The third meeting begins with a silence. Several minutes pass and still no one says anything. It is beginning to look like the silence might continue for some time. What do you do?

1. Do nothing.
2. Ask if they are satisfied with how the group is going today.
3. Say that silences are often productive.
4. Help the group get started without making a special point about their silence (ask questions or bring up things to talk about).
5. Say that they are wasting time.
6. Remark that they look pretty foolish, sitting around waiting for someone else to say something.
7. Ask how they feel when everyone is silent.
8. Say how you are feeling or, possibly, laugh at the absurdity of the situation.
9. Share an experience in your own life.
10. Ask why everyone is silent.
11. Ask what they think might be going on in the group today.
12. Say that it seems that no one wants to talk today.

13. Say that each person appears to have resolved not to be the first to speak.
14. Interpret their silence as an expression of resentment about how the group is going.
15. Encourage them to talk about themselves.
16. Lead into a discussion of their family relationships and past experiences.
17. Encourage them to consider behaviors they may wish to change.
18. Encourage them to express themselves nonverbally.
19. Use a role-playing or psychodrama procedure to get things going.

Situation 7: A Distressed Woman

Later in this third meeting, one of the women describes how her boyfriend just told her that he wants to break off their relationship. She seems quite upset, skipping from one idea to another, and returning repetitively to the same few despairing thoughts. She has been looking directly at you from the beginning of her remarks, ignoring the rest of the group. When she finishes talking, she asks for your comments. What do you do?

1. Do nothing.
2. Redirect her question to the group (ask how the group might be able to help her).
3. Express interest in her and concern about her difficulties.
4. Try to draw the others into the discussion without making a point of the fact that she had left them out.
5. Suggest that she ask the group rather than you.
6. Accuse her of basking in self-pity.
7. Ask the members how they feel about what is going on.
8. Say how you are feeling.
9. Share a similar experience in your own life.
10. Ask why she is asking you.
11. Ask what they think might be going on in the group today.
12. Describe how the group has accepted the role of passive observer.
13. Suggest that her appeal for your undivided attention may be an attempt to regain the feeling of being valued and special, which she lost when her boyfriend rejected her.
14. Suggest that her preoccupation with being rejected is a way of not having to consider her own participation in the breakup.
15. Talk about her problems with her boyfriend, leading perhaps to a general exploration of her problems with intimacy.
16. Encourage her to relate this to her family relationships and past experiences.
17. Encourage her to discuss her problem in behavioral terms.
18. Use a nonverbal procedure to get at her underlying feelings.

19. Use a role-playing or psychodrama procedure to obtain a more here-and-now expression of what happens with her boyfriend.

Situation 8: The Late Arrival

It is the fourth meeting. One woman makes a dramatic entrance fifteen minutes late. Although she has done this before, no one says anything about it. What do you do?

1. Do nothing.
2. Ask why no one says anything about her coming late.
3. Give her attention and express interest in her.
4. Continue as if nothing out of the ordinary were happening.
5. Suggest that she try to get to group on time.
6. Accuse her of acting like a *prima donna*—coming to group late so that she can make a dramatic entrance with everyone watching.
7. Ask her and the rest of the group how they feel about her coming late.
8. Say how you are feeling.
9. Share a similar experience in your own life.
10. Ask her why she comes late.
11. Ask how her coming late might be related to what has been going on in the group as a whole.
12. Mention that she has been late several times.
13. Suggest that her role in the group involves making a grand entrance with everyone watching.
14. Suggest that she comes to group late in order to deny the important role that it plays in her life.
15. Ask if she usually comes late to things (perhaps this is the way she deals with situations).
16. Encourage her to relate this to her family relationships and past experiences.
17. Encourage her to use this situation to consider behavior she may wish to change.
18. Use a nonverbal procedure to get at the underlying feeling.
19. Ask another member to role play her entrance.

Situation 9: The Monopolizer

For several meetings now, the conversation has been monopolized by one of the women. Her monologues and interruptions interfere with the development of any kind of meaningful interchange. It is now part way into the fourth meeting. She has had the floor for most of this hour also. What do you do?

1. Do nothing.
2. Ask why they are letting her monopolize.
3. Talk in an approving way about the freedom with which she is able to assert herself in the group.
4. Direct remarks to others in an attempt to increase their participation.
5. Suggest that she limit her comments for a while to give others a chance.
6. Describe her as a long-winded and insensitive bore who always has to be in the spotlight.
7. Ask how they feel about one person doing most of the talking.
8. Say how you are feeling (example: irritated with her).
9. Share a similar experience in your own life.
10. Ask her why she is monopolizing.
11. Ask how they would describe what has been going on this meeting.
12. Comment on the group's attitude of passive resignation to what is going on.
13. Describe what is going on as a two-party interaction where she monopolizes while the others allow and perhaps even encourage her to do it.
14. Describe her need to control as a defense against her fear of being controlled or overwhelmed.
15. Ask if this kind of thing happens with her outside the group.
16. Encourage her to relate this behavior to her family relationships and past experiences.
17. Encourage her and the rest of the group to use this event to consider behaviors they may wish to change.
18. Use a nonverbal or Gestalt therapy procedure to try to get beyond her verbal defenses.
19. Ask another member to role play how she behaves in the group.

Situation 10: The Quiet Member

One of the men has said very little throughout the meetings, although he seems to follow with interest everything that has been happening. It is now the middle of the fourth session and some of the others are finally beginning to question him about his silence. He remains basically uncommunicative, however, and the group seems uncertain how to pursue the matter. What do you do?

1. Do nothing.
2. Even if they look to you for help, leave it to the group to deal with the situation.

3. Say that each person is free to decide when he wants to talk, adding that you would like to hear from him when he does feel like talking.
4. Encourage him to speak but without making a point of his silence (example: ask for his opinion about the group).
5. Tell him that he is not going to get much out of the group if he does not put much into it.
6. Try to get him to react (example: accuse him of being a parasite, sitting back and living off others).
7. Ask how he feels about what the group is saying to him and ask how they feel about his reaction to their remarks.
8. Say how you are feeling.
9. Share a similar experience in your own life.
10. Ask him why he has been silent and ask the others why they object to his silence.
11. Ask how they would describe what has been going on in the group today.
12. Describe how the group seems uncertain about how to discuss this with him.
13. Describe the nonverbal ways in which he interacts with others—eye contact, laughter, attentive expression.
14. Interpret his silence as an expression of tension and anxiety about the group.
15. Encourage him to talk about himself (example: ask if he is usually quiet in group situations).
16. Encourage him to relate his behavior to his family relationships and past experiences.
17. Encourage him to use this situation to consider behaviors he may wish to change.
18. Encourage him to express himself nonverbally.
19. Ask him to role play an important situation in his life.

Situation 11: A Threat To Quit

Near the beginning of the fifth meeting, one of the women announces that she is going to quit the group. The others are upset by this and try to talk her out of it. She remains resolute, however, and stands up to leave. She pauses briefly at the door, as if waiting to see if anyone has any final comments. The others just sit there, not knowing what to do. What do you do?

1. Do nothing.
2. Ask what they want to do about the situation.
3. Say that you have enjoyed her being in the group and would be sorry if she left.
4. Draw her into a conversation without making an issue of the fact that she was about to leave.

5. Suggest that she give the group more of a try before making any final decisions.
6. Accuse her of using an obvious play to get the attention of the group.
7. Ask her and the group how they feel about her leaving.
8. Say how you are feeling (example: abandoned).
9. Share a similar experience in your own life.
10. Ask why she wants to leave now, right in the middle of the meeting.
11. Ask how her wanting to leave might be related to what is happening in the group as a whole.
12. Describe how everyone seems confused and uncertain what to do.
13. Interpret their concern and confusion about her leaving as a fear that this may be the beginning of the dissolution of the whole group.
14. Suggest that she wants to stop because she is afraid of becoming involved in the group.
15. Ask if this kind of thing has happened with her before (perhaps quitting is her way of dealing with threatening situations).
16. Encourage her to relate her desire to quit to her family relationships and past experiences (perhaps the group reminds her of her family situation).
17. Encourage her and the others to use this event to consider behaviors they may wish to change.
18. Ask her to express nonverbally how she feels toward each member.
19. Use a role-playing or psychodrama procedure.

Situation 12: Marital Problem

Later in this fifth meeting, one of the men talks about his marital problems. The others offer numerous suggestions. He listens to each of them one at a time and then explains why that particular suggestion will not work. What do you do?

1. Do nothing.
2. If they ask your opinion, reflect the question back to the group.
3. Show interest in him and express concern about his difficulties.
4. Seeing the interaction as a stalemate, bring up another issue for discussion.
5. Describe the interaction as a stalemate and suggest that they talk about something else.
6. Criticize him for not seriously considering his problem and wasting the group's time.
7. Ask how he feels about the group response to his problem and ask how they feel about his reaction to their suggestions.

8. Say how you are feeling.
9. Share a similar experience in your own life.
10. Ask him why he rejects all their suggestions and ask them why they are giving so much advice.
11. Ask what they think is going on in the group today.
12. Describe the eagerness with which they are giving him advice.
13. Describe how he asks for help and then rejects all the suggestions.
14. Describe how he is the focus around which all the other members are projecting their own problems; suggest that their advice may have more to do with them than it does with him.
15. Try to help him understand what happens between him and his wife.
16. Encourage him to relate this to his family relationships and past experiences (perhaps his difficulties with his wife have something to do with his feelings toward his mother).
17. Encourage him to talk about the problem in behavioral terms.
18. Use a nonverbal procedure.
19. Use a role-playing or psychodrama procedure to obtain a more here-and-now expression of what happens with his wife.

Situation 13: The Return of the Absent Member

A member who had been absent the two previous meetings arrives on time for the sixth meeting. It is now well into this meeting and neither he nor any of the others has mentioned his absences. What do you do?

1. Do nothing.
2. Ask why no one has said anything about his absences.
3. Say that it is good to see him again, that you were concerned when he missed two meetings that he might have dropped out of the group entirely.
4. Seeing his absences as a sign of lack of involvement with the group, try to draw him into the group conversation, but without referring to these absences.
5. Talk about the importance of coming to every meeting.
6. Comment on his halfhearted commitment to the group; say that you doubt that he has ever really been committed to anything.
7. Ask him and the others how they feel about his returning after missing two meetings.
8. Say how you are feeling.
9. Share a similar experience in your own life.

10. Ask him why he missed these two meetings.
11. Ask how his missing two meetings might be related to what has been going on in the group as a whole.
12. Mention that he missed the two previous meetings.
13. Say that there seems to be an unspoken compact among the members not to talk about such events.
14. Interpret his absence as an expression of anxiety about the group.
15. Ask him what is happening in his life that may have caused him to miss those two meetings.
16. Encourage him to relate his absences to his family relationships and past experiences.
17. Encourage him to use this event to consider behavior he may wish to change.
18. Use a nonverbal procedure to get at the underlying feelings.
19. Ask him to role play an important situation in his life.

Situation 14: A Member Cries

It is the middle of the sixth meeting. A woman who had been unusually silent for the first half of this meeting, makes a brief attempt to fight back tears and then begins to cry. No one says anything about it. What do you do?

1. Do nothing.
2. Ask why no one has said anything about the fact that someone is crying.
3. Express concern and reassurance.
4. Continue as if nothing out of the ordinary were happening.
5. Suggest that it might be more useful for her to talk than just to cry.
6. Accuse her of putting on a show.
7. Ask about feelings (examples: encourage her to give words to her feelings; ask the members how they feel about her crying).
8. Say how you are feeling (examples: moved, embarrassed).
9. Share a similar experience in your own life.
10. Ask her why she is crying (ask what's the matter).
11. Ask them to describe what is happening at that meeting.
12. Say that someone in the group is crying.
13. Describe her crying as an act of involvement in the group and a willingness to share her more private feelings with them.
14. Suggest that she may feel that the only time people are willing to listen and pay attention to her is when she is crying.

15. Encourage her to talk about the events in her life that may be upsetting her.
16. Encourage her to relate what she is feeling to her family relationships and past experiences.
17. Encourage her to talk about her difficulties in behavioral terms.
18. Use a nonverbal procedure to explore the rich emotional experience of crying.
19. Ask her to role play the situation that her crying is about.

Situation 15: The Grumpy Group

Meeting seven is characterized by a general mood of irritability and negativism. A person can scarcely start talking before another interrupts to say that he is bored. No one seems pleased about anything. The warm, involved mood at the end of the previous meeting seems completely forgotten. What do you do?

1. Do nothing.
2. Ask if they are satisfied with how the group is going today.
3. Reassure them that most groups have occasional meetings like this one.
4. Try to emphasize more positive feelings, both in your own remarks and those of others.
5. Suggest that they use the time more constructively.
6. Describe them as a group of irritable old men.
7. Ask how they feel about the meeting.
8. Say how you are feeling.
9. Share a similar experience in your own life.
10. Ask why everyone is being negative.
11. Ask what they think might be going on in the group today.
12. Describe the group's mood of negativism and irritability.
13. Say that there seems to be an unspoken understanding among the members to disagree with everything.
14. Describe their irritability as a reaction to the warm involvement of the previous meeting.
15. Encourage them to relate their grumpy mood to what is happening in their lives outside the group.
16. Encourage them to relate their behavior to their family relationships and past experiences.
17. Encourage them to use this situation to consider behaviors they may wish to change.
18. Use a nonverbal procedure to get at the underlying feeling.
19. Use a role-playing or psychodrama procedure.

Situation 16: The Polite Group

The eighth meeting begins in a mood of superficial agreeableness. Everyone is being extra polite. Rambling remarks, evasive comments, behavior that ordinarily would immediately be challenged is being tolerated. It is clear that the group is protecting itself against any possible expression of aggressive feeling. What do you do?

1. Do nothing.
2. Ask if they are satisfied with how the group is going today.
3. Join in whatever they are discussing.
4. Try to draw them into a more meaningful discussion.
5. Suggest that they get down to real feelings.
6. Be aggressive yourself—criticize the group for tiptoeing around.
7. Ask how they feel about what has been going on.
8. Say how you are feeling.
9. Share similar experiences in your own life.
10. Ask why everyone is being so polite.
11. Ask what they think might be going on in the group today.
12. Describe the group mood of politeness.
13. Say that there seems to be an unspoken agreement among the members to be polite and avoid anything that might rock the boat.
14. Suggest that all this politeness is a reaction against the anger of the previous meeting.
15. Encourage them to relate this to what is happening in their lives outside the group.
16. Lead into a discussion of their family relationships and past experiences.
17. Encourage them to use the situation to consider behaviors they may wish to change.
18. Use a nonverbal procedure to get at the underlying feeling.
19. Use a role-playing or psychodrama procedure.

Situation 17: A Group Attack

Throughout the meetings, one of the men had been insisting that he has no problems. In the middle of this eighth meeting, the group attacks him for “hiding behind a mask.” At the present moment the whole interaction seems to be gaining in intensity. He responds to their accusations by increasing his denial; they respond to his denial by increasing their attack. You are not sure how he is being affected by it. What do you do?

1. Do nothing.
2. Even if they ask for your advice, let whatever happens happen.
3. Say that each person has the right to be the kind of person he wants to be.

4. Direct attention away from their attack by bringing up another issue.
5. Say that he is not going to get anything out of group if he does not put anything into it.
6. Join in on the attack.
7. Ask how he feels about what they are saying and how they feel about what he is saying.
8. Say how you are feeling.
9. Share an experience in your own life.
10. Ask why they are attacking and why he is denying.
11. Ask what they think might be going on in the group today.
12. Comment on the intensity of the argument between him and the rest of the group.
13. Describe the interaction as a standoff—they respond to his intellectualizing with increased attack, and he responds to their attack with increased intellectualizing.
14. Describe his denial as resistance to becoming involved in the group and describe the group's attack as an attempt to force him to become involved.
15. Ask if the kind of thing happening in the group now ever occurs in his life outside the group.
16. Encourage him to relate these group events to his family relationships and past experiences.
17. Encourage him and the others to use this event to consider behaviors they may wish to change.
18. Ask him and the others to express nonverbally how they feel toward one another.
19. Suggest that he and another member role play each other's side in the argument.

Situation 18: A Member Comes Drunk

A man who has been relatively quiet in the two previous meetings comes to session nine drunk. He is mildly disruptive, laughing and singing to himself, and occasionally breaking in when others are talking. What do you do?

1. Do nothing.
2. Ask what they want to do about the situation.
3. Show interest in him and express concern about his difficulties (say that he must have been feeling pretty lonely and depressed).
4. Continue as if nothing out of the ordinary were happening.
5. Ask him to leave and come back when he isn't drunk.
6. Accuse him of behaving like a baby.
7. Ask how they feel about what is happening.

8. Say how you are feeling.
9. Share a similar experience in your own life.
10. Ask him why he came to the meeting drunk.
11. Ask how they would describe what has been going on in the meeting.
12. Describe his effect on the mood of the group.
13. Suggest that he may be trying to tell the group something that he could not say in other ways.
14. Describe his behavior as an expression of anxiety about what has been happening in the group.
15. Encourage him to talk about the events in his life that may be troubling him.
16. Encourage him to relate his behavior to his family relationships and past experiences.
17. Encourage him to talk about his difficulties in behavioral terms.
18. Ask him to express nonverbally how he feels about you and the others.
19. Ask another member to role play the drunk member's behavior.

Situation 19: A Side Conversation

The group had been spending much of this ninth meeting talking about one of the women, when another woman turns to a man sitting next to her and, disregarding the main conversation, starts a competing side conversation. Her talking is a discourtesy and interferes with the main discussion. She continues for several minutes and gives no sign of stopping. What do you do?

1. Do nothing.
2. Ask why no one has said anything about the two conversations.
3. Talk in an approving way about the engaged, intense, and spirited quality of the group interaction.
4. Draw her into the main discussion by inviting her to tell the whole group what she is talking about.
5. Ask that there be only one conversation at a time.
6. Say that it sounds like a nursery school—everyone wants to talk and no one wants to listen.
7. Ask how they feel when there are two conversations going on.
8. Say how you are feeling.
9. Share a similar experience in your own life.
10. Ask her why she is starting a second conversation.
11. Ask how they would describe what has been going on.

12. Say that there are two conversations going on.
13. Describe her side conversation as an expression of jealousy.
14. Describe her interruption as the expression of an underlying fear of being ignored and abandoned.
15. Encourage the interrupting member to talk about herself (perhaps her behavior is a reflection of difficulties she is having in her life outside the group).
16. Encourage her to relate these group events to her family relationships and past experiences (perhaps she felt left out in her family).
17. Encourage her to use this event to consider behavior she may wish to change.
18. Ask her to express nonverbally how she feels toward each person.
19. Ask them to exchange roles and repeat the interaction.

Situation 20: The Fight

Later in this ninth session, two men get into a heated argument over a minor point. The real reason for the argument appears to be their rivalry for the attention of one of the women. Finally one of the men jumps up, enraged, and threatens to hit the other. What do you do?

1. Do nothing.
2. Ask the members what they want to do about the situation.
3. Comment on the willingness with which these men are able to accept their aggressive feelings.
4. Defuse the situation by redirecting the group's attention to another issue.
5. Say that physical violence is not allowed in group.
6. Tell him to sit down, shut up, and stop acting like a child.
7. Ask about feelings (examples: ask the two men and the woman how they feel about one another; ask the members how they feel about what is going on).
8. Say how you are feeling.
9. Share a similar experience in your own life.
10. Ask the two why they are doing what they are doing.
11. Ask what they think might be going on between these two men.
12. Describe the mood of tension in the group.
13. Attribute the argument to competition between the two men for the attention of this woman.
14. Describe his aggressive behavior as a defense against his more passive and dependent feelings.

15. Encourage the threatening member to talk about himself (perhaps his behavior is a reflection of difficulties he is having in his life outside the group).
16. Encourage him to relate these group events to his family relationships and past experiences.
17. Encourage him and the rest of the group to use this event to consider behaviors they may wish to change.
18. Use a nonverbal procedure (example: arm wrestling).
19. Ask other members to role play the interaction between the two men.

Situation 21: The Sexualized Meeting

The tenth meeting begins in a mood of seductiveness. At the center of the interaction is a girl who, for several meetings now, has repeated a pattern of flirting with a man until he begins to show interest in her. In the present meeting, she has just stopped flirting with one man and has begun with another. Everyone seems to be taking part in the sexual mood, if not as an active participant, at least as a fascinated observer. What do you do?

1. Do nothing.
2. Ask if they are satisfied with how the group is going today.
3. Talk in an approving way about the intensity with which everyone seems to be involved.
4. Seeing the interaction as a stalemate, lead the group in another direction.
5. Suggest that they talk about what is going on rather than simply continuing to do it.
6. Accuse her of being a flirt who is basically afraid of men.
7. Ask about feelings (examples: ask the three major participants how they feel about one another; ask the members how they feel about what is going on).
8. Say how you are feeling (example: fascinated).
9. Share a similar experience in your own life.
10. Ask her why she is flirting the way she is.
11. Ask what they think might be going on among these three.
12. Describe the mood of seductiveness in the group.
13. Describe how the whole group seems to be fascinated by the interaction among the three.
14. Suggest that she flirts with different men because she is afraid of involvement with any one.
15. Ask if this is the way she relates to men outside the group.
16. Encourage her and the others to relate these group events to their family relationships and past experiences.

17. Encourage them to use this event to consider behaviors they may wish to change.
18. Ask them to express nonverbally how they feel about one another.
19. Suggest that the three change roles and repeat the interaction.

GROUP LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE (GTQ-C) ANSWER SHEET

	Name	Date	Group
Situ- ation	1. <i>All</i> of the responses you might consider making as leader.	2. The <i>one</i> response you feel is most important to make.	3. A response you might make that is not included on the list.
1			
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GROUP LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE (GTQ-C) SCORING INSTRUCTIONS AND INTERPRETATION SUGGESTIONS

Scoring: There are nineteen leadership scales in the GTQ-C . The items are arranged so that the nineteen types of responses are in the same order for each. On the answer sheet, tally the number of times you put the number 1 in Column 1 and record the number below in front of leadership scale 1, Silence. Then count the number of times you have the number 2 in Column 1 and record that number in front of leadership scale 2, Group-Directed. Follow this procedure for each of the other seventeen scales. Then repeat the procedure for Column 2.

1. All of the responses you might consider making as leader.	2. The <i>one</i> response you feel is most important to make.		Leadership Scale
Tally	Tally		
_____	_____	1. O	Silence
_____	_____	2. GD	Group-Directed
_____	_____	3. RA	Reassurance-Approval
_____	_____	4. SG	Subtle Guidance
_____	_____	5. S	Structure
_____	_____	6. A	Attack
_____	_____	7. MF	Member Feeling
_____	_____	8. LF	Leader Feeling
_____	_____	9. LE	Leader Experience
_____	_____	10. CQ	Clarification-Confrontation Question
_____	_____	11. GQ	Group Dynamics Question
_____	_____	12. GA	Group Atmosphere Interpretation
_____	_____	13. GI	Group Dynamics Interpretation
_____	_____	14. PI	Psychodynamic Interpretation
_____	_____	15. PL	Personal Life
_____	_____	16. PP	Past and Parents
_____	_____	17. BC	Behavioral Change
_____	_____	18. NV	Nonverbal
_____	_____	19. RP	Role Playing

LEADERSHIP SCALE COMBINATIONS

Potentially Useful Combinations of the Basic Nineteen Leadership Scales

1. GN Group Initiation	1 + 2	O + GD
2. EH Easy Hand	3 + 4	RA + SG
3. HH Heavy Hand	5 + 6	S + A
4. CF Confront	5 + 6 + 10	S + A + CQ
5. CT Control	4 + 5 + 6	SG + S + A
6. F Feeling	7 + 8	MF + LF
7. SD Self-Disclosure	8 + 9	LF + LE
8. WW What-Why	10 + 11	CQ + GQ
9. Q Question	7 + 10 + 11	MF + CQ + GQ
10. GY Group Dynamics	11 + 12 + 13	GQ + GA + GI
11. CC Group Dynamics	7 + 11 + 12 + 13	GD + GQ + GA + GI
12. I Interpretation	12 + 13 + 14	GA + GI + PI
13. OG Outside Group	15 + 16	PL + PP
14. IC Individual Centered	15 + 16 + 17	PL + PP + BC
15. NS New School	17 + 18 + 19	BC + NV + RP
16. AO Activity Oriented	18 + 19	NV + RP

Potentially Useful Comparisons Between Scales and Combined Scales

Nondirective-

Directive	1 + 2	: 4 + 5 + 6	GN : SG + S + A
Ask-Tell	7 + 10 + 11	: 8 + 9 + 12 + 13 + 14	Q : SD + I
	10 + 11	: 12 + 13 + 14	WW : I
	7	: 8	MF : LF
Confront-Reassure	5 + 6 + 10	: 3	CF : RA
Group-Individual	2 + 11 + 12 + 13	: 15 + 16 + 17	GC : IC

■ ORGANIZATIONAL ROLE STRESS

Udai Pareek

Executive burnout is often the end result of stress experienced, but not properly coped with, by an executive. Burnout symptoms include exhaustion, irritation, ineffectiveness, inaction, discounting of self and others, and problems of bad health and drug use. On the other hand, stress properly coped with can lead to feelings of challenge, high job satisfaction, creativity, effectiveness, better adjustment to work and life, improved efficiency, career growth, and happiness. It is useful to look at the factors that contribute to the burnout of executives, and one of the most significant is role stress.

THE CONCEPT OF ROLE

The concept of “role” is key to understanding how any individual functions in any system. It is through his or her role that an individual interacts with and is integrated into a system (Pareek, 1976). Role has been defined in several ways. Here, it is defined as any position one holds in an organization as defined by the expectations various significant persons, including oneself, have for that position (Pareek, 1976). “Function” is defined as the set of interrelated expectations from a role. As here defined, sales manager is a role, while developing the sales force and customer contacts are functions.

Some conflict is always present because the very nature of role has built-in potential for conflict or stress. The main characteristic of role conflict is the incompatibility of some variables related to the role. Buck (1972) defines “job pressure” as the resultant psychological state of the individual who perceives that (1) conflicting forces and incompatible commitments exist in connection with work, (2) at least one of the forces is coming from outside, and (3) the forces recur or are stable over time.

Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, and Rosenthal (1964) were the first to draw attention to organizational stress in general and role stress in particular. As suggested by Katz and Kahn (1966), an organization can be defined as a system of roles. Kahn and his associates used three categories (role ambiguity, role conflict, and role overload) to define role stress. This classification has been used by many other researchers. However, because each role is also a system of functions, from the point of view of individuals, two aspects of their roles are most important: role set, the role system within the organization of which roles are a part and by which individual roles are defined, and role space, the roles people occupy and perform.

Because the concept of role is inextricably linked with expectations, the organizational context is especially important. For example, authoritarian organizational structure and control systems are potent sources of stress because they breed

dependency, afford little scope for initiative and creativity, and channel behaviors along narrowly defined paths. Many variables are involved, including oneself, the other roles in the organization, the expectations held by those in other roles, and one's own expectations.

USING THIS INSTRUMENT

Many classification systems have been used to describe role conflict and role stress. The Organizational Role Stress Scale was developed as one way to categorize role stress in terms of role space and role set. The instrument measures role-space conflict in terms of interrole distance (IRD), role stagnation (RS), role-expectations conflict (REC), personal inadequacy (PI) and self/role conflict (S/RC). Role-set conflict is measured in terms of role erosion (RE), role overload (RO), role isolation (RIs), role ambiguity (RA), and resource inadequacy (RIn). Definitions of these terms have been developed as follows:

Role-Space Conflicts

Interrole Distance. Conflicts may exist between two roles a person attempts to play. For example, executives often face conflicts between their organizational roles and their family roles. These may be incompatible and are quite frequently a source of conflict in a society in which people increasingly occupy multiple roles in various organizations and groups.

Role Stagnation. People “grow into” the roles they occupy in an organization. As they advance, their roles change and there is always a need to take on a new role for personal challenge. The problem is especially acute when a person has occupied a role for a long time and may feel secure and, therefore, hesitate to take on a new challenge. At middle age, and usually at middle-management levels, careers become more problematic, and many executives find their progress slowed, if not actually stopped. Job opportunities are fewer, those jobs that are available take longer to master, and old knowledge and methods become obsolete. Levinson (1973) and Constandse (1972) depict these managers as suffering fear and disappointment in silent isolation.

Role-Expectations Conflict. Because individuals develop expectations as a result of their socialization and identification with significant others, there is usually some incompatibility between a person's own expectations of a role and the expectations of others. For example, a professor may feel that the demands of teaching and of doing research are incompatible, whether they are or not. Others in the organization also are very likely have expectations of the person filling the role that conflict with the person's own.

Personal Inadequacy. If an individual has sacrificed his or her own interests, preferences, and values for the job, it may be because of fears of being inadequate otherwise to fill the role. The fear of demotion or obsolescence is especially strong for those who have reached a career ceiling, and most people will suffer some erosion of status before they retire. The company tends to sense an employee's feelings of

inadequacy and often hesitates to promote because of it. McMurray (1973) describes what he calls “the executive neurosis”: the overpromoted manager who is grossly overworked just in order to keep the job and, at the same time, hide a sense of insecurity and feelings of personal inadequacy.

Self/Role Conflict. Conflict often develops between people’s self-concepts and their expectations of themselves in their job roles. For example, an introverted person may have trouble in the role of salesperson. It is also fairly common for people to experience conflict between the way they treat others in everyday life and the way they are required to treat others in their organizational roles, where maintaining distance from others may be necessary. Such conflicts are very common.

Role-Set Conflicts

Role Erosion. Employees often feel that some functions important to their roles are being performed by someone in another role. Role erosion is likely to be experienced in an organization that is redefining roles and creating new roles. As much stress is experienced by people with not enough to do or not enough responsibility for a task as by those with too much to do. People do not enjoy feeling underutilized.

Role Overload. On the other hand, when the role occupant feels that there are too many expectations, stress exists from “role overload” (Kahn et al., 1964). Kahn and Quinn (1970) suggested some conditions under which role overload is likely to occur: in the absence of role integration; in the absence of role power; when large variations exist in expected output; and when duties cannot be delegated. Marshall and Cooper (1979) categorized overload into “quantitative” and “qualitative.” Quantitative refers to having too much to do, and qualitative refers to work that is too difficult. A number of studies have shown (Breslow & Buell, 1960; French & Caplan, 1970; Margolis, Kroes, & Quinn, 1974; Miller, 1969; and Russek & Zohman, 1958) that quantitative overload is significantly related to a number of symptoms of stress: alcohol abuse, absenteeism, low motivation, lowered self-esteem, and many physical ailments. Some evidence also shows that (for some occupations) qualitative overload is a significant source of stress and of lowered self-esteem (French, Tupper, & Mueller, 1965). French and Caplan (1973) summarize the research by suggesting that both qualitative and quantitative overload produce at least nine different symptoms of psychological and physical strain: job dissatisfaction, job tension, lowered self-esteem, paranoia, embarrassment, high cholesterol levels, rapid heart rate, and increased smoking.

Role Isolation. Role occupants tend to feel that those occupying other roles are either psychologically near or at a distance. The main criterion of perceived role-role distance is frequency and ease of interaction. When linkages are strong, the role-role distance is seen as low. In the absence of strong linkage, the role distance can be measured in terms of the gap between the desired and the existing linkages. Both Kahn et al. (1964) and French and Caplan (1970) came to the conclusion that mistrust of persons one worked with was positively related to high role ambiguity and to low job satisfaction.

Role Ambiguity. When people are not clear about the expectations others have of them in their roles, whether due to poor feedback or poor understanding, they experience role ambiguity. Kahn and Quinn (1970) suggested that role ambiguity may be in relation to activities, responsibilities, personal style, and norms. They suggest that it was created by the actual expectations held for the role occupant by others, the expectations of the role occupant, and the expectations the role occupant receives and interprets in the light of prior information and experience. According to Kahn and Quinn, four kinds of roles are most likely to experience ambiguity: roles new to the organization, roles in expanding or contracting organizations, roles in organizations exposed to frequent changes in demand, and roles concerned with process.

Kahn et al. (1964) found that people who suffered from role ambiguity experienced low job satisfaction, high job-related tension, a sense of futility, and low self-confidence. Kahn (1973) distinguished two components of role ambiguity: present ambiguity and future-prospect ambiguity.

Resource Inadequacy. Resource inadequacy refers to people's feeling that they do not have adequate resources to perform their roles effectively, whether through lack of supplies, personnel, information in the system, or historical data, or through lack of knowledge, education, or experience on their own.

The author's surveys using this instrument have shown that senior managers experience role stress in the following order: role isolation, self/role conflict, role erosion, and interrole distance and that middle managers tend to experience more role stagnation (for more details, see Pareek, 1982).

RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

Retest-reliability coefficients were calculated for a group of about five hundred managers after an interval of eight weeks. These ranged from .37 to .73 for the various role stresses. All were significant at the .001 level. Therefore, the Organizational Role Stress Scale would appear to be reliable for training purposes.

Some evidence of validity is provided by the measure of consistency of an instrument. Each item was correlated with the total score on the instrument for the approximately five-hundred respondents. All but two correlations were significant at the .001 level: one at .002 and another at .008. The results show high internal consistency for the scale. Mean and standard-deviation values of the items also were analyzed. The lowest mean value was 2.42 and the highest was 4.66. The two items that had low correlation with the total had high mean values.

The responses also were factor analyzed, which produced exactly ten factors, corresponding to the ten role stresses, explaining 99.9 percent variance.

SCORING THE INSTRUMENT

The instrument has an accompanying scoring sheet. The responses are ratings from a five-point Likert scale that indicates how descriptive a particular statement is for the respondent. The role-stress scale-score range is from a minimum of 5 to a maximum of 25. The total score ranges from 50 to 250. The columns are to be totalled to yield scale scores, and the columns are summed to yield a total score.

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ORGANIZATIONAL ROLE STRESS SCALE

Udai Pareek

Name _____ Title _____

Date _____ Organization _____

Instructions: People have different perceptions of their work roles. Some statements describing such perceptions are listed below. Read each statement and decide how often you have the thought expressed in the statement in relation to your role in your organization. Circle the number on the scale that indicates your perception of your organizational role.

If you find that none of the categories given adequately indicates your opinion, use the one that is closest to your perception.

- 1 - **Never or scarcely ever** see things this way
- 2 - **Occasionally** (a few times) see things this way
- 3 - **Sometimes** see things this way
- 4 - **Frequently** see things this way
- 5 - **Very frequently or always** see things this way

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. My role tends to interfere with my family life. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. I am afraid that I am not learning enough in my present role to prepare myself for higher responsibility. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. I am not able to satisfy the conflicting demands of various people who are over me in the organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. My role recently has been reduced in importance. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. My work load is too heavy. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. Other role occupants do not give enough attention and time to my role. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. I do not have adequate knowledge to handle the responsibilities in my role. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. I have to do things in my role that are against my better judgment. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. I am not clear about the scope and responsibilities of my role (job). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. I do not receive the information that is needed to carry out the responsibilities assigned to me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

- 1 - **Never or scarcely ever** see things this way
 2 - **Occasionally** (a few times) see things this way
 3 - **Sometimes** see things this way
 4 - **Frequently** see things this way
 5 - **Very frequently or always** see things this way
- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 11. My role does not allow me to spend enough time with my family. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. I am too preoccupied with my present role responsibilities to be able to prepare for taking on greater responsibilities. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. I am not able to satisfy the conflicting demands of the various people at my peer level and of my subordinates. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. Many of the functions that should be part of my role have been assigned to other roles. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. The amount of work that I have to do interferes with the quality I want to maintain. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. There is not enough interaction between my role and other roles. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. I wish I had more skills to handle the responsibilities of my role. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. I am not able to use my training and expertise in my role. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. I do not know what the people with whom I work expect of me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. I do not have access to enough resources to be effective in my role. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. I have various other interests (social, religious, etc.,) that are neglected because I do not have the time to attend to them. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. I do not have the time or opportunities to prepare myself for the future challenges of my role. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23. I am not able to satisfy the demands of clients and others because they conflict with one another. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24. I would like to take more responsibility than I have at present. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

- 1 - **Never or scarcely ever** see things this way
 2 - **Occasionally** (a few times) see things this way
 3 - **Sometimes** see things this way
 4 - **Frequently** see things this way
 5 - **Very frequently or always** see things this way

25.	I have been given too much responsibility.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	I wish there were more consultation between my role and other roles.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	I have not had pertinent training for my role.	1	2	3	4	5
28.	The responsibilities I have are not related to my interests.	1	2	3	4	5
29.	Several aspects of my role are vague and unclear.	1	2	3	4	5
30.	I do not have enough people to work with me in my role.	1	2	3	4	5
31.	My organizational responsibilities interfere with my nonwork roles.	1	2	3	4	5
32.	There is very little room for personal growth in my role.	1	2	3	4	5
33.	The expectations of my seniors conflict with those of my subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5
34.	I can do much more than what I have been assigned.	1	2	3	4	5
35.	There is a need to reduce some parts of my role.	1	2	3	4	5
36.	There is no evidence of involvement of several roles (including my role) in joint problem solving or collaboration in planning action.	1	2	3	4	5
37.	I wish that I had prepared myself well for my role.	1	2	3	4	5
38.	If I had full freedom to define my role, I would be doing some things differently from the ways I do them now.	1	2	3	4	5
39.	My role has not been defined clearly and in detail.	1	2	3	4	5
40.	I am worried that I lack the necessary resources needed in my role.	1	2	3	4	5
41.	My family and friends complain that I do not spend time with them because of the heavy demands of my work role.	1	2	3	4	5
42.	I feel stagnant in my role.	1	2	3	4	5

- 1 - **Never or scarcely ever** see things this way
 2 - **Occasionally** (a few times) see things this way
 3 - **Sometimes** see things this way
 4 - **Frequently** see things this way
 5 - **Very frequently or always** see things this way
43. I am bothered with the contradictory expectations that different people have of my role. 1 2 3 4 5
44. I wish that I would be given more challenging tasks to do. 1 2 3 4 5
45. I feel overburdened in my role. 1 2 3 4 5
46. Even when I take initiative for discussions or help, there is not much response from other roles. 1 2 3 4 5
47. I feel inadequate for my present job role. 1 2 3 4 5
48. I experience conflict between my values and what I have to do in my job role. 1 2 3 4 5
49. I am not clear about what the priorities are in my role. 1 2 3 4 5
50. I wish that I had more financial resources for the work assigned to me. 1 2 3 4 5

ORGANIZATIONAL ROLE STRESS SCALE SCORING SHEET

Instructions: Enter your scores from the Organizational Role Stress Scale in the spaces provided below.

1. _____	2. _____	3. _____	4. _____	5. _____
11. _____	12. _____	13. _____	14. _____	15. _____
21. _____	22. _____	23. _____	24. _____	25. _____
31. _____	32. _____	33. _____	34. _____	35. _____
41. _____	42. _____	43. _____	44. _____	45. _____

TOTALS

_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
IRD: Inter-Role Distance	RS: Role Stagnation	REC: Role- Expectations Conflict	RE: Role Erosion	RO: Role Overload

6. _____	7. _____	8. _____	9. _____	10. _____
16. _____	17. _____	18. _____	19. _____	20. _____
26. _____	27. _____	28. _____	29. _____	30. _____
36. _____	37. _____	38. _____	39. _____	40. _____
46. _____	47. _____	48. _____	49. _____	50. _____

TOTALS

_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
RI: Role Isolation	PI: Personal Inadequacy	S/RC: Self/Role Conflict	RA: Role Ambiguity	RIn: Resource Inadequacy

**GRAND
TOTAL**

Definitions:

- IRD— *Interrole Distance*: conflict between one's organizational role and other roles, e.g., between travel on the job and spending time with one's family.
- RS— *Role Stagnation*: a feeling of stagnation and lack of growth in the job because of few opportunities for learning and growth.
- REC— *Role-Expectations Conflict*: conflicting demands placed on one from others in the organization, e.g., producing excellent work but finishing under severe time restraints.
- RE— *Role Erosion*: a decrease in one's level of responsibility or a feeling of not being fully utilized.
- RO— *Role Overload*: too much to do and too many responsibilities to do everything well.
- RI— *Role Isolation*: feelings of being isolated from channels of information and not being part of what is happening.
- PI— *Personal Inadequacy*: lack of knowledge, skill, or preparation to be effective in a particular role.
- S/RC— *Self/Role Conflict*: a conflict between one's personal values or interests and one's job requirements.
- RA— *Role Ambiguity*: unclear feedback from others about one's responsibilities and performance.
- RIn— *Resource Inadequacy*: lack of resources or information necessary to perform well in a role.

■ QUALITY OF WORK LIFE-CONDITIONS/FEELINGS (QWL-C/F)

Marshall Sashkin and Joseph J. Lengermann

INTRODUCTION

Since the studies of worker motivation done by Herzberg and his associates (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959), an awareness slowly has developed of the effects of job design on workers. This has been accompanied by some practical knowledge of how to modify or alter pertinent job conditions. The Quality of Work Life-Conditions/Feelings (QWL-C/F) instrument is an effort to provide a sound basis for designing or redesigning work settings. The basic viewpoint differs from that of Herzberg or Hackman and Oldham (1980), who studied individual psychological work needs and motivation to work.

The QWL-C/F is the result of a ten-year research program that is based on classical sociological analyses of the relation between work and workers in society. These approaches suggest that workers become alienated from their work when the work has little inherent meaning—such as repetition of the same minute set of actions over and over—or denies the worker control, or power, over his or her own actions. These conditions lead to subjective feelings of alienation that sociologists call “self-estrangement”—feelings of being cut off from one’s own true working self (Blauner, 1964).

In 1970, several research projects were initiated to empirically examine the relations between alienating job conditions—which we now refer to as “quality of work life conditions”—and workers’ self-estrangement, which we call “quality of work life feelings.” The striking results led to a series of studies involving computer operators, clerical workers, machine operators, and medical technologists (Kirsch & Lengermann, 1971; Maurer, 1972). This work continues in order to explore effects over time; however, the instrument that was developed during the process of research now has enough evidence of validity to be generally useful (Wilmoth, 1983).

The QWL-C/F consists of two short instruments: the first measures how well three, basic, human work needs are met by objective job conditions; the second provides one score representing the respondent’s overall feeling of separation or alienation from his or her own work self. The three, basic, human work needs—need for autonomy or control, need for a “whole” meaningful job, and need for interpersonal contact in the context of doing the job—are described in detail by Sashkin and Morris (1984) and derive from social science research (Marx, 1961; Durkheim, 1893/1947; Mayo, 1933).

FACTORS

A series of factor analyses successfully identified several sets of items on the QWL-C from a larger initial group of questions. These five sets are autonomy, personal growth opportunity, work speed and routine, work complexity, and task-related interaction. Each of these represents a group of five questionnaire items that “hang together” empirically, with each group of items being independent of every other group. In other words, the five sets of items legitimately can be considered as five independent dimensions of work conditions. We may note, however, that two dimensions seem to deal with power or control over one’s work life (autonomy and work speed and routine) and that two of the remaining three relate to the meaning of work (personal growth opportunity and work complexity).

Autonomy (AUT)

Four of the items that form the autonomy index relate to the degree to which the respondent is free to take independent action on work-related issues, rather than having his or her actions approved by a supervisor. These are items 1, 6, 11, and 21. Item 16 refers to the influence that an individual has with his or her supervisor. The autonomy index clearly was the most important of all those identified. (A factor analysis showed that the autonomy index accounted for almost 50 percent of the response variance for a sample of 150 medical technologists.)

Work Speed and Routine (WSR)

The more the work is structured and routine, the less personal control an individual has over the work. Being required to produce a set quantity of work (item 3), working at a constant rate of speed that cannot be self-controlled (item 8), and being required to work rapidly (item 13) are three of the elements in this index. A factor analysis showed that the work speed and routine factor accounted for over 13 percent of the response variation for the medical technologist sample mentioned previously, indicating that it is an important, but not a major, dimension.

Task-Related Interaction (TRIO)

One of the basic human work needs identified by Katz and Kahn (1966) and discussed in detail by Sashkin and Morris (1984) is the need for interpersonal contact in the context of doing work. It is important that such contact be part of the task activity, not just friendliness or purely social contact. The items that make up the TRIO dimension (5, 10, 15, 20, and 25) were added to the current version of the QWL-C to measure the degree to which a job provides such interpersonal contact as part of the work activity. The TRIO dimension was not part of previous versions of the instrument.

Personal Growth Opportunity (GPO)

This factor is a distant second, accounting for about 15 percent of the response variation of the medical technologist sample. Items 17 and 22 refer to trying out new methods of work and learning about other jobs in other areas of the organization. This index seems to relate to the degree of meaning inherent in the job.

Work Complexity (WOO)

Although this dimension accounted for only 10 percent of the response variation in the medical technologist sample, it is most directly related to the sociological concept of “meaningfulness of work.” Items 4, 9, 14, 19, and 24 refer to repetitive tasks, undesired procedures, simple jobs, and “the same series of tasks all day.” Medical technologists who reported high work simplicity were significantly more likely to say that they planned to quit soon than were persons who reported that their work was more meaningful (less simple).

The five factors, and the questionnaire items that make up each factor, are summarized in Figure 1.

AUTONOMY (Control over one's own work activities):

- worker makes decisions about work (1)
- worker has a great deal of control (6)
- worker solves problems independently (11)
- supervisor acts on worker's suggestions (16)
- worker can make decisions independently (21)

PERSONAL GROWTH OPPORTUNITY (A chance to learn new things and develop one's abilities fully):

- worker has chance of moving to a better job (2)
- worker has opportunity to learn new skills (7)
- worker learns new work methods (12)
- worker tries out own methods on the job (17)
- worker has opportunity to learn about other departments (22)

WORK SPEED AND ROUTINE (Repetition of brief work cycles quickly and indefinitely):

- worker must produce a set amount of work (3)
- worker must work at a constant pace (8)
- worker must work quickly (13)
- worker has no control over work pace (18)
- worker must work to a set schedule (23)

WORK COMPLEXITY (The extent to which the job is meaningful and interesting):

- work is repetitive (4)
- worker must follow set procedures he or she would prefer not to use (9)
- work produces no whole, complete product (14)
- job is simple, does not require worker's full abilities (19)
- worker does same series of tasks all day (24)

TASK-RELATED INTERACTION (The interpersonal interaction required to do the job):

- worker must coordinate with coworkers (5)
- worker works alone with no interpersonal contact (10)
- worker cannot help other workers (15)
- worker must interact to accomplish the job (20)
- work requires contact with others (25)

Figure 1. The Five Dimensions of the QWL-C

DESCRIPTION OF THE INSTRUMENT

The Quality of Work Life-Conditions/Feelings instrument has two parts: the Conditions section and the Feelings section. The first consists of twenty-five items that ask the respondent to try to describe his or her actual work conditions objectively. These items comprise the five dimensions (or factors) described previously. The second part contains ten strongly interrelated items that measure the respondent's subjective feelings about his or her personal relation to work. This second part yields one score.

The QWL-C/F has several possible uses. The QWL-F score confirms the QWL-C index scores; that is, poor (alienating) work conditions should be associated with negative feelings, while good (involving or nonalienating) conditions should be found along with positive feelings. Repeated research shows these relations to be generally true, so it is a safe prediction that the QWL-F score will confirm the QWL-C index scores. Such confirmation can help respondents to understand and accept how their work conditions affect their feelings about work and the source of their feelings.

The QWL-C/F also can be used to diagnose specific work conditions, as a precursor to change or OD efforts. When workers can see the quantitative effects of negative work conditions, their commitment to change may be obtained more easily and acted on more strenuously.

QWL-C scores can be used to determine whether there is substantial agreement on the quality of work life conditions. If only a few workers report very poor conditions, they may be perceiving the work setting in an idiosyncratic manner or there may be a

need for only minor changes centered on these few workers, saving the organization the substantial costs of major organization development/change efforts. Further, the QWL-C is quite specific in pinpointing aspects of the work setting that may or may not need modification. The indices and items involve very clear and detailed guidelines for designing particular changes in work conditions.

Finally, the QWL-C/F can be used as a follow-up assessment tool, since the items refer to specific, existing conditions and affective states and are therefore not likely to be affected severely by the fact that individuals have used the QWL-C/F before.

Psychometric Characteristics

The items used in the QWL-C were developed on the basis of earlier research—by Blauner (1964), Aiken and Hage (1966), and Hirsch and Lengermann (1971). Further research by Lengel (1976) led to a modified version of the QWL-C, which was shown to consist of at least five reasonably independent factors by means of a standard varimax factor analysis (orthogonal rotation, eigenvalues greater than one).

The QWL-F items derive from several sources, including earlier work by Miller (1967), Morse and Weiss (1955), and Seeman (1959). Two of the items were composed by Hirsch and Lengermann specifically for the study cited above. The scale was shown to possess very high reliability, with Cronbach's (1961) alpha equal to .925 and item to scale correlations ranging from .64 to .85 (mean = .78).

HOW TO USE THE QWL-C/F

The QWL-C/F can be used for organizational (or unit) assessment or in a training context. In the former case, if the focus is on changing specific conditions, QWL-F data usually will be of tangential or incidental relevance (unless the workers and supervisors involved in the change effort must be made to see how work conditions affect their personal feelings, in which case QWL-F data may be explored in depth, much as in a training context). When used in OD/change efforts, QWL-C data may be summarized and dealt with in a typical survey-feedback session (Bowers & Franklin, 1977; Hausser, Pecorella, & Wissler, 1977; Nadler, 1977). Alternatively, the "raw" QWL-C data can be examined, much as in a training design (except that QWL-F data would not be examined in depth), and then used to develop action-change plans.

When training is the primary focus, it is very important that trainees have the opportunity to correlate their own QWL-C and QWL-F scores, as well as to examine the relationship between the C and F scores. Although the QWL-C/F data will be easier to interpret when training is conducted with intact or "family" work groups, one must be aware that the result may be increased awareness of commonly perceived negative work conditions and that this could lead to expectations that changes will be made. If no changes actually occur (or are intended), it would be better not to use the instrument, because raising expectations, followed by failure to fulfill those expectations, typically leads to a decline in QWL-F scores and in other, more direct, measures of effectiveness.

The effective use of any instrument in a training setting depends on the trainer's skill in carrying out seven basic steps: (a) administering the instrument; (b) making the theoretical presentation to trainees; (c) helping the trainees to relate to the instrument by examining their own expectations with respect to their scores; (d) scoring the instrument; (e) posting the results and sharing them openly or anonymously; (f) interpreting the results with the trainees in terms of the entire group's results, their own expectations, and norms obtained from other, similar, populations; and (g) providing the trainees with the opportunity to discuss the implications of their scores.

Administering the QWL-C/F

The items on the QWL-C/F are written clearly and should be easy to respond to; there are no hidden meanings or implications. As with any such instrument, honest and accurate expression of perceptions and feelings must be emphasized. In some cases it may be appropriate to assure those taking the instrument that their responses will be confidential. The process of filling out the form is extremely simple: the letters indicating responses are circled and the letters are then transferred to a scoring grid that shows a numerical value for each response. These numbers are in five columns, corresponding to the five dimensions of the QWL-C, so the score for each dimension is obtained by summing the column.

The instrument can be completed easily in ten to fifteen minutes.

The instructions for the QWL-C/F emphasize—and it is useful to remind respondents explicitly of this—the need to respond to the QWL-C items as objectively as possible, irrespective of personal likes, dislikes, or reactions, and the need when answering QWL-F items to express honestly and in accurate degree one's feelings about work conditions.

Theory Presentation

Respondents should be told of the three basic categories of work conditions that have been found to have strong effects on people's feelings about work. The first is power or control in regard to one's own work activities. The second is the meaning experienced in one's work. The third is the need for task-relevant interaction in the course of performing the work. The five dimensions that have been described in detail—autonomy (AUT), work speed and routine (WSR), task-related interaction (TRIO), personal growth opportunity (GPO), and work complexity (WOO)—should be presented and discussed. Participants may, for example, be asked to give examples of positive and negative conditions for each dimension.

Respondents should then be asked what feelings about work they would expect of people exposed to such positive or negative conditions. This should lead to a discussion of the nature of affective (emotional) alienation from work.

Finally, respondents may be told that the QWL-C measures the five quality of work life conditions, while the QWL-F measures one's quality of work life feelings. By measuring the quality of work life conditions, one can gain insight about what changes

are desirable or needed. The QWL-F data can be used to validate these needs, as well as to reinforce the effects of poor work-life conditions.

Examining Expectations

Next, the trainer, or change facilitators using the QWL-C/F with a work group, should ask the respondents to estimate their own scores (and the group scores if respondents are part of an ongoing work group). A simple chart, as shown in Table 1, can be posted for this purpose. The chart also may be used to show “predicted” and “actual” scores. For ongoing work groups, the trainer may ask each person to hand in an anonymous copy of his or her prediction chart, so that an anonymous group prediction chart can be posted.

Table 1. Chart of Predictions of WQL-C/F Scores

	(AUT) Autonomy		(WSR) Work Speed and Routine		(TRI) Task-Related Interaction		(PGO) Personal Growth Opportunity		(WCO) Work Complexity		(QWL-F) Feelings	
	Personal	Group	Personal	Group	Personal	Group	Personal	Group	Personal	Group	Personal	Group
Very Good												
Good												
Average												
Poor												
Very Poor												

The distributions shown here are not based on research norms; they are intended to provide general guidelines rather than specific interpretations.

(High) ----- {	Very Good	18-20	45-50
	Good	15-17	37-44
(Average) -----	Average	10-14	24-36
(Low) ----- {	Poor	7-9	16-23
	Very Poor	4-6	10-15
	QWL-C Score Distribution		QWL-F Score Distribution

Scoring the QWL-C/F

Scoring sheets follow the QWL-C and QWL-F forms. After the respondents have circled all the response letters on the instrument forms, they transfer their responses to the scoring sheets, on which corresponding numbers for each response are printed. The scoring sheet shows how the numerical item scores are to be added to obtain scores for each of the five QWL-C dimensions.

For QWL-F scores, the same transfer process yields ten numbers, which are simply added to generate a score.

Posting Results

In general, it is best to collect copies of the respondents' five QWL-C scores and of their QWL-F scores, rather than calling for a show of hands. The responses can be tallied on a chart as shown in Table 1, or respondents may submit forms such as the one that follows:

AUT	High
WSR	Average
TRI	Low
PGO	Low
WCO	Average
QWL-F	Average

Each respondent would merely list the five QWL-C dimensions and the QWL-F, indicating the range in which he or she scored for each dimension. This allows the posting process to be completed in considerably less time.

Interpretation and Processing

This is likely to be the most important step in the effective use of any instrument. The public posting of scores, even if done anonymously, serves to reduce some of the fears and concerns that respondents have about their own scores being "bad," undesirable, or unusual. Respondents are then able to see that their scores are not strange or out of the ordinary. In groups of more than ten, it is unlikely that any one person will have a unique set of scores. If the group is composed of trainees from a variety of work settings, it is very likely that the results will show a range of scores, so everyone can see that there are others in much the same range, at least with respect to some of the QWL-C dimensions.

If the group is composed of members of an ongoing work unit, it is almost certain that there will be considerable similarity of QWL-C scores, and many people are likely to be close on QWL-F scores. It is unlikely that anyone will have deviant scores, whether the group is composed of trainees from different jobs or an ongoing work team.

It is, however, quite important that the trainer or consultant explicitly point out the similarities in QWL-C/F scores.

The next task of the trainer is to give a model for processing. It is usually helpful for the trainer/consultant to first post his or her own scores and to comment on how each score relates to the trainer's pretest expectations (by explicitly and publicly reviewing the chart from Table 1, which should have been prepared in advance). This also is a good time to review briefly the nature of each QWL-C dimension and the meaning of the QWL-F score.

The trainer or consultant should then review these scores with another member of the training staff, if at all possible. Trainees can listen to this discussion, which should focus on the two sets of scores, their similarities and differences, and what the personal implications of the scores are. The effects or implications for the trainer's own work behavior should be explored. While this should be an open and honest discussion, it should not be psychologically deep or intensely personal. About ten minutes of such discussion is sufficient.

After this behavior modeling by the teaching staff, the participants are asked to form pairs and to carry on similar discussions. The pairs should be self-selected, so trainees can pick friends or strangers to share with, depending on their preferences. When working with an ongoing work unit, it also is wise to allow self-selection because there still will be some preferences (e.g., people will feel more positively about certain coworkers and less positively about others).

The paired discussions should last for about twenty minutes—ten minutes for each person. The trainer should give a ten-minute time signal so that no one is short changed in speaking time.

Group Processing

The final step can be conducted in small groups of from five to ten persons each or, in the case of an ongoing work unit, in one large group. The purpose is to integrate personal scores with the concepts behind the QWL-C/F and to relate the scores to behavioral implications. The trainer may wish to begin this step with a lecturette on quality of work life conditions and how they relate to feelings and behaviors, based on the introductory material and the interpretive guide.

Some obvious questions for discussion are:

1. Did the QWL-C dimension scores actually relate to QWL-F scores?
2. How "real" are the QWL-C scores? What evidence is there that these are not just based on individual perceptions?
3. Are high or low scores on any one QWL-C dimension especially important? Which and why?
4. What kinds of work behaviors (e.g., work quality, work quantity, tardiness, absenteeism, turnover) are associated with good QWL-C scores? With poor QWL-C scores? With positive QWL-F scores? With poor QWL-F scores?

5. What can be done to change quality of work life conditions for the better?

It is likely that any negative self-perceptions from QWL-C/F scores will be eliminated in this final processing discussion, because it should become clear that the QWL-C taps actual work conditions as seen by various people. However, it is especially important that neither trainees nor ongoing group members receive the impression that changing work life conditions is quick or easy to do. This is especially true for ongoing work units; when people expect changes and their expectations are unfulfilled, their QWL-F scores are likely to drop even lower and their work behaviors are likely to be affected negatively. When effectively conducted, however, this final processing can be an initial step toward significant change.

INTERPRETIVE GUIDELINES

The QWL-C/F was developed empirically from a long series of theory-based research studies and is supported by a substantial data base. Because each of the research studies took advantage of prior results and involved revised instruments, no broad set of normative data has yet been developed. Some broad guidelines are shown in Table 1, based on prior experience and assuming an essentially normal response distribution for the QWL-C/F. Because one may have greater confidence in the conceptual basis of the dimensions of the QWL-C/F than in the meaning of specific scores, it is best to interpret the results as a pattern of responses of an individual across the five dimensions, rather than focusing on any one score for one dimension. The consistency of QWL-F scores with QWL-C scoring patterns, as discussed above, is also important.

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QUALITY OF WORK LIFE-CONDITIONS/FEELINGS

General Instructions:

The Quality of Work Life-Conditions/Feelings (QWL-C/F) instrument measures the objective conditions of one's work setting and one's personal reactions to those conditions. It is then possible to look at how your work conditions compare with those of other people. This can be helpful in identifying possible areas for change and improvement. It is also possible to examine in a quantitative way just how one feels about one's personal relation to the job. This may validate the need for change, because certain feelings have been shown to result from certain objective job conditions.

For the QWL-C/F to be useful to you, it is very important that you respond honestly to each question. It is also important to separate the two parts clearly—Conditions and Feelings. Your answers to the QWL-C items should be descriptive of actual work conditions and should not reflect how you personally feel about the work or work conditions. The QWL-F items ask for your personal feelings about your work and work setting.

QUALITY OF WORK LIFE-CONDITIONS

Marshall Sashkin and Joseph J. Lengermann

Instructions: The following statements describe the objective characteristics of your job as well as the activities of your coworkers and supervisor. Try not to respond in terms of how much you like or dislike your job; just be as factually correct as possible. Imagine how an outside observer would rate these statements. Circle the appropriate letter (frequency rating) for each statement.

- A = All the time
M = Most of the time
P = Part of the time
N = Never

1. People in my position are allowed to make some decisions, but most of the decisions about their work must be referred to their supervisor. A M P N
2. People who do my job do not normally move on to better jobs as a direct result of the opportunities the job offers. A M P N

A = All the time
M = Most of the time
P = Part of the time
N = Never

3. People in my position are required to produce a specified amount of work each day.	A	M	P	N
4. People in my position perform tasks that are repetitive in nature.	A	M	P	N
5. My work requires regular coordination with coworkers.	A	M	P	N
6. People in my position have a great deal of control over their work activities.	A	M	P	N
7. People who do my job have the opportunity to learn new skills in the course of their work.	A	M	P	N
8. People in my position must work at a constant rate of speed; it is not possible to let the work go for a half-hour or so and then catch up later.	A	M	P	N
9. People at my level are required to follow certain procedures to do the work—procedures that they would not choose if it were up to them.	A	M	P	N
10. People in my position work alone, on their own tasks, with little or no interpersonal contact.	A	M	P	N
11. When they encounter problems in their work, people in my position must refer these problems to their supervisor; they cannot take any actions on their own.	A	M	P	N
12. People in my position must learn new methods in order to keep up with changes and new developments.	A	M	P	N
13. People in my position must work very rapidly.	A	M	P	N
14. My work does not involve completing a “whole” task.	A	M	P	N
15. People in my position are not allowed to help one another.	A	M	P	N
16. Our supervisor acts on some of the suggestions of the people in my section.	A	M	P	N

A = All the time
M = Most of the time
P = Part of the time
N = Never

- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 17. People in my position are permitted to try out methods of their own when performing the job. | A | M | P | N |
| 18. People in my position have no control over the pace of work. | A | M | P | N |
| 19. Jobs at my level fail to bring out the best abilities of the employees because they are very simple. | A | M | P | N |
| 20. People in my position must interact with coworkers in order to accomplish their tasks. | A | M | P | N |
| 21. People at my level can make their own decisions without checking with anyone else. | A | M | P | N |
| 22. People at my level have the opportunity to learn about the other departments in the organization while performing their jobs. | A | M | P | N |
| 23. My work must be completed on a set schedule. | A | M | P | N |
| 24. People in my position perform the same series of tasks all day. | A | M | P | N |
| 25. My work requires a great deal of contact with other people. | A | M | P | N |

QUALITY OF WORK LIFE-FEELINGS

Marshall Sashkin and Joseph J. Lengermann

Instructions: The following statements describe your own personal feelings about your job. Try to be as honest as possible; do not tone down your feelings and do not exaggerate. Circle the appropriate letter (frequency rating) for each statement.

SD = Strongly disagree

D = Disagree

U = Uncertain

A = Agree

SA = Strongly Agree

- | | | | | | |
|--|----|---|---|---|----|
| 1. I like the sort of work that I am doing. | SD | D | U | A | SA |
| 2. My job gives me a chance to do the things that I do best. | SD | D | U | A | SA |
| 3. My job gives me a feeling of pride or accomplishment. | SD | D | U | A | SA |
| 4. My job is an important job. | SD | D | U | A | SA |
| 5. My job is a rewarding experience. | SD | D | U | A | SA |
| 6. If I inherited enough money to live comfortably without working, I still would continue to work at my present job. | SD | D | U | A | SA |
| 7. If I had the opportunity to retire right now, I would prefer to do that rather than to go on working at my present job. | SD | D | U | A | SA |
| 8. The only meaning that I find in my work is my paycheck. | SD | D | U | A | SA |
| 9. I work to earn a living; my more important activities and interests are found outside my job. | SD | D | U | A | SA |
| 10. My work is one of the most important things in my life. | SD | D | U | A | SA |

QWL-C SCORING SHEET

Instructions: Transfer your responses to the statements on the QWL-C instrument to the scoring grid below and circle the number below the letter you have selected for each statement. When you have transferred all the letters and circled all the appropriate numbers, add up all the numbers circled in each of the vertical columns and enter the total in the empty box at the bottom of the column. Each of these totals refers to one of the scales of the QWL-C.

1. A M P N 1 2 3 4	2. A M P N 1 2 3 4	3. A M P N 1 2 3 4	4. A M P N 1 2 3 4	5. A M P N 1 2 3 4
6. A M P N 4 3 2 1	7. A M P N 4 3 2 1	8. A M P N 1 2 3 4	9. A M P N 1 2 3 4	10. A M P N 1 2 3 4
11. A M P N 1 2 3 4	12. A M P N 4 3 2 1	13. A M P N 1 2 3 4	14. A M P N 1 2 3 4	15. A M P N 1 2 3 4
16. A M P N 4 3 2 1	17. A M P N 4 3 2 1	18. A M P N 1 2 3 4	19. A M P N 1 2 3 4	20. A M P N 1 2 3 4
21. A M P N 4 3 2 1	22. A M P N 4 3 2 1	23. A M P N 1 2 3 4	24. A M P N 1 2 3 4	25. A M P N 1 2 3 4
Autonomy (AUT)	Personal Growth Opportunity (PGO)	Work Speed and Routine (WSR)	Work Complexity (WCO)	Task-Related Interaction (TRI)

QWL-F SCORING SHEET

Instructions: Transfer your responses to the ten QWL-F statements to the scoring columns below by circling the numbers corresponding to your letter answers. Add the numbers in each vertical column, then add the five column totals to result in a total QWL-F score. Then enter this score in the box provided.

	SD	D	U	UA	SA
1.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	5	4	3	2	1
8.	5	4	3	2	1
9.	5	4	3	2	1
10.	1	2	3	4	5

$$\boxed{} + \boxed{} + \boxed{} + \boxed{} + \boxed{} = \boxed{}$$

QWL-F Total:

■ REACTIONS TO GROUP SITUATIONS TEST

Herbert A. Thelen

This instrument is a useful introduction to Bion's influential theory of groups (Bion, 1959). Much of the material on which Bion based his theories comes from his work with small groups at the Tavistock Clinic in London. Bion sees every group as being composed of two simultaneous groups: a "work group" and a "basic-assumption group." The "work group" aspect of the group concentrates on the group's real task—its purpose for meeting. A planning committee or a staff review committee is an example of the work group.

Basic-assumption groups, on the other hand, operate on certain basic or tacit assumptions; Bion has identified three distinct "basic assumptions": dependency, fight-flight, and pairing.

The dependency-assumption group assumes that its reason for existence is its own security. Its members look to the leader for authority, decisions, and wisdom. However, because no one individual can meet the exalted demands of the dependency-group members, the leader is bound, eventually, to fall from that position. This group's manifestation of the need for dependency is childlike.

A fight-flight-assumption group is most concerned with its self-preservation; whether by fleeing or by fighting, action is essential in this group. Thus, a leader is even more necessary than in the dependency-assumption group. The fight-flight-assumption group tends to be anti-intellectual and nonintrospective.

In a group based on the pairing assumption, reproduction or creation is the central aim of the group: the creation of a new leader, a new idea, a new approach to life. This group is pervaded by hopeful expectation.

Clearly, all three basic-assumption groups are very different from the work group. Unlike the work group, which is oriented outward toward reality, basic assumption groups are oriented inward toward fantasy. It seems that the basic assumption group represents an interference with the work aspect of the group. However, basic assumptions can be used in a sophisticated manner by the work group. For example, the church and the armed forces are work groups that use, respectively, the dependency assumption and the fight-flight assumption in a positive manner.

In Bion's terms, the value of a group experience is the conscious experience of the possibilities of the work group. This implies the development of each individual's ability and skills to accomplish a common task. In a work group, an individual may be very much independent, not reluctant to act or make decisions. This person is less anxious about losing his or her own identity in that of the group, a common fear of group members.

The Reactions to Group Situations Test (RGST) is a useful way to sensitize participants to these important dimensions of group relations. It offers the chance to manipulate group composition; it can function as a diagnostic device or as a discussion starter.

It is pleasant to take, can be administered quickly (in about ten to fifteen minutes), and can be scored easily and quickly (in about twelve to eighteen minutes).

Five scoring scales indicate preferences for certain kinds of behavior in group settings: the *Work (Inquiry) Mode*, the *Fight Mode*, the *Pairing Mode*, the *Dependency Mode*, and the *Flight Mode*.

In the *Work Mode*, indicated preferences are for task-oriented behavior; group-oriented responses aimed at helping accomplish group objectives; a problem-solving orientation; the attempt to understand and deal with issues; and the effort to make suggestions for analyzing and for dealing with a problem.

In the *Fight Mode*, the indicated preference is an angry response. This may be expressed as attack, subtle resistance, or manipulation to impose one's will on the group.

In the *Pairing Mode*, indicated preferences are supporting another person's idea; expressing intimacy, warmth, and supportiveness to another member; and expressing warmth and commitment to the whole group.

In the *Dependency Mode*, indicated preferences are appeals for support and direction; reliance on rules, regulations, or a definite structure; reliance on the leader or outside authority; and expressions of weakness or inadequacy.

In the *Flight Mode*, indicated preferences are tuning out (withdrawal or lessened involvement); joking, fantasizing, and daydreaming; inappropriate theorizing; overintellectualized, overgeneralized statements; total irrelevancy; changing the subject; leaving the group; and excess activity in busywork.

A scoring key follows the instrument. The responses to the fifty items are arranged in a balanced design. Each emotional modality is paired five times with each other item. Each of the five scores can range from 0 to 20.

It is important to remember that any psychological variable (such as the RGST's Work, Fight, Pairing, Dependency, and Flight modes) is defined both by the instrument and by the procedures of interpretation (Thelen, undated). There are two ways of using this instrument. One may assume that every person's performance can be understood in terms of the way certain basic traits or emotional drives combine in any one situation. In this view, effort is directed toward areas of human functioning. A person can then, for all intents and purposes, be replaced by a set of these variables.

In the second view, little importance is attached to the actual "scores" for the test's live variables. Instead, it is the unique pattern of responses that is considered to be significant. The five variables of the RGST are seen as conceptual variables; no assumption is made that they represent real behavior. The scores may have a weak relation to other variables, but the items themselves may be very informative, especially when seen in the light of a precise knowledge of the test or the behavioral situation.

Thus, the value of the test depends on how it is to be interpreted and for what purposes it is to be used.

The RGST in its “objective” form was developed from a sentence-completion test devised by Dorothy Stock (Whitaker) and her associates at the Human Dynamics Laboratory at the University of Chicago. Some evidence of reliability and validity are reported in Thelen, Hawkes, and Strattner (1969).

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REACTIONS TO GROUP SITUATIONS TEST¹

Herbert A. Thelen

Instructions: You will be presented with one-sentence descriptions of the kinds of incidents that frequently occur in groups.

Each of these descriptions is given in an incomplete sentence that can be finished in either of two ways, A or B. Decide which way you prefer to finish each sentence.

On the separate Answer Sheet, either A or B (not both) should be marked opposite the number of the sentence, to complete the sentence.

Make your selections quickly. Don't linger over the items—your first impression is good enough.

Please do not leave out any items.

1. When I wanted to work with Frank, I . . .
A. felt we could do well together.
B. asked if it would be all right with him.
2. When the group wanted his views about the task, Lisa . . .
A. wondered why they wanted her views.
B. thought of what she might tell them.
3. When the leader made no comment, I . . .
A. offered a suggestion of what to do.
B. wondered what to do next.
4. When Don said he felt closest to me, I . . .
A. was glad.
B. was suspicious.
5. When I felt helpless, I . . .
A. wished that the leader would help me.
B. found a friend to tell how I felt.
6. When Henry was annoyed, Ray . . .
A. thought of a way to explain the situation to him.
B. realized just how he felt.
7. When Jane felt eager to go to work, she . . .
A. got mad at the latecomers.
B. wanted to team up with Jim.

¹ From H.A. Thelen, *Classroom grouping for teachability*. Copyright © 1967 by John Wiley & Sons, Inc. Reprinted by permission of John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

8. When Glenn yelled at me, I . . .
 - A. lost interest in what we were supposed to be doing.
 - B. thought that some of his ideas would be useful.
9. When the leader lost interest, I . . .
 - A. suggested a way to get everybody working.
 - B. started talking with my neighbors.
10. When Phil felt warm and friendly, he . . .
 - A. accomplished a lot more.
 - B. liked just about everyone.
11. When the leader was unsure of himself, Norm . . .
 - A. wanted to leave the group.
 - B. didn't know what to do.
12. When the group just couldn't seem to get ahead, I . . .
 - A. felt like dozing off.
 - B. became annoyed with them.
13. When the group wasn't interested, I . . .
 - A. just didn't feel like working.
 - B. thought that the leader should do something about it.
14. When the leader mentioned feeling the same way I did, I . . .
 - A. was glad that I had the leader's approval.
 - B. thought we would probably begin to make progress now.
15. When I became angry at Cora, I . . .
 - A. felt like dozing off.
 - B. ridiculed her comments.
16. When the leader wanted me to tell the class about my plan, I . . .
 - A. wished I could get out of it.
 - B. wished that the leader would introduce it for me.
17. When Art criticized Bert, I . . .
 - A. wished that the teacher would help Bert.
 - B. felt grateful to Art for really expressing what we both felt.
18. When Henry and Mary enjoyed each other's company so much, I . . .
 - A. thought that I'd like to leave the room.
 - B. felt angry.
19. When the leader changed the subject, Rita . . .
 - A. suggested that they stick to the original topic.
 - B. felt glad that the leader was finally taking over.

20. When the others became so keen on really working hard, I . . .
 - A. made an effort to make really good suggestions.
 - B. felt much more warmly toward them.
21. When I felt angry enough to boil, I . . .
 - A. wanted to throw something.
 - B. wished that the leader would do something about it.
22. When Lee was not paying attention, I . . .
 - A. did not know what to do.
 - B. wanted to tell him he was wasting our time.
23. When Harry thought that he needed a lot of help, Martin . . .
 - A. warmly encouraged him to get it.
 - B. helped him analyze the problem.
24. When Jack reported his results so far, I . . .
 - A. laughed at him.
 - B. was bored.
25. When everyone felt angry, I . . .
 - A. suggested that they stop and evaluate the situation.
 - B. was glad that the leader stepped in.
26. When no one was sticking to the point, I . . .
 - A. got bored with the whole thing.
 - B. called for clarification of the topic.
27. When Herb said he felt especially friendly toward me, I . . .
 - A. wanted to escape.
 - B. wanted to ask his advice.
28. When the group agreed that it needed more information about how members felt, I . . .
 - A. described my feelings to the group.
 - B. wasn't sure I wanted to discuss my feelings.
29. When the leader offered to help Carl, Joe . . .
 - A. wanted help too.
 - B. resented the leader's offer.
30. When Dave and Lou argued, I . . .
 - A. asked Tracy how she felt about them.
 - B. hoped they would slug it out.
31. When Chuck felt especially close to Steve, he . . .
 - A. let him know it.
 - B. hoped he could turn to him for assistance.

32. When several members dropped out of the discussion, Henry . . .
 - A. thought it was time to find out where the group was going.
 - B. got sore at what he thought was their discourtesy.
33. When Stan told me he felt uncertain about what should be done, I . . .
 - A. suggested that he wait before making any decisions.
 - B. suggested that he get more information.
34. When Ann realized that several people were making fun of one another she . . .
 - A. wanted to call the group to order.
 - B. got angry at the stupidity of their behavior.
35. When the group suggested a procedure, I . . .
 - A. thought the leader ought to express approval or disapproval of it.
 - B. thought we ought to decide whether to carry it out.
36. When Ed seemed to be daydreaming, Bill . . .
 - A. winked at Joe.
 - B. felt freer to doodle.
37. When Tom and Mary arrived twenty minutes late for the meeting, the group . . .
 - A. went right on working.
 - B. was very annoyed.
38. During the argument, Roy's opposition caused Earl to . . .
 - A. withdraw from the discussion.
 - B. look to the teacher for support.
39. When Marvin suggested we evaluate how well we were working as a group, I . . .
 - A. was glad that the period was almost over.
 - B. gladly backed him up.
40. When the group seemed to be losing interest, Pat . . .
 - A. became angry with the other members.
 - B. thought it might just as well adjourn.
41. Together John and Fred . . .
 - A. wasted the group's time.
 - B. supported one another's arguments.
42. When Val offered to help me, I . . .
 - A. said I was sorry, but I had something else to do.
 - B. was pleased that we would be partners.
43. When the other group became so interested in their work, George . . .
 - A. wanted to ask their leader if he could join them.
 - B. felt resentful that his group was so dull.

44. When Art left the meeting early, Dick . . .
 - A. and Michael told each other what they felt about Art.
 - B. was glad that he had gone.
45. When Lou turned to me, I . . .
 - A. wished that he would mind his own business.
 - B. asked him for help.
46. When Hal felt hostile to the group, he . . .
 - A. wished he would not have to come to the meeting.
 - B. was glad that Tina felt the same way.
47. While Dan was helping me, I . . .
 - A. became annoyed with his superior attitude.
 - B. felt good about being with him.
48. When I lost track of what Liz was saying, I . . .
 - A. asked the teacher to explain Liz's idea to me.
 - B. was pleased that it was Mike who explained Liz's idea to me.
49. While the group was expressing friendly feelings toward Bill, Ken . . .
 - A. thought that now Bill would be able to work.
 - B. opened a book and started to read.
50. When the leader offered to help him, Pete . . .
 - A. said that he did not want any help.
 - B. realized that he did need help from someone.

REACTIONS TO GROUP SITUATIONS TEST ANSWER SHEET

- | | | | |
|-------|---|-------|---|
| 1. A | B | 26. A | B |
| 2. A | B | 27. A | B |
| 3. A | B | 28. A | B |
| 4. A | B | 29. A | B |
| 5. A | B | 30. A | B |
| 6. A | B | 31. A | B |
| 7. A | B | 32. A | B |
| 8. A | B | 33. A | B |
| 9. A | B | 34. A | B |
| 10. A | B | 35. A | B |
| 11. A | B | 36. A | B |
| 12. A | B | 37. A | B |
| 13. A | B | 38. A | B |
| 14. A | B | 39. A | B |
| 15. A | B | 40. A | B |
| 16. A | B | 41. A | B |
| 17. A | B | 42. A | B |
| 18. A | B | 43. A | B |
| 19. A | B | 44. A | B |
| 20. A | B | 45. A | B |
| 21. A | B | 46. A | B |
| 22. A | B | 47. A | B |
| 23. A | B | 48. A | B |
| 24. A | B | 49. A | B |
| 25. A | B | 50. A | B |

REACTIONS TO GROUP SITUATIONS TEST ANSWER KEY

Instructions: For each item below, circle the letter corresponding to the way you marked the item on the RGST Answer Sheet. For example, if you marked A for item 1, circle the letter P on this Answer Key for that item. To obtain each of the five scores, count the number of times you circled each letter. (The letters denoted as “Stub” tell what type of item you were responding to.)

Stub		Response		Stub		Response	
		A	B			A	B
1.	(W)	P	D	26.	(Fl)	Fl	W
2.	(W)	F	W	27.	(P)	Fl	D
3.	(D)	W	D	28.	(W)	W	Fl
4.	(P)	P	F	29.	(D)	D	F
5.	(D)	D	P	30.	(F)	P	F
6.	(F)	W	P	31.	(P)	P	D
7.	(W)	F	P	32.	(Fl)	W	F
8.	(F)	Fl	W	33.	(D)	Fl	W
9.	(Fl)	W	P	34.	(F)	W	F
10.	(P)	W	P	35.	(W)	D	W
11.	(D)	Fl	D	36.	(Fl)	P	Fl
12.	(D)	Fl	F	37.	(P)	W	F
13.	(Fl)	Fl	D	38.	(F)	Fl	D
14.	(P)	D	W	39.	(W)	Fl	P
15.	(F)	Fl	F	40.	(Fl)	F	Fl
16.	(W)	Fl	D	41.	(P)	Fl	P
17.	(F)	D	P	42.	(D)	Fl	P
18.	(P)	Fl	F	43.	(W)	D	F
19.	(Fl)	W	D	44.	(Fl)	P	F
20.	(W)	W	P	45.	(P)	F	D
21.	(F)	F	D	46.	(F)	Fl	P
22.	(Fl)	D	F	47.	(D)	F	P
23.	(D)	P	W	48.	(Fl)	D	P
24.	(W)	F	Fl	49.	(P)	W	Fl
25.	(F)	W	D	50.	(D)	F	W

W = Work
 F = Fight
 Fl = Flight
 D = Dependency
 P = Pairing

Score

■ ROLE EFFICACY SCALE

Udai Pareek

The performance of people working in an organization depends on their own potential effectiveness, their technical competence, their managerial skills and experience, and the design of the roles they perform in the organization. It is the integration of individuals and their roles that ensures their effectiveness in the organization. Unless people have the requisite knowledge, technical competence, and skills required for their roles, they cannot be effective. But if the role does not allow a person to use his or her competence, and if the individual constantly feels frustrated in the role, effectiveness is likely to be low. The closer that role taking (responding to the expectations of various other people) moves to role making (taking the initiative in designing the role creatively so that the expectations of others as well as of the role occupant are integrated), the more the role is likely to be effective. This potential effectiveness can be called efficacy. Role efficacy can be seen as the psychological factor underlying role effectiveness.

DIMENSIONS OF ROLE EFFICACY

Role efficacy has ten dimensions, and the more these dimensions are present in a role, the higher the efficacy of that role is likely to be.

1. Centrality vs. Peripherality
The dimension of centrality measures the role occupant's perception of the significance of his or her role. The more central that people feel their roles are in the organization, the higher will be their role efficacy. For example, "I am a production manager, and my role is very important."
2. Integration vs. Distance
Integration between the self and the role contributes to role efficacy, and self-role distance diminishes efficacy. "I am able to use my knowledge very well here."
3. Proactivity vs. Reactivity
When a role occupant takes initiative and does something independently, that person is exhibiting *proactive* behavior. On the other hand, if he or she merely responds to what others expect, the behavior is *reactive*. For example, "I prepare the budget for discussion" versus "I prepare the budget according to the guidance given by my boss."

4. Creativity vs. Routinism
When role occupants perceive that they do something new or unique in their roles, their efficacy is high. The perception that they do only routine tasks lowers role efficacy.
- 5 . Linkage vs. Isolation
Interrole linkage contributes to role efficacy. If role occupants perceive interdependence with others, their efficacy will be high. Isolation of the role reduces efficacy. Example of linkage: "I work in close liaison with the production manager."
6. Helping vs. Hostility
One important aspect of efficacy is the individual's perception that he or she gives and receives help. A perception of hostility decreases efficacy. "Whenever I have a problem, others help me," instead of "People here are indifferent to others."
7. Superordination vs. Deprivation
One dimension of role efficacy is the perception that the role occupant contributes to some "larger" entity. Example: "What I do is likely to benefit other organizations also."
8. Influence vs. Powerlessness
Role occupants' feeling that they are able to exercise influence in their roles increases their role efficacy. The influence may be in terms of decision making, implementation, advice, or problem solving. "My advice on industrial relations is accepted by top management." "I am able to influence the general policy of marketing."
9. Growth vs. Stagnation
When a role occupant has opportunities—and perceives them as such—to develop in his or her role through learning new things, role efficacy is likely to be high. Similarly, if the individual perceives his or her role as lacking in opportunities for growth, role efficacy will be low.
10. Confrontation vs. Avoidance
When problems arise, either they can be confronted and attempts made to find solutions for them, or they can be avoided. Confronting problems to find solutions contributes to efficacy, and avoidance reduces efficacy. An example of confrontation: "If a subordinate brings a problem to me, I help to work out the solution." "I dislike being bothered with interpersonal conflict" is a statement indicating avoidance.

USING THE DATA GENERATED

Measurement of role efficacy is not done for its own sake; it should lead to a program of improvement in efficacy. Because factors concerned both with the individual (the role occupant) and with the design of the role contribute to efficacy, two approaches can be adopted for increasing role efficacy.

Role Redefinition

After the dimensions in which role efficacy is low have been diagnosed, the problem can be approached from the perspective of the role. The diagnosis may show that some dimensions are missing from the role and may suggest various ways of building in those missing dimensions. For example, if centrality is missing from the role, ways can be worked out to enrich the role. However, there are no standard solutions to build various dimensions into the role; the solutions will differ from situation to situation. In redefining roles, various ways of developing the missing dimensions can be prepared first by individuals involved in the situation (the role occupant and significant persons who work with him or her). Then these individual suggestions can be discussed in detail to discover to what extent they are feasible and likely to increase role efficacy.

Action Planning

It is equally important to work on role efficacy from the point of view of the role occupant. Role efficacy may be low because the role occupant is not able to perceive certain dimensions in the role, or the individual may not be able to use his or her own power to build those dimensions into the role. Counseling and coaching may be necessary. For example, if the person perceives that linkages with other roles are weak, he or she can be worked with to build stronger linkages with other roles. Or if the individual feels that his or her role does not provide opportunities to learn new things and grow, the person can be helped to perceive other dimensions of the role. The purpose of action planning is to help the individual take necessary steps without waiting for redesign of the role.

USES OF THE ROLE EFFICACY SCALE

The Role Efficacy Scale is useful in a number of different situations. It can be used for role clarification in team building, for coaching key managers, for problem identification within a work team, and for training managers and supervisors about the concept of role efficacy.

ROLE EFFICACY SCALE

Udai Pareek

Your name _____ Your role _____

Instructions: In each of the following sets of three statements, check the one (a, b, or c) that most accurately describes your own experience in your organizational role. You must choose only one statement in each set.

1. _____ a. My role is very important in this organization; I feel central here.
_____ b. I am doing useful and fairly important work.
_____ c. Very little importance is given to my role in this organization; I feel peripheral here.
2. _____ a. My training and expertise are not fully utilized in my present role.
_____ b. My training and knowledge are not used in my present role.
_____ c. I am able to use my knowledge and training very well here.
3. _____ a. I have little freedom in my role; I am only an errand runner.
_____ b. I operate according to the directions given to me.
_____ c. I can take initiative and act on my own in my role.
4. _____ a. I am doing usual, routine work in my role.
_____ b. In my role I am able to use my creativity and do something new.
_____ c. I have no time for creative work in my role.
5. _____ a. No one in the organization responds to my ideas and suggestions.
_____ b. I work in close collaboration with some other colleagues.
_____ c. I am alone and have almost no one to consult in my role.
6. _____ a. When I need some help, none is available.
_____ b. Whenever I have a problem, others help me.
_____ c. I get very hostile responses when I ask for help.
7. _____ a. I regret that I do not have the opportunity to contribute to society in my role.
_____ b. What I am doing in my role is likely to help other organizations or society.
_____ c. I have the opportunity to have some effect on the larger society in my role.

8. _____ a. I contribute to some decisions.
_____ b. I have no power here.
_____ c. My advice is accepted by my seniors.
9. _____ a. Some of what I do contributes to my learning.
_____ b. I am slowly forgetting all that I learned (my professional knowledge).
_____ c. I have tremendous opportunities for professional growth in my role.
10. _____ a. I dislike being bothered with problems.
_____ b. When a subordinate brings a problem to me, I help to find a solution.
_____ c. I refer the problem to my boss or to some other person.
11. _____ a. I feel quite central in the organization.
_____ b. I think I am doing fairly important work.
_____ c. I feel I am peripheral in this organization.
12. _____ a. I do not enjoy my role.
_____ b. I enjoy my role very much.
_____ c. I enjoy some parts of my role and not others.
13. _____ a. I have little freedom in my role.
_____ b. I have a great deal of freedom in my role.
_____ c. I have enough freedom in my role.
14. _____ a. I do a good job according to a schedule already decided.
_____ b. I am able to be innovative in my role.
_____ c. I have no opportunity to be innovative and do something creative.
15. _____ a. Others in the organization see my role as significant to their work.
_____ b. I am a member of a task force or a committee.
_____ c. I do not work in any committees.
16. _____ a. Hostility rather than cooperation is evident here.
_____ b. I experience enough mutual help here.
_____ c. People operate more in isolation here.
17. _____ a. I am able to contribute to the company in my role.
_____ b. I am able to serve the larger parts of the society in my role.
_____ c. I wish I could do some useful work in my role.
18. _____ a. I am able to influence relevant decisions.
_____ b. I am sometimes consulted on important matters.
_____ c. I cannot make any independent decisions.

19. _____ a. I learn a great deal in my role.
_____ b. I learn a few new things in my role.
_____ c. I am involved in routine or unrelated activities and have learned nothing in my role.
20. _____ a. When people bring problems to me, I tend to ask them to work them out themselves.
_____ b. I dislike being bothered with interpersonal conflict.
_____ c. I enjoy solving problems related to my work.

ROLE EFFICACY SCORING AND INTERPRETATION SHEET

Instructions: Circle the number corresponding to your response to each of the twenty items. Total these numbers and enter this sum in the box just below the key. Then compute your Role Efficacy Index according to the formula given.

Dimension	Item	a	b	c	Item	a	b	c
Centrality	1.	+2	+1	-1	11.	+2	+1	-1
Integration	2.	+1	-1	+2	12.	-1	+2	+1
Proactivity	3.	-1	+1	+2	13.	-1	+2	+1
Creativity	4.	+1	+2	-1	14.	+1	+2	-1
Interrole Linkage	5.	-1	+2	+1	15.	+2	+1	-1
Helping Relationship	6.	+1	+2	-1	16.	-1	+2	+1
Superordination	7.	-1	+2	+1	17.	+1	+2	-1
Influence	8.	+1	-1	+2	18.	+2	+1	-1
Growth	9.	+1	-1	+2	19.	+2	+1	-1
Confrontation	10.	-1	+2	+1	20.	+1	-1	+2
								Your total

<p>Role Efficacy</p> $\frac{\text{Total score} + 20}{60} \times 100 = \text{ } \%$
<p>Example: $\frac{36 + 20}{60} \times 100 = 93\%$</p>

Interpretation

Note that the scale (-1, +1, +2) allows a maximum score of +40 and a minimum score of -20. Your Role Efficacy Index represents a percentage of your potential effectiveness in your organizational role. A high percentage indicates that you perceive that in your role you have a great deal of opportunity to be effective.

The ten dimensions of role efficacy are each measured by two items. Look at each dimension to determine in what areas you perceive yourself as having less than what you think you need to be effective. Look for pairs of items for which you have low scores and compare these dimensions. You may want to discuss your findings with your colleagues and your supervisor.

■ THE TEAM EFFECTIVENESS CRITIQUE

Mark Alexander

Most groups exist and persist because (a) the purpose of the group cannot be accomplished by individuals working on their own, and (b) certain needs of individual members can be satisfied by belonging to the group. Of course, the mere existence of a group does not ensure that it will operate effectively; a group is effective only to the degree to which it is able to use its individual and collective resources. The measure of the group's effectiveness is its ability to achieve its objectives and satisfy the needs of the individuals in the group.

An organization is a collection of groups. The success of an organization depends on the ability of the groups within it to work together to attain commonly held objectives. Because organizations are becoming increasingly more complex, their leaders must be concerned with developing more cohesive and cooperative relationships between individuals and groups. Similarly, the development of effective groups or teams within the organization will determine, to a large extent, the ability of the organization to attain its goals.

FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO TEAM DEVELOPMENT AND EFFECTIVENESS

Team development is based on the assumption that any group is able to work more effectively if its members are prepared to confront questions such as: How can this collection of individuals work together more effectively as a team? How can we better use the resources we represent? How can we communicate with one another more effectively to make better decisions? What is impeding our performance?

The answers to these questions may be found by examining the factors that lead to team development and effectiveness. These factors can be measured, or inventoried, by team members with the use of the Team Effectiveness Critique. Before the critique form is administered, however, all team members should understand the terminology used to describe the nine factors. The following descriptions can be presented in a lecturette format to the team members prior to completion of the critique.

1. Shared Goals and Objectives

In order for a team to operate effectively, it must have stated goals and objectives. These goals are not a simple understanding of the immediate task, but an overall understanding of the role of the group in the total organization, its responsibilities, and the things the team wants to accomplish. In addition, the members of the team must be committed to

the goals. Such commitment comes from involving all team members in defining the goals and relating the goals to specific problems that are relevant to team members. The time spent on goal definition in the initial stages of a team's life results in less time needed later to resolve problems and misunderstandings.

2. Utilization of Resources

The ultimate purpose of a team is to do things effectively. In order to accomplish this, the team must use effectively all the resources at its disposal. This means establishing an environment that allows individual resources to be used. Team effectiveness is enhanced when every member has the opportunity to contribute and when all opinions are heard and considered. It is the team's responsibility to create an atmosphere in which individuals can state their opinions without fear of ridicule or reprisal. It is each individual's responsibility to contribute information and ideas and to be prepared to support them with rational arguments. Maximum utilization of team members requires full participation and self-regulation.

3. Trust and Conflict Resolution

In any team situation, disagreement is likely to occur. The ability to openly recognize conflict and seek to resolve it through discussion is critical to the team's success. People do not automatically work well together just because they happen to belong to the same work group or share the same job function. For a team to become effective, it must deal with the emotional problems and needs of its members and the interpersonal problems that arise in order to build working relationships that are characterized by openness and trust. The creation of a feeling of mutual trust, respect, and understanding and the ability of the team to deal with the inevitable conflicts that occur in any group situation are key factors in team development.

4. Shared Leadership

Individuals will not function as a team if they are brought together simply to endorse decisions made by their leader or others not in the group. The development and cohesion of a team occurs only when there is a feeling of shared leadership among all team members. This means that all members accept some responsibility for task functions—those things necessary to do the job—and maintenance functions—those things necessary to keep the group together and interacting effectively. Task functions include: initiating discussions or actions, clarifying issues and goals, summarizing points, testing for consensus or agreement, and seeking or giving information. Task leadership helps the group to establish its direction and assists the group in moving toward its goals. Maintenance functions include encouraging involvement and participation, sensing and expressing group feelings, harmonizing and facilitating reconciliation of disagreements, setting standards for the group, and “gatekeeping” or bringing people into discussions. No one person can be expected to perform all these

required leadership functions effectively all the time. Groups perform better when all members perform both task and maintenance functions.

5. Control and Procedures

A group needs to establish procedures that can be used to guide or regulate its activities. For example, a meeting agenda serves to guide group activities during a meeting. Schedules of when specific actions will be taken also regulate team activities. Team development and team-member commitment is facilitated through maximum involvement in the establishment of agendas, schedules, and other procedures. Of course, the team should determine how it wishes to maintain control. In meeting situations, control most often is achieved through the appointment of a chairperson whose responsibility is to facilitate the procedure established by the team. Some teams find that they do not need a formal leader; each member regulates his or her own contributions and behavior as well as those of others.

6. Effective Interpersonal Communications

Effective team development depends on the ability of team members to communicate with one another in an open and honest manner. Effective interpersonal communications are apparent when team members listen to one another and attempt to build on one another's contributions. Effective interpersonal communications are achieved through self-regulation by team members, so that everyone in the group has an equal opportunity to participate in discussions.

7. Approach to Problem Solving and Decision Making

Solving problems and making decisions are two critical team functions. If a group is going to improve its ability to function as a team, recognized methods for solving problems and making decisions should be studied and adopted. The lack of agreed-on approaches to problem solving and decision making can result in wasted time, misunderstandings, frustration, and—more importantly—“bad” decisions.

A generally accepted, step-by-step procedure for problem solving and decision making is as follows:

1. Identify the problem (being careful to differentiate between the real problem and symptoms of the problem).
2. Develop criteria (or goals).
3. Gather relevant data.
4. Identify all feasible, alternative solutions or courses of action.
5. Evaluate the alternatives in light of the data and the objectives of the team.
6. Reach a decision.
7. Implement the decision.

Needless to say, there are variations of this procedure. However, whatever method is used, an effective team will have an agreed-on approach to problem solving and decision making that is shared and supported by all members.

8. Experimentation/Creativity

Just as it is important for a team to have certain structured procedures, it also is important that the team be prepared occasionally to move beyond the boundaries of established procedures and processes in order to experiment with new ways of doing things. Techniques such as “brainstorming” as a means of increasing creativity should be tried periodically to generate new ways to increase the team’s effectiveness. An experimental attitude should be adopted in order to allow the team greater flexibility in dealing with problems and decision-making situations.

9. Evaluation

The team periodically should examine its group processes from both task and maintenance aspects. This examination or “critique” requires the team to stop and look at how well it is doing and what, if anything, may be hindering its operation. Problems may result from procedures or methods, or may be caused by individual team members. Such problems should be resolved through discussion before the team attempts further task accomplishment. Effective self-evaluation is probably one of the most critical factors leading to team development.

Ultimately, the strength and degree of a team’s development will be measured in two ways: first, in its ability to get things done—its effectiveness—and second, in terms of its cohesiveness—the sense of belonging that individual members have and the degree of their commitment to one another and the goals of the team.

USE OF THE TEAM EFFECTIVENESS CRITIQUE

The periodic review of a team’s operating practices in light of the factors leading to team development is a simple and useful method for improving a team’s effectiveness. The Team Effectiveness Critique can be used as an observational tool by an independent observer or as an intervention device for the entire team. In this case, the critique should be completed by each individual team member, who will then share his or her assessment with the entire team. This sharing can be expanded to a consensus activity by asking team members to reach a common assessment for each of the nine factors. (This use of the critique would be most appropriate with ongoing organizational teams.) Agreement about areas in which improvements could be made would then lead to team action planning.

The critique also can be used as an experiential training device. Participants would be asked to complete a group task on a simulation basis and would then assess their teamwork using the critique form. Again, the group members would discuss their assessments with one another, focusing on generally recognized weaknesses.

The Team Effectiveness Critique is intended to be used as a training and team-development tool; it is not intended to be used for statistical or research purposes. Therefore, the face validity of the form and its usefulness in team work speak for themselves. No statistical validity has been established.

THE TEAM EFFECTIVENESS CRITIQUE

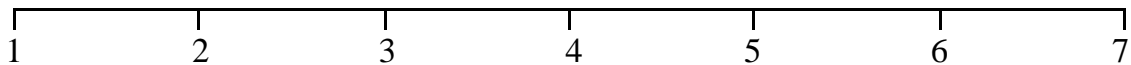
Mark Alexander

Instructions: Indicate on the scales that follow your assessment of your team and the way it functions by circling the number on each scale that you feel is most descriptive of your team.

1. Goals and Objectives

There is a lack of commonly understood and goals and objectives.

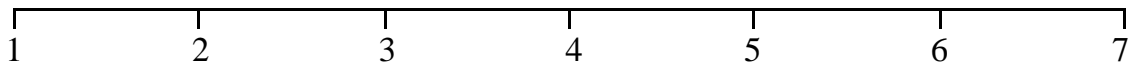
Team members understand and agree on goals and objectives.



2. Utilization of Resources

All member resources are not recognized and/or utilized.

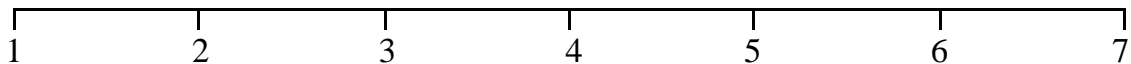
Member resources are fully recognized and utilized.



3. Trust and Conflict

There is little trust among members, and conflict is evident.

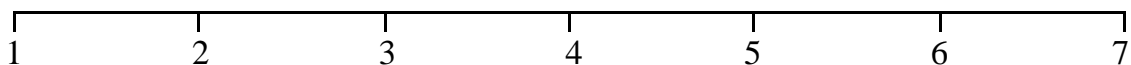
There is high degree of trust among members, and conflict is dealt with openly and worked through.



4. Leadership

One person dominates, and leadership roles are not carried out or shared.

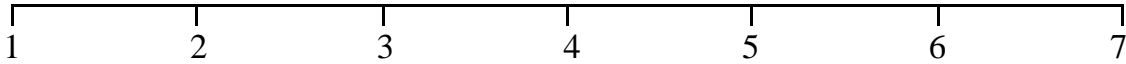
There is full participation in leadership; leadership roles are shared by members.



5. **Control and Procedures**

There is little control, and there is a lack of procedures to guide team functioning.

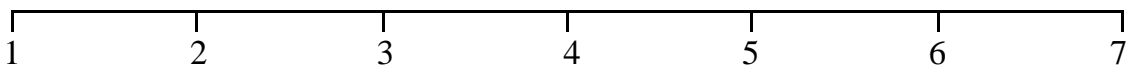
There are effective procedures to guide team functioning; team members support these procedures and regulate themselves.



6. **Interpersonal Communications**

Communications between members are closed and guarded.

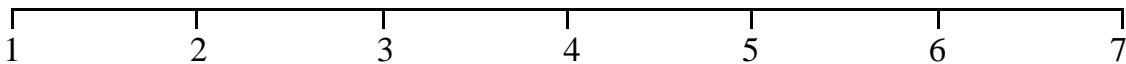
Communications between members are open and participative.



7. **Problem Solving/Decision Making**

The team has no agreed-on approaches to problem solving and decision making.

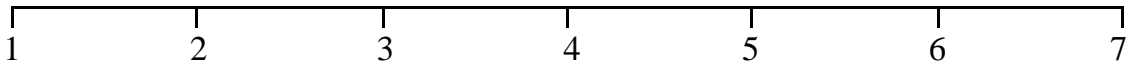
The team has well-established and agreed-on approaches to problem solving and decision making.



8. **Experimentation/Creativity**

The team is rigid and does not experiment with how things are done.

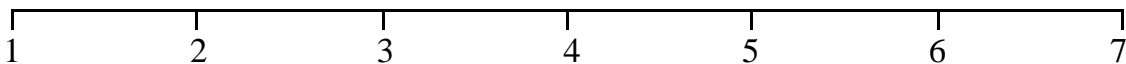
The team experiments with different ways of doing things and is creative in this approach.



9. **Evaluation**

The group never evaluates its functioning and process.

The group often evaluates its functioning or process.



■ THE TEAM ORIENTATION AND BEHAVIOR INVENTORY (TOBI)

Leonard D. Goodstein, Phylliss Cooke, and Jeanette Goodstein

One of the most important strategies of organization development (OD)—perhaps the most important—is team building. Effective and productive teams, at both the worker and managerial level, are the desired end product of most OD interventions. As organizations become more complex in their structures, team work, through task forces, committees, staffs, and so on, will become even more important—and thus the importance of team building.

Surprisingly, there is no theoretically based approach to team building with the exception of the Tavistock model of group functioning (Riach, 1975). The Tavistock approach, based on psychoanalytic theory, places primary emphasis on issues of authority and power in small groups. Clarifying how the group copes with the leadership issue is the major developmental focus or purpose of the group.

More generally, team-building efforts tend to be a theoretical. Beckhard (1972) saw four major purposes of team building:

1. To set goals or priorities.
2. To analyze or allocate the way work is performed according to team members' roles and responsibilities.
3. To examine the way the team is working—norms, decision making, conflict management, etc.
4. To examine relationships among team members.

Similarly, Dyer (1977), in his classic book on team building, supplied three checklists to examine the need for team building in a work group. Reilly and Jones (1974) defined team building as providing the opportunity for a work group “to assess its strengths, as well as those areas that need improvement and growth.” Solomon (1979) defines team building as “the introduction of a systematic, long-range plan for the improvement of interpersonal relationships among those workers who are functionally interdependent.” All these definitions are fairly clear and can readily be used, but no theoretical basis for team building has been presented.

The purposes of this article are to generate a theoretically based definition of team building and then to present a rational-theoretical (Lanyon & Goodstein, 1982) instrument for assessing both the need for and an approach to team building in work groups.

A THEORETICALLY BASED DEFINITION OF TEAM BUILDING

The primary work group is the most important element or subsystem of any organization, and the team leader or manager is the linking pin between that primary group and the rest of the organization (Likert, 1967). As Burke (1982) noted, work groups provide both the setting and opportunity for: (1) meeting the primary social relationship and support needs for all members of the work group; (2) providing work group members a view of the organization, its structure and goals; and (3) allowing work group members to connect with other organizational segments as well as the organization as a whole. Given these important functions, the degree to which work groups operate effectively is a critical determinant of the overall effectiveness of the organization.

Based on work by Bales (1950), Benne and Sheets (1948) found that group members assume social roles in order to influence the behavior of other group members. They identified three major classes of roles: those necessary to accomplish a task, those necessary to increase the supportive climate and cohesion of the group, and those necessary to satisfy their personal needs. Benne and Sheets labeled these three general classes as group task roles, group maintenance roles, and individual roles and said that effective team functioning requires a balance of the first two roles and a minimization of the last.

Their analysis provides the background for the following definition of team development or team building: Team development is the analysis of the relative strength of group task and maintenance roles in functionally interdependent teams for the purpose of establishing, restoring, or maintaining an adequate balance between these two roles in order for the team to function at its maximum potential.

The distinction between task and maintenance is scarcely a new one. The Ohio State Leadership Studies (Stogdill, 1974) clearly supported the notion of initiation of structure (task) and consideration for people (maintenance) as the two principal, independent axes for understanding leadership behavior. The extension of these dimensions to team work is natural.

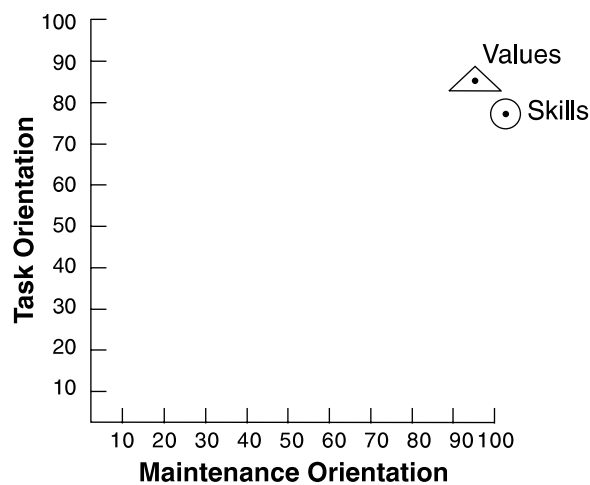
Following the work of Blake and Mouton (1964), the two dimensions can be plotted on a grid, with maintenance orientation on the horizontal axis and task orientation on the vertical axis. An additional element, the distinction between attitudes or values on the one hand and skill on the other, appears to be pertinent. One can hold a strong value toward task accomplishment but lack the specific skills for effective group work, such as agenda setting, summarizing, or integrating. Or a person may place a low value on group work, believing that groups and meetings are primarily a waste of time. Such a person might develop strong task skills, but these skills are typically acquired by people who set about to make groups and teams operate more effectively.

Similarly, a distinction can be made between values and skill in team members' maintenance orientation. Team members either value the support and cohesion that groups provide or they do not, and they either have the skills to enhance maintenance functions, like gatekeeping or checking on feelings, or they do not. It is more likely that

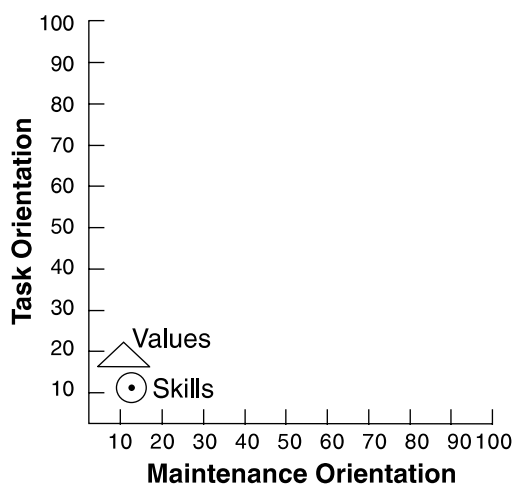
a person will value maintenance but lack maintenance skills than that a person will not value maintenance but possess the skills. A fully functioning team can be characterized as having members with a high value commitment to both task and maintenance and with high skills in both areas. Such a team profile is illustrated in Figure 1. This profile of a fully functioning team should be the goal of team-development activities.

Trainers and consultants frequently fail because they approach the problem as a lack of skills and do not work with the lack of appropriate values on the part of team members. This Lone Ranger profile is illustrated in Figure 2. The task is first to clarify values related to the use of teams, the synergy that teams can produce, when it is appropriate to use teams, and so on, then to concentrate on skill development.

Skills training is accomplished readily with group members who have high values but low skills, the Educably Retarded profile shown in Figure 3. In this situation, the



**Figure 1. The Fully Functioning Team Member Profile:
High Skills and High Values on Both Dimensions**



**Figure 2. The Lone Ranger Profile: Low Skills
and Low Values on Both Dimensions**

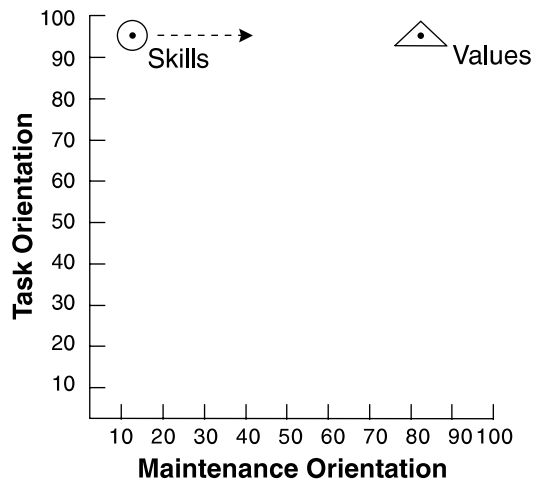


Figure 3. The Educably Retarded Profile: Weak Maintenance Skills with High(er) Maintenance Values

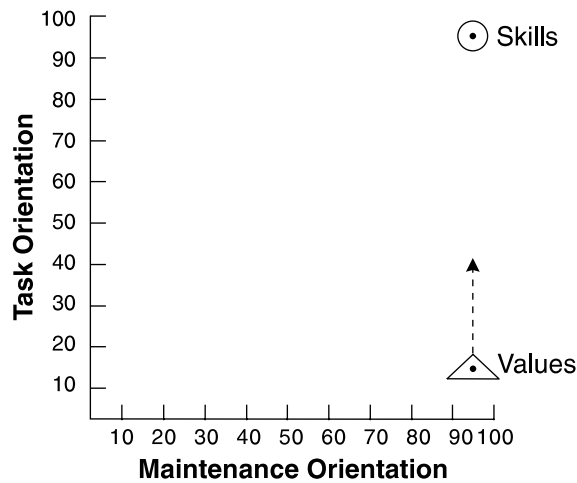


Figure 4. The Trainer/Consultant Profile: High Skills for Both Task and Maintenance But Higher Values for Maintenance than for Task Activities

group member values both task and maintenance, but has only good task skills, or has low task and low maintenance skills. The trainer must concentrate on increasing both sets of skills.

There are also some group members who have adequate skills in both task and maintenance but who tend to prize the maintenance functions so highly that little attention is paid to the task requirements. Such persons see groups as an opportunity to feel included, to practice their maintenance skills, and to feel good about themselves. This profile is often found among trainers and consultants and is shown in Figure 4 as the Trainer/Consultant profile. Such an orientation is appropriate for T-groups and personal-growth encounters, but not appropriate for work groups. Members with such an orientation are often a target of derision in work groups, and their lack of productivity is

often the focus of management concern. Value clarification rather than skill development is necessary here.

DESCRIPTION OF THE INSTRUMENT

The Team Orientation and Behavior Inventory (TOBI) was developed to help the trainer distinguish issues of values from issues of skills. It provides a yardstick for assessing how much needs to be done on each dimension to achieve a fully functioning team. Fifty-six self-report items were developed from the descriptions of task and maintenance originally developed by Benne and Sheets (1948) and more recently described by Hanson (1981). Half of the items (28) are concerned with task orientation, half of these (14) with task values and half (14) with task skills. The other half (28) are concerned with maintenance orientation, half (14) with maintenance values and half (14) with maintenance skills. In each of the fourteen subsets, four items are worded in the negative direction in order to reduce any positive response set.

All items are on a seven-point Likerttype response format with a score of 7 indicating that the respondent strongly agreed with the item or that the item is strongly descriptive of him or her. The scoring on the negatively worded items is reversed on the TOBI Scoring Sheet. The instrument yields four separate scores: task values; task skills; maintenance values; and maintenance skills. Scores on each scale potentially range from 14 to 98, with the higher scores indicating a higher self-reported value or skill in that area.

Reliability

The reliability estimates, expressed in alpha coefficients, are presented in Table 1. The reported values indicate that the four scales are reliable, that is, the obtained scores can be regarded as reasonably stable or reproducible.

Table 1. Reliability of Scale Score (Alpha Coefficients)

Task Orientation		Maintenance Orientation	
Values	Skills	Values	Skills
.74	.79	.81	.83

Validity

Early validity data on the TOBI indicate that ongoing work teams that are given high ratings by independent observers for effectiveness tend to produce scores in the high 70s and low 80s on all four scales. These fully functioning teams show very little difference in the four scores, and the intercept for both task and maintenance orientations is in the upper-right quadrant of the graph (see Figure 1). Teams rated as moderately effective

yielded scores in the high 60s, again with little difference in their four scores, except for occasional scores of 5055 on the maintenance-orientation scales.

USES OF THE INSTRUMENT

Administration

Although the instrument is self-administered, the trainer should read the instructions with the participants to make certain that they have no questions. The TOBI Scoring Sheet should not be distributed to the participants until after the instrument is completed. Rather than having participants score their own instruments, the trainer can collect the materials and score the items for the participants. Individual scores should be plotted on the TOBI Profiles Sheet, and a group profile should be constructed by averaging the group scores on each of the four scales.

For best use of the TOBI, the trainer should follow the recommended procedure from Pfeiffer & Ballew (1988). They recommend:

1. Administering the instrument;
2. Presenting the underlying theory to the group;
3. Helping participants to understand the instrument and to predict their scores;
4. Scoring the instrument;
5. Discussing the results;
6. Posting the results, openly or anonymously; and
7. Interpreting the results and discussing the implications of these results.

With Work Groups

Several potential uses for the TOBI can be found in team development with ongoing work groups: (1) the instrument can be used to assess the task and maintenance commitment and skills of a team and of the individuals on the team; (2) differences across teams can be assessed and compared; (3) posting of individual or team results provides a strong data base for assessing actual team development before and after team-building efforts; (4) the items also provide a starting point for team building by identifying desired attitudes and behavior; and (5) it provides a convenient research instrument for examining group profiles in various work settings.

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THE TEAM ORIENTATION AND BEHAVIOR INVENTORY (TOBI)

Leonard D. Goodstein, Phyliss Cooke, and Jeanette Goodstein

Instructions: Taking this instrument will help you to learn more about your attitudes toward teams and work groups as well as your behaviors in such groups. There are no right or wrong answers. You will learn more about yourself if you respond to each item as candidly as possible. Do not spend too much time deciding on an answer; use your first reaction. Circle one of the numbers next to each statement to indicate the degree to which that statement is true for you (or the degree to which that statement is descriptive of you).

- 1 = Strongly Disagree (very unlike me)
- 2 = Disagree (unlike me)
- 3 = Slightly Disagree (somewhat unlike me)
- 4 = Neither Agree nor Disagree (neither like nor unlike me)
- 5 = Slightly Agree (somewhat like me)
- 6 = Agree (like me)
- 7 = Strongly Agree (very like me)

- | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. I am often at a loss when attempting to reach a compromise among members of my group. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2. I am effective in ensuring that relevant data are used to make decisions in my group. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3. I find it difficult to summarize ideas expressed by members of the team. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4. I believe that the existence of positive feelings among team members is critical to the team's efforts. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 5. It often is important in my group to summarize the ideas and issues that are raised. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6. I think that, to be effective, the members of a team must be aware of what is occurring in the group. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 7. I am able to convey my interest in and support for the other members of my team. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

- 1 = Strongly Disagree (very unlike me)
 2 = Disagree (unlike me)
 3 = Slightly Disagree (somewhat unlike me)
 4 = Neither Agree nor Disagree (neither like nor unlike me)
 5 = Slightly Agree (somewhat like me)
 6 = Agree (like me)
 7 = Strongly Agree (very like me)

- | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 8. In my opinion, it is very important that team members be sources of support and encouragement for one another. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 9. I am effective in establishing an agenda and in reminding the other members of it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 10. I am particularly adept in observing the behaviors of other members | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 11. When the group becomes bogged down, it often is helpful if someone clarifies its goal or purpose. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 12. I frequently keep the group focused on the task at hand. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 13. I think that testing for members' commitment is one of the most important components of group decision making. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 14. In my opinion, summarizing what has occurred in the group usually is unnecessary. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 15. One of the things that I contribute to the team is my ability to support and encourage others. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 16. I think that examining the assumptions that underlie the group's decisions is not necessary in terms of the group's functioning. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 17. It is difficult for me to assess how well our team is doing. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 18. In my opinion, work groups are most productive if they restrict their discussions to task-related items. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

1 = Strongly Disagree (very unlike me)
 2 = Disagree (unlike me)
 3 = Slightly Disagree (somewhat unlike me)
 4 = Neither Agree nor Disagree (neither like nor unlike me)
 5 = Slightly Agree (somewhat like me)
 6 = Agree (like me)
 7 = Strongly Agree (very like me)

19.	I believe that for the team to regularly evaluate and critique its work is a waste of time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	In my opinion, it is very important that team members agree, before they begin to work, on the procedural rules to be followed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.	I think that, to be effective, a group member simultaneously must participate in the group and be aware of emerging group processes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.	It is really difficult for me to articulate where I think other members stand on issues.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23.	I am effective in helping to ensure that all members of the group have an opportunity to express their opinions before a final decision is made.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	I believe that one's feelings about how well the group is working are best kept to oneself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.	I am skillful in helping other group members to share their feelings about what is happening.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26.	I usually am able to help the group to examine the feasibility of a proposal.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27.	I believe that it is a waste of time to settle differences of opinion in the group.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28.	I often am unaware of existing group dynamics.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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 5 = Slightly Agree (somewhat like me)
 6 = Agree (like me)
 7 = Strongly Agree (very like me)

- | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 29. I do not think that the participation of all members is important as long as final agreement is achieved. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 30. I am skillful in organizing groups and teams to work effectively. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 31. I feel that, to be effective, group members must openly share their feelings about how well the group is doing. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 32. In my judgment, sharing feelings about how the group is doing is a waste of the members' time. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 33. When the group gets off the subject, I usually remind the other members of the task. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 34. One of the things that I do well is to solicit facts and opinions from the group members. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 35. Ascertaining the other members' points of view is something that I do particularly well. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 36. I think that it is important that my group stick to its agenda. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 37. In my opinion, an inability to clear up confusion among members can cause a team to fail. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 38. I feel that it is important to elicit the opinions of all members of the team. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 39. It is not easy for me to summarize the opinions of the other members of the team. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

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 6 = Agree (like me)
 7 = Strongly Agree (very like me)

40.	A contribution that I make to the group is to help the other members to build on one another's ideas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41.	I believe that the group can waste time in an excessive attempt to organize itself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42.	I believe that it is very important to reach a compromise when differences cannot be resolved in the group.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43.	I am effective in helping to reach constructive settlement of disagreements among group members.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44.	I am effective in establishing orderly procedures by which the team can work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45.	I think that effective teamwork results only if the team remains focused on the task at hand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46.	I am particularly effective in helping my group to evaluate the quality of its work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47.	In my opinion, it is important that the team establish methods by which it can evaluate the quality of its work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48.	I find it easy to express ideas and information to the other members of my group.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49.	In my judgment, searching for ideas and opinions is one of the criteria of an effective team.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50.	I believe that it is critical to settle disagreements among group members constructively.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- 1 = Strongly Disagree (very unlike me)
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 5 = Slightly Agree (somewhat like me)
 6 = Agree (like me)
 7 = Strongly Agree (very like me)

- | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 51. I believe that it is important that the members of the team understand one another's points of view. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 52. I am adept in making sure that reticent members have an opportunity to speak during the team's meetings. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 53. I think that the synergy that occurs among group members is one of the most important components of group problem solving. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 54. I rarely volunteer to state how I feel about the group while it is meeting. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 55. When my group wanders from the task at hand, it is difficult for me to interrupt the members and attempt to refocus them. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 56. I am able to restate clearly the ideas that are expressed in my group. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

TOBI SCORING SHEET

Name _____ Date _____

Instructions: Transfer your scores from the response sheets directly onto this scoring sheet.

Task Orientation				Maintenance Orientation			
<i>Values</i>		<i>Skills</i>		<i>Values</i>		<i>Skills</i>	
Item Number	Your Score	Item Number	Your Score	Item Number	Your Score	Item Number	Your Score
5.	_____	3.	_____ *	4.	_____	1.	_____ *
11.	_____	9.	_____	6.	_____	2.	_____
14.	_____ *	12.	_____	8.	_____	7.	_____
18.	_____	17.	_____ *	13.	_____ *	10.	_____
19.	_____ *	30.	_____	16.	_____	15.	_____
20.	_____	33.	_____	21.	_____	22.	_____ *
32.	_____ *	34.	_____	24.	_____ *	23.	_____
36.	_____	39.	_____ *	27.	_____ *	25.	_____
38.	_____	40.	_____	29.	_____ *	26.	_____
41.	_____ *	44.	_____	31.	_____	28.	_____ *
45.	_____	46.	_____	37.	_____	35.	_____
47.	_____	48.	_____	42.	_____	43.	_____
49.	_____	55.	_____ *	50.	_____	52.	_____
53.	_____	56.	_____	51.	_____	54.	_____ *
TOTAL	_____	TOTAL	_____	TOTAL	_____	TOTAL	_____

* Reverse score item. Change your score as follows:

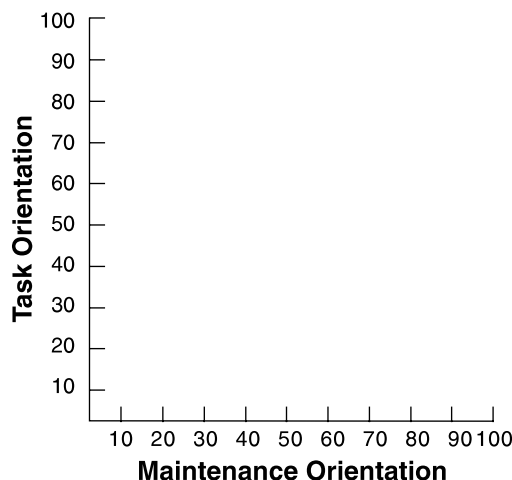
1 = 7	3 = 5	5 = 3	7 = 1
2 = 6	4 = 4	6 = 2	

TOBI PROFILE SHEET

Name _____ Date _____

Instructions: Plot your values score by finding the place on the graph where your total scores on the task-values scale and on the maintenance-values scale intersect. For example, if your task-values score is 40 and your maintenance-values score is 35, find where 40 on the vertical axis and 35 on the horizontal axis intersect. Mark that spot with a small triangle.

Now plot your skills score by finding the place on the graph where your scores on the task-skills scale and on the maintenance-skills scale intersect. Mark that spot with a small circle.



Interpretation Suggestions:

Individual: Compare your two points. Are they more or less at the same level? Which of the four profiles described earlier does your profile resemble? How strong is your personal commitment to your values? Do you need skills enhancement? What are your action steps?

Group: Compare your scores with the scores of the rest of your team. How do these scores help in understanding how your team conducts its business? Which team members are most committed to task? To maintenance? Who has the highest task-skill scores? The highest maintenance-skill scores? How do these compare with the group's perception? How can the team use its resources to improve its functioning?

■ TORI GROUP SELF-DIAGNOSIS SCALE

Jack R. Gibb

TORI theory focuses on *trust level* as a primary determiner of the effectiveness and productivity of groups. Research indicates that trust level is correlated with productivity, creativity, personal growth, and other positive system outcomes. The theory has been applied to group and team training in industrial, educational, and religious systems.

The four primary aspects of trust are considered: Trust, Openness, Realization, and Interdependence (TORI). When the trust level is high, the behavior of members of the group is more personal, more open, more self-determining, and more interdependent. When the trust level is low, members' behavior becomes more impersonal, closed, "ought"-determined, and more dependent or counterdependent. The scale given here is an experimental attempt to measure these four aspects of trust.

SUGGESTIONS FOR USING THE SCALE

Any group will find the scale relevant: work teams, families, personal growth groups, encounter groups, management teams, classrooms, therapy groups, athletic teams, or any group of from five to two hundred members who see themselves as working, playing, or learning together. Some of the particular ways the scale may be used:

- Any leader, facilitator, consultant, convener, teacher, or other group leader might use the instrument prior to the life of the group or early in the group's life to get an indication of group development on the aspects tested.
- Any member of such a group might take the instrument independently to get an idea of his or her own trust of the group or feelings about the group climate.
- Someone doing action research on a series of comparable groups (work teams in the same company; personal growth groups in a learning laboratory; athletic teams in the same league; classrooms in the same school, etc.) might use the scale as a pre and posttest to see the relative changes that occur in comparable groups.
- The instrument is probably best used as a self-diagnostic instrument for individuals to study their own responses: how they see themselves and how they see the group in terms of trust, openness, self-determination, and interdependence.
- This and other measures have been used successfully in large business organizations to track the progress of trust and productivity and other variables in doing "consultantless team building"—using the resources of line management without internal or external OD consultants.

- The instrument may be used as a guide and focus point for exploring an individual's own experiences as a member of a personal growth group or a work group. It provides a useful frame of reference for looking at a person's own trust/fear level and the effects of this level on (a) personal growth and (b) effectiveness as a team or community leader. The theory states that when a person is trusting, knows who he or she is, is able to show that person to others, is aware of his or her own wants, is able to express those wants and to realize them, and is able to live interdependently with others in productive and fulfilling ways, that person is to that degree able to live effectively in all life situations.
- A group or team can look at specific responses of team members to selected items, using these data to examine group processes in focused, specific, and relevant ways. The facilitator can have members suggest particular items on which there will be a "show of hands" for each response.

REFERENCE

Gibb, J.R. (1972). TORI theory and practice. In J.W. Pfeiffer & J.E. Jones (Eds.), *The 1972 annual handbook for group facilitators*. San Diego, CA: Pfeiffer & Company.

TORI GROUP SELF-DIAGNOSIS SCALE

Jack R. Gibb

Instructions: In front of each of the following items, place the letter that corresponds to your degree of agreement or disagreement with that statement.

SD = Strongly Disagree D = Disagree A = Agree SA = Strongly Agree

- _____ 1. I feel that no matter what I might do, this group would understand and accept me.
- _____ 2. I feel that there are large areas of me that I don't share with this group.
- _____ 3. I assert myself in this group.
- _____ 4. I seldom seek help from this group.
- _____ 5. Members of this group trust one another very much.
- _____ 6. Members of this group are not really interested in what others have to say.
- _____ 7. The group exerts no pressures on the group members to do what they should be doing.
- _____ 8. Everyone in this group does his or her own thing with little thought for others.
- _____ 9. I feel that I have been very cautious in this group.
- _____ 10. I feel little need to cover up things when I am in this group.
- _____ 11. I do only what I am supposed to do in this group.
- _____ 12. I find that everyone in this group is willing to help me when I want help or ask for it.
- _____ 13. The members of the group are more interested in getting something done than in caring for one another as individuals.
- _____ 14. Members of this group tell it like it is.
- _____ 15. Members do what they ought to do in this group, out of a sense of responsibility to the group.
- _____ 16. This group really "has it together" at a deep level.
- _____ 17. I trust the members of this group.
- _____ 18. I am afraid that if I showed my real innermost thoughts in this group, people would be shocked.
- _____ 19. In this group, I feel free to do what I want to do.
- _____ 20. I often feel that I am a minority in this group.
- _____ 21. People in this group seem to know who they are; they have a real sense of being individuals.

- _____22. Group members are very careful to express only relevant ideas about the group's task or goal.
- _____23. The goals of this group are clear to everyone in the group.
- _____24. The group finds it difficult to get together and do something it has decided to do.
- _____25. If I left this group, the members would miss me very little.
- _____26. I can trust this group with my most private and significant feelings and opinions.
- _____27. I find that my goals are different from the goals of this group.
- _____28. I look forward to getting together with this group.
- _____29. People are playing roles in this group and not being themselves.
- _____30. In this group we really know one another well.
- _____31. This group puts pressure on each member to work toward group goals.
- _____32. This group would be able to handle an emergency very well.
- _____33. When I am in this group I feel very good about myself as a person.
- _____34. If I have negative feelings in this group, I do not express them easily.
- _____35. It is easy for me to take risks in this group.
- _____36. I often go along with the group simply because I feel a sense of obligation to it.
- _____37. Members seem to care very much for one another as individuals.
- _____38. Members often express different feelings and opinions outside the group than they express inside.
- _____39. This group really lets people be where they are and who they are.
- _____40. Members of this group like either to lead or to be led, rather than to work together with others as equals.
- _____41. My relationship to this group is a very impersonal one.
- _____42. Whenever I feel strongly about something in this group I feel easy about expressing it.
- _____43. I feel that I have to keep myself under wraps in here.
- _____44. I enjoy working with members of this group.
- _____45. Each member of the group seems to play a definite and clear role and is respected on the basis of how well he or she performs that role.
- _____46. Whenever there are negative feelings in this group, they are likely to be expressed at some point.
- _____47. At times the members seem very apathetic and passive.

- _____48. As a group we are well integrated at many levels.
- _____49. I feel like a unique person in this group.
- _____50. I would feel very vulnerable if I told this group my most secret and private feelings and opinions.
- _____51. The group feels that my personal growth is important.
- _____52. I don't often feel like cooperating with others in this group.
- _____53. Group members have a high opinion of my contributions to the group.
- _____54. Members of the group are afraid to be open and honest with the group.
- _____55. When decisions are being made, members quickly express what they want.
- _____56. People in this group are individuals and do not work together as members of a team.
- _____57. I don't feel very good about myself in here.
- _____58. In this group I feel free to be exactly who I am and never have to pretend I am something else.
- _____59. It is very important that I meet others' expectations in this group.
- _____60. I would miss anyone who left the group, because each of the members is important to the group in what it is trying to do.
- _____61. It is easy to tell who the "in" people are in this group.
- _____62. Group members listen to the other members with understanding and empathy.
- _____63. The group spends a lot of energy trying to get members to do things they don't really want to do.
- _____64. Group members enjoy being with one another.
- _____65. I am an important member of this group.
- _____66. My ideas and opinions are distorted by the group.
- _____67. My goals are similar to the goals of the total group.
- _____68. Group members seldom give me help on the things that really matter to me.
- _____69. Members listen to the things I say in this group.
- _____70. In here, if people feel negative they keep it to themselves.
- _____71. This group has a lot of energy that gets directed into whatever we do.
- _____72. You really have to have some power if you want to get anything done in this group.
- _____73. I don't feel very genuine and real in this group.
- _____74. There is hardly anything I don't know about the members of this group.
- _____75. If I did what I wanted to do in this group, I would be doing different things from what I am now doing.

- ____ 76. I am aware of the ways that the group members help me in what I am trying to do.
- ____ 77. Some members are afraid of the group.
- ____ 78. The members of this group are very spontaneous and uninhibited when they are around one another.
- ____ 79. The goals of this group are often not really clear.
- ____ 80. This group works together as a smoothly functioning team.
- ____ 81. I care very much for the people in this group.
- ____ 82. The group misunderstands me and how I feel.
- ____ 83. When we reach a decision about a goal, I am usually in complete agreement with the goal.
- ____ 84. I have no real sense of belonging to this group.
- ____ 85. The group treats each person in the group as an important member.
- ____ 86. It is easy to express feelings in here if they are positive, but not if they are negative.
- ____ 87. Members of this group are growing and changing all the time.
- ____ 88. We need a lot of controls in here to keep the group on track.
- ____ 89. I often feel defensive in here.
- ____ 90. I keep very few secrets from this group.
- ____ 91. It is not OK to be myself in this group.
- ____ 92. I feel a strong sense of belonging to this group.
- ____ 93. It is easy to tell who the important members of this group are.
- ____ 94. We don't keep secrets in this group.
- ____ 95. A lot of our energy goes into irrelevant and unimportant things.
- ____ 96. There is little destructive competition in this group.

TORI GROUP SELF-DIAGNOSIS SCALE SCORE SHEET

Instructions: The TORI Group Self-Diagnosis Scale yields eight scores: four depicting how you see yourself in this group in terms of the four core growth processes (Trust, Openness, Realization, and Interdependence) and four capturing your sense of the group itself. The scoring is simple and easy, even though it looks complicated. Look back at the items for one of the eight scales on the instrument to see how you responded. On the Score Sheet, circle your response for each item according to whether you marked “Strongly Disagree,” “Disagree,” etc. Then sum the item scores for that scale. Do the same for each scale.

Trust					Openness					Realization					Interdependence				
Item Score					Item Score					Item Score					Item Score				
Item	SD	D	A	SA	Item	SD	D	A	SA	Item	SD	D	A	SA	Item	SD	D	A	SA
1.	0	1	2	3	2.	3	2	1	0	3.	0	1	2	3	4.	3	2	1	0
9.	3	2	1	0	10.	0	1	2	3	11.	3	2	1	0	12.	0	1	2	3
17.	0	1	2	3	18.	3	2	1	0	19.	0	1	2	3	20.	3	2	1	0
25.	3	2	1	0	26.	0	1	2	3	27.	3	2	1	0	28.	0	1	2	3
33.	0	1	2	3	34.	3	2	1	0	35.	0	1	2	3	36.	3	2	1	0
41.	3	2	1	0	42.	0	1	2	3	43.	3	2	1	0	44.	0	1	2	3
49.	0	1	2	3	50.	3	2	1	0	51.	0	1	2	3	52.	3	2	1	0
57.	3	2	1	0	58.	0	1	2	3	59.	3	2	1	0	60.	0	1	2	3
65.	0	1	2	3	66.	3	2	1	0	67.	0	1	2	3	68.	3	2	1	0
73.	3	2	1	0	74.	0	1	2	3	75.	3	2	1	0	76.	0	1	2	3
81.	0	1	2	3	82.	3	2	1	0	83.	0	1	2	3	84.	3	2	1	0
89.	3	2	1	0	90.	0	1	2	3	91.	3	2	1	0	92.	0	1	2	3

How I
See
Myself
in This
Group

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Group Norms

Score	Number
36	_____
33-35	_____
30-32	_____
27-29	_____
24-26	_____
21-23	_____
18-20	_____
15-17	_____
12-14	_____
9-11	_____
6-8	_____
3-5	_____
0-2	_____

Group Norms

Score	Number
36	_____
33-35	_____
30-32	_____
27-29	_____
24-26	_____
21-23	_____
18-20	_____
15-17	_____
12-14	_____
9-11	_____
6-8	_____
3-5	_____
0-2	_____

Group Norms

Score	Number
36	_____
33-35	_____
30-32	_____
27-29	_____
24-26	_____
21-23	_____
18-20	_____
15-17	_____
12-14	_____
9-11	_____
6-8	_____
3-5	_____
0-2	_____

Group Norms

Score	Number
36	_____
33-35	_____
30-32	_____
27-29	_____
24-26	_____
21-23	_____
18-20	_____
15-17	_____
12-14	_____
9-11	_____
6-8	_____
3-5	_____
0-2	_____

Trust					Openness					Realization					Interdependence				
<i>Item Score</i>					<i>Item Score</i>					<i>Item Score</i>					<i>Item Score</i>				
<i>Item</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Item</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Item</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Item</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>SA</i>
5.	0	1	2	3	6.	3	2	1	0	7.	0	1	2	3	8.	3	2	1	0
13.	3	2	1	0	14.	0	1	2	3	15.	3	2	1	0	16.	0	1	2	3
21.	0	1	2	3	22.	3	2	1	0	23.	0	1	2	3	24.	3	2	1	0
29.	3	2	1	0	30.	0	1	2	3	31.	3	2	1	0	32.	0	1	2	3
37.	0	1	2	3	38.	3	2	1	0	39.	0	1	2	3	40.	3	2	1	0
45.	3	2	1	0	46.	0	1	2	3	47.	3	2	1	0	48.	0	1	2	3
53.	0	1	2	3	54.	3	2	1	0	55.	0	1	2	3	56.	3	2	1	0
61.	3	2	1	0	62.	0	1	2	3	63.	3	2	1	0	64.	0	1	2	3
69.	0	1	2	3	70.	3	2	1	0	71.	0	1	2	3	72.	3	2	1	0
77.	3	2	1	0	78.	0	1	2	3	79.	3	2	1	0	80.	0	1	2	3
85.	0	1	2	3	86.	3	2	1	0	87.	0	1	2	3	88.	3	2	1	0
93.	3	2	1	0	94.	0	1	2	3	95.	3	2	1	0	96.	0	1	2	3

How I
See
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Group

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Group Norms

<i>Score</i>	<i>Number</i>
36	_____
33-35	_____
30-32	_____
27-29	_____
24-26	_____
21-23	_____
18-20	_____
15-17	_____
12-14	_____
9-11	_____
6-8	_____
3-5	_____
0-2	_____

Group Norms

<i>Score</i>	<i>Number</i>
36	_____
33-35	_____
30-32	_____
27-29	_____
24-26	_____
21-23	_____
18-20	_____
15-17	_____
12-14	_____
9-11	_____
6-8	_____
3-5	_____
0-2	_____

Group Norms

<i>Score</i>	<i>Number</i>
36	_____
33-35	_____
30-32	_____
27-29	_____
24-26	_____
21-23	_____
18-20	_____
15-17	_____
12-14	_____
9-11	_____
6-8	_____
3-5	_____
0-2	_____

Group Norms

<i>Score</i>	<i>Number</i>
36	_____
33-35	_____
30-32	_____
27-29	_____
24-26	_____
21-23	_____
18-20	_____
15-17	_____
12-14	_____
9-11	_____
6-8	_____
3-5	_____
0-2	_____

TORI GROUP SELF-DIAGNOSIS SCALE INTERPRETATION SHEET

Trust

A person who scores *high* on this set of items is saying:

Self

“As a member of this group, I trust myself, have a well-formed sense of being and uniqueness, and feel good about myself as a person.”

Group

“I trust the group, see the group climate as trusting and as a good environment for me and other members.”

A person who scores *low* on this set of items is saying:

Self

“As a member I feel distrustful, have a low sense of being, and don’t feel very good about myself as a person.”

Group

“I distrust the group, see members as being impersonal and staying in roles, and see the group as a threatening and defense-producing environment for me and for other members.”

Openness

A person who scores *high* on this set of items is saying:

Self

“As a member I feel free to be myself in this group, show who I am, and express my feelings and attitudes with little pretense or cover-up.”

Group

“I see the group as open and spontaneous and the members as willing to show themselves to one another.”

A person who scores *low* on this set of items is saying:

Self

“As a member I feel vulnerable and unsafe in here, and I think that it is necessary to keep large areas of myself private and unshared.”

Group

“I see the group as fearful, cautious, and unwilling to show feelings and opinions, particularly those feelings and opinions that are negative or nonsupportive.”

Realization

A person who scores *high* on this set of items is saying:

Self

“As a member I feel free to take risks, assert myself, do anything I really want to do, and follow my intrinsic motivations. I have a sense of self-realization in this group.”

Group

“I see the group as allowing freedom for being and as creating a good environment for the directing of energies toward emergent and intrinsic goals.”

A person who scores *low* on this set of items is saying:

Self

“I am aware of the pressure of extrinsic motivations. I feel that I must try to do what I am supposed to do and that I must attempt to meet the expectations of other members of the group.”

Group

“I see the group exerting pressures on members to conform, to do things they may not wish to do, and to work toward group goals regardless of the perceived relevance or significance of these goals.”

Interdependence

A person who scores *high* on this set of items is saying:

Self

“As a member I feel free, have a strong sense of belonging to the group, and enjoy working with, helping, or meeting with the other group members.”

Group

“I see the group as a smoothly functioning unit, well integrated on several levels, and working effectively and cooperatively.”

A person who scores *low* on this set of items is saying:

Self

“I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to the group and do not enjoy working with others in a ‘team’ way; I have competitive, dependent, aggressive or other feelings that get in the way of team effort.”

Group

“I see the group as unintegrated, unable to work well as a team, and missing significant ingredients necessary for truly effective functioning on task or maintenance levels.”

The Basic TORI Processes	Processes in the Person	Movement of Behavioral Growth	Processes in the Group and Other Social Systems
T —Trust	Being who I am	From role and impersonal toward personal	Trust and acceptance of other members
O —Openness	Showing who I am	From closed and strategic toward open	Open feedback system
R —Realization	Doing what I want	From imposed toward self-determining	Consensual goal setting and goal-directed movement
I —Interdependence	Being with others	From dependent or rebellious toward interdependent	Interdependence of system elements

■ TRUST-ORIENTATION PROFILE

Myron R. Chartier

BACKGROUND

Trust is the basis of human relationships; it grounds much of intellectual and scientific research; and it supports the ethical norms of human behavior. Indeed, trust is fundamental to much human experience. Yet, if one looks at the history of human thinking, from the radical doubt of Descartes to the nihilism of modern philosophy, one discovers that this fundamental human attitude is a rare commodity. Gibb (1978, p. 13) writes: “. . .our present national culture—social, economic, even artistic, as well as political—is inhospitable to trust.” Global and cultural realities do not reinforce efforts to build trust. Terrorist activities around the world and the displacement of people from their homes and their countries quickly provide a picture of mistrust and fear. Trust does not come naturally; people must want it and work for it.

Trust is difficult to achieve. People must engage in consistent hard work to obtain it, for trust grows slowly. The task is more difficult because human beings are finite in nature; they are limited by space, time, and energy. These constraints impose limitations on the building of trust. Because of the complex dynamics surrounding trust, it cannot be built in a short period of time and have lasting value. It takes time, physical presence, and human energy.

However, as trust between people grows, behaviors change and interpersonal dynamics are transformed. Diverse skills and abilities become recognized and appreciated as strengths. People begin to accept one another's attitudes and feelings; they learn to be themselves instead of playing roles. As trust grows, the barriers that prevent candor and openness lessen. People become more expressive, impulsive, frank, and spontaneous. Their communication is efficient and clear. They risk conflict and confrontation, opening the doors to deeper communication, involvement, and commitment. Congestion and blocking lessen. The flow of data is open and uninhibited; indeed, information that is “negative” is highly valued. Hiding negative information and not being willing to listen to negative data can ruin a relationship. When trust is present, people gather data quickly and make decisions effectively. These principles are as true in work teams as they are in other interpersonal relationships.

CREATING AND MAINTAINING TRUST

The creation of trust calls for a collage of personal characteristics and attitudes. Figure 1 presents various personal characteristics, attitudes, and behaviors that contribute to a climate of trust and those that contribute to a climate of mistrust.

Trust-Building Characteristics and Attitudes	Mistrust-Building Characteristics and Attitudes
Open	Closed
Supportive	Controlling
Willing to Risk	Unwilling to Risk
Respectful	Disrespectful
Genuine	Hypocritical
Cooperative	Competitive
Mutual	Superior
Problem Centered	Solution Minded
Accepting and Warm	Rejecting and Cold
Dependable	Capricious
Expert	Inept
Accountable	Unaccountable

Figure 1. Contributors to Trusting Versus Mistrusting

These items demonstrate the complexity of trust. All of these positive characteristics, attitudes, and behaviors do not have to be present for a trustworthy climate to exist. However, the trust level depends on the degree to which some or all are present. Mistrust will be present to the degree that the negative characteristics, attitudes, and behaviors are present. Each of the pairs of characteristics is described more fully in the Trust-Orientation Profile Interpretation Sheet.

THE INSTRUMENT

The Trust-Orientation Profile is useful in a number of ways: (1) as a survey of the trust climate in interpersonal relationships; (2) as a survey of the trust climate within a team or an organization; and (3) as a tool for team-building and team-development sessions

with coworkers. The potential value of this instrument is higher in the context of interpersonal and team relationships than it is when used by individuals.

Format

The Trust-Orientation Profile contains twenty-four items, each consisting of two statements. Respondents distribute five points between the two alternatives (A and B) based on how they actually behave or feel or how they actually perceive the situation.

Scoring

Respondents transfer their point scores to the scoring matrix and compute totals. Two items (four statements) are associated with each of twelve dimensions of trust. Respondents calculate trust/mistrust ratios for themselves on each of the twelve dimensions and for trust as a whole.

Validity and Reliability

No reliability or validity data are available on the instrument, but it does have face validity. It can be used for the stated objectives and for planning action steps for turning desired qualities into reality.

Interpretation

After respondents have completed the instrument, they should be given the theory associated with the Trust-Orientation Profile, including an explanation of the twelve dimensions of trust orientation. Respondents then should be asked to predict their own scores. After the scoring process, the theory sheets should be distributed and the facilitator should be available to help with interpreting scores. Scores can be posted, and the respondents should be asked to discuss both the process and the results.

CONCLUSION

Even when trust has been built, it can be demolished quickly and easily. One misguided action can erase trust that has taken months or years to build. When trust is betrayed, hurt, anger, fear, and defensiveness arise and people take on self-protecting roles. Once a trusting relationship is violated, a predictable pattern of diminishing confidence takes place. If a person lies to another person, trust collapses instantly. Suspicion is aroused, causing one to question whether the relationship had ever been honest. People may try to rebuild a relationship after a breach, but they can rarely restore it to its prior state. If that same person lies a second time, the relationship stands little chance of survival. At best, it becomes filled with doubt, suspicion, and mistrust, becoming barely functional.

Trust must be nurtured and maintained if people are to enjoy their interpersonal relationships and attain their objectives. Trust building takes hard work, time, and energy; it also involves risk. The challenge is to become trustworthy persons to one

another, constantly investing the time and energy it takes and being willing to take the necessary risks. For trust to grow and deepen, each person needs to be a person worthy of trust and must continue to earn the right to be trusted.

Contemporary organizations are presented with complex problems that require multiple perspectives to understand and to resolve. In such settings, teamwork becomes more and more important. Solutions increasingly will come as a result of collaborative action by groups of individuals who have multiple motives, objectives, and energies but who can focus on a single objective. Effective teams are those whose members work well together, and the ability to work well together flourishes in an atmosphere of trust. Team development through trust building thus seems to be a major agenda item for organizations today. The Trust-Oriented Profile is useful not only as a climate survey of trust but also as a tool for team-building and team-development sessions.

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TRUST-ORIENTATION PROFILE

Myron R. Chartier

Instructions: For each of the situations described below, you are to distribute five points between two alternatives (A and B). Base your answers on how you actually behave or feel or how you actually perceive the situation, not on how you think you should respond. Although some sets of alternatives might seem to be equally true, assign more points to the alternative that is more representative of your personal experience.

1. If A is completely characteristic of you or your views and B is completely uncharacteristic, write 5 under A and 0 under B.
2. If A is considerably characteristic of you and B is somewhat characteristic, write 4 under A and 1 under B.
3. If A is only slightly more characteristic of you than B, write 3 under A and 2 under B.
4. Each of the above three combinations may be reversed. If you feel B is slightly more characteristic of you than A, write 2 under A and 3 under B, and so on for A = 1 and B = 4, or A = 0 and B = 5.

Be sure the numbers you assign to each pair add up to 5.

1. _____ (A) My coworkers have all the knowledge and experience they need to do their jobs effectively.
_____ (B) My coworkers seem to lack the knowledge and/or experience they need to do their jobs effectively.
2. _____ (A) I cannot predict how my coworkers will respond in a given situation.
_____ (B) I can predict how my coworkers will respond in a given situation.
3. _____ (A) I share my honest thoughts and feelings with my coworkers.
_____ (B) I keep my honest thoughts and feelings to myself.
4. _____ (A) I help my coworkers to see what their goals and concerns should be.
_____ (B) I let my coworkers know that I understand and appreciate their individual goals and concerns.
5. _____ (A) I trust my coworkers; I believe they won't let me down.
_____ (B) I "play it safe" and trust only myself; this way no one else can let me down.
6. _____ (A) I am not convinced that each of my coworkers is worthy of my respect.
_____ (B) I respect my coworkers; each of them has a unique contribution to make.

7. ____ (A) I encourage my coworkers to comment on their thoughts and feelings.
____ (B) I would prefer not to hear my coworkers' expressions of their thoughts and feelings.
8. ____ (A) I believe in the old saying "Do as I say, not as I do."
____ (B) I say what I mean and mean what I say.
9. ____ (A) When I am in a bind, I know I can depend on my coworkers to help me out.
____ (B) When I am in a bind, I have to rely exclusively on myself.
10. ____ (A) My abilities are superior to those of my coworkers.
____ (B) My coworkers and I are all at the same level of competence.
11. ____ (A) I let myself be vulnerable with my coworkers.
____ (B) I protect myself and try not to be vulnerable with my coworkers.
12. ____ (A) The term "commitment" doesn't seem to mean much to my coworkers.
____ (B) I can depend on my coworkers to follow through on their commitments.
13. ____ (A) My coworkers and I cooperate with one another.
____ (B) My coworkers and I compete with one another.
14. ____ (A) My coworkers behave as if they think they are better than I am.
____ (B) My coworkers treat me as an equal.
15. ____ (A) I can count on my coworkers to meet the deadlines and performance standards defined for their work.
____ (B) I cannot count on my coworkers to meet their deadlines and performance standards.
16. ____ (A) When faced with a problem, I figure out the best solution and present my idea to my coworkers.
____ (B) When faced with a problem, I collaborate with my coworkers to define the problem, explore alternatives, and arrive at a solution.
17. ____ (A) My team is warm, accepting, and free of hostility.
____ (B) There is hostility in my team.
18. ____ (A) I cannot rely on my coworkers.
____ (B) I can rely on my coworkers.
19. ____ (A) My coworkers and I are knowledgeable and experienced in our respective skill areas and in our ability to interact with one another.
____ (B) My coworkers and I lack the knowledge and experience to function as effectively as we might.

20. _____ (A) I wonder if my coworkers appreciate my work; I sometimes think they question the value of my contributions.
_____ (B) I know that my coworkers are concerned about my well-being; they “play fairly” and respect my unique contributions.
21. _____ (A) My coworkers hold themselves accountable for their work.
_____ (B) My coworkers do not hold themselves accountable for their work.
22. _____ (A) I prefer my own solutions to problems.
_____ (B) I am willing to accept solutions proposed by my coworkers.
23. _____ (A) No matter what I share with my team members, they are not judgmental.
_____ (B) I am careful about what I share with my team members because they may judge me harshly.
24. _____ (A) I assume that my coworkers could use my help in doing their jobs.
_____ (B) I assume that my coworkers are capable of doing their jobs.

TRUST-ORIENTATION PROFILE SCORING SHEET

CHARACTERISTIC	TRUST	MISTRUST
Open Versus Closed	3A _____	3B _____
	7A _____	7B _____
Willing to Risk Versus Unwilling to Risk	5A _____	5B _____
	11A _____	11B _____
Cooperative Versus Competitive	9A _____	9B _____
	13A _____	13B _____
Accepting and Warm Versus Rejecting and Cold	17A _____	17B _____
	23A _____	23B _____
Expert Versus Inept	1A _____	1B _____
	19A _____	19B _____
Accountable Versus Unaccountable	15A _____	15B _____
	21A _____	21B _____
Supportive Versus Controlling	4B _____	4A _____
	24B _____	24A _____
Respectful Versus Disrespectful	6B _____	6A _____
	20B _____	20A _____
Genuine Versus Hypocritical	8B _____	8A _____
	12B _____	12A _____
Mutual Versus Superior	10B _____	10A _____
	14B _____	14A _____
Open Minded About Problems Versus Fixated on Predetermined Solutions	16B _____	16A _____
	22B _____	22A _____
Dependable Versus Capricious	2B _____	2A _____
	18B _____	18A _____
TOTALS		

TRUST-ORIENTATION PROFILE INTERPRETATION SHEET

Instructions: Transfer your scores from the scoring sheet to the lines that follow in order to compute your trust-orientation score.

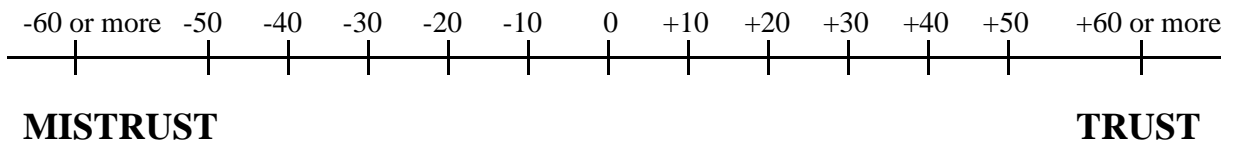
Total Trust Score _____

Minus _____

Total Mistrust Score _____

Trust Orientation

Plot your trust-orientation score on the continuum that follows.



TRUST-ORIENTATION PROFILE THEORY SHEET

The following descriptions contrast the characteristics that build trust to those that build mistrust. Read this interpretation sheet in the context of your personal trust and mistrust scores. You may want to pay particular attention to mistrust items to which you assigned four or five points.

OPEN VERSUS CLOSED

Open people share their innermost thoughts and feelings with others and are receptive to data, ideas, perceptions, and feelings. Closed people keep their thoughts and feelings to themselves and project an attitude of being nonreceptive to others' communications. Every person has a right to not share certain thoughts and aspects of his or her life. However, effective interpersonal relationships are impossible when information is deliberately kept from others or is ignored. Shared information contributes to trust between people. In order to create a climate of mutual trust, people must be appropriately open with one another.

SUPPORTIVE VERSUS CONTROLLING

The supportive person seeks to be encouraging; reassuring; and understanding of others, their agendas, and their goals. The controlling person tries to bind others to his or her desires and wishes, operating on the assumption that others are inadequate and need to be dominated by someone who "has it together." Supportiveness creates a climate of trust, whereas control engenders a climate of resistance and defensiveness. It is easy to trust supportive persons. A supportive attitude among people contributes to a trustworthy climate in which effective interpersonal relationships are possible.

WILLING TO RISK VERSUS UNWILLING TO RISK

To trust another person is risky; a decision to trust can lead to either good or bad consequences. To entrust one's well-being to another person makes a person vulnerable. Risking is the process of deciding to accept potentially adverse results that may come from trusting another. The greater the risk involved, the more one is required to trust another. Taking such risks with others creates a trusting climate because it communicates trust. Playing it safe communicates one's unwillingness to trust and fails to generate trust among people.

RESPECTFUL VERSUS DISRESPECTFUL

Situations in which people are convinced that others respect them for who they are and for what they have to contribute are conducive to trust. Knowing that others are

concerned about one's well-being goes a long way in helping a person to believe that the risk of trust is worthwhile. In situations in which verbal or even physical abuse takes place, fear overwhelms the bonds of trust and impedes effective interpersonal relationships. Respectful people look out for one another's welfare and thereby create a climate of trust.

GENUINE VERSUS HYPOCRITICAL

A genuine person is a person of integrity. The genuine person's thoughts, feelings, and actions are consistent. It is difficult to trust someone whose words and conduct are inconsistent. If one can never be certain about the meaning of another's words, true intentions, or actions, he or she experiences the other person as hypocritical. Genuine people are honest. Trusting them comes easily because they say what they mean; they clarify their intentions; and they follow through on their promises. Interpersonal relationships are enhanced when people are genuine.

COOPERATIVE VERSUS COMPETITIVE

A cooperative attitude builds trust; when people experience a spirit of cooperation, they share relevant information openly, clearly, and honestly. In a competitive atmosphere, communication is either lacking or misleading. Whereas cooperation requires teamwork to achieve common goals, competition stresses personal objectives at the expense of common objectives. When a competitive spirit pervades the climate, trust may be difficult to achieve; fear and defensiveness are the likely result. On the other hand, the give-and-take of cooperation builds a fellowship of trust among people.

MUTUAL VERSUS SUPERIOR

When people communicate that they feel superior to others, a climate conducive to mistrust and defensiveness is assured. When people sense a spirit of mutuality, an environment conducive to openness and trustworthiness results. Mutuality makes it possible for people to resolve issues through problem solving. There is a desire for two-way communication; power is shared; role status is minimized; and appreciation of individuals is maximized. Each person's self-worth is valued. A spirit of mutuality generates a trustworthy climate in which each person's abilities and interests are valued and nurtured.

PROBLEM CENTERED VERSUS SOLUTION MINDED

People with a problem-centered attitude work collaboratively to define problems, explore alternatives, and arrive at solutions. They have no preplanned solutions and encourage others to set goals, make decisions, and evaluate progress in light of the nature of the problem and the various alternatives open to them. Solution-minded people

assume that recognizing a problem is equivalent to understanding it. They are quick to arrive at solutions and fail to explore the nature of the problem. They often have a strong tendency to impose their answers on others. Adopting an immediate-solution approach tends to generate negative feelings, a divisive climate, and an atmosphere of endless argumentation and fruitless debate.

ACCEPTING AND WARM VERSUS REJECTING AND COLD

An accepting, warm attitude is a major contributor to trust building. On the other hand, a rejecting, cold attitude creates feelings of rejection, low self-esteem, and hostility, which lead to mistrust and suspicion. Accepting attitudes lead to feelings of psychological safety, which lead people to believe that no matter what they share, others will respond in an accepting, nonjudgmental manner. Warmth in relationships is essential to creating a trustworthy climate for effective teamwork. When an attitude of warmth is communicated, people feel prized for who they are and what they have to contribute.

DEPENDABLE VERSUS CAPRICIOUS

Probably the most critical characteristic in the creation of trust is dependability. Human beings will trust others more easily and more deeply if they believe they can rely on them. A person's trust will be more widespread if he or she can predict how others will respond, whether the situation is simple or complex. Capricious people cannot be relied on; their behavior is often quite unpredictable, which can lead to deep mistrust. Being dependable is crucial to building trust.

EXPERT VERSUS INEPT

People trust others who are knowledgeable and experienced in the area in which trust is to be granted (Giffin & Barnes, 1976). People do not trust those who have little or no knowledge in a given area. There is a high trust level in relationships in which people possess and exercise what Giffin and Barnes (1976) label "relevant wisdom." When people are inept with respect to the substantive knowledge, interpersonal qualities, skills, and abilities needed to work collaboratively, they often blame others for their ineffectiveness. When people lack expert technical and relational competencies, the results are poor communication dynamics and a hostile, defensive environment. Such an untrustworthy climate undercuts effective interpersonal relationships.

ACCOUNTABLE VERSUS UNACCOUNTABLE

Trust is enhanced when people are willing to be accountable to one another. Eventually, any interpersonal relationship is based on the assumption of personal responsibilities and accountability. Without accountability, all efforts become random, haphazard, even chaotic. This result leads to an undependable climate in which people do not know

whether or not they can count on others to do what they have said they would do. Accountable relationships create and maintain a trustworthy climate.

CONCLUSION

The preceding principles of trust-building and mistrust-building attitudes hold true in relationships between two people and among members of a group. If you decide to foster more trust-building attitudes, you can take certain actions. The following interpersonal behaviors can help to build trust:

- Initiating communication or action with others;
- Establishing eye contact;
- Communicating clearly;
- Giving and receiving feedback;
- Listening empathically;
- Expressing personal feelings;
- Accepting the feelings of others;
- Using “I” messages;
- Affirming the self-images of others;
- Being present and involved;
- Acting consistently; and
- Appreciating the trust of others.

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■ DIVERSITY AWARENESS ASSESSMENT

David P. Tulin

Abstract: Many organizations begin diversity training without sufficient knowledge of preexisting conditions. Diversity training in particular can be volatile if approached incorrectly. Facilitators need tools that assist them in approaching the topic of diversity in a nonthreatening manner, thereby allowing people to feel more comfortable talking about diversity issues.

This self-assessment, an excerpt of a longer assessment, provides a quick measure of respondents' levels of knowledge of general and business-related multicultural information. Using this type of assessment demonstrates that everyone has more to learn about diversity and provides an opportunity for people to ask diversity-related questions in a safe environment.

Diversity-awareness tools have three general purposes: (1) to get people thinking about diversity issues, (2) to challenge implicit assumptions and biases that might otherwise go unexamined, and (3) to consider other points of view from the perspective of other cultures. Organizations today need tools with which to explore both their willingness and their skills in terms of functioning effectively in a multicultural context.

The Diversity Awareness Assessment¹ has been designed as a diversity-awareness tool. This self-assessment measures respondents' levels of knowledge of general and business-related multicultural information. Although organized in the form of multiple-choice questions, this assessment is not a "test." It purposely is anonymous so that respondents can recognize their own knowledge and needs for improvement with minimal concerns about being embarrassed or defensive.

DESCRIPTION OF THE INSTRUMENT

The Diversity Awareness Assessment consists of twenty multiple-choice questions. Respondents circle the answers they believe to be correct. The assessment will take approximately ten to fifteen minutes to complete. Respondents should be assured beforehand that no one is expected to know all of the answers. Rather, the very nature of the field of diversity means that there is no end to the challenge of increasing knowledge and competencies. The results are intended to evoke discussion among the respondents rather than teach particular facts. The assessment therefore has face validity only.

After all respondents have finished completing the assessment, the facilitator reads the correct answers. Respondents score their own assessments. (*Note to the facilitator:* Even answers to "objective" tests of cognitive knowledge are subject to some disagreement by academicians and diversity practitioners. The Diversity Awareness

¹ This instrument is excerpted from *Questions of Diversity*, edited by George F. Simons and Bob Abramms, which is available from Pfeiffer & Company.

Assessment Scoring Key provides sources for the answers given; these sources represent the most accurate information currently available. But invariably some respondents will challenge even the “objective” data.)

It is suggested that the respondents form subgroups of two or three members each. With their partner(s), they may discuss questions such as the following:

- Question and answers that were surprising.
- Questions that were very easy.
- Answers that resulted in confusion or discomfort.

After, the facilitator may reconvene the total group and lead a closing discussion of the assessment and the subgroups' conclusions.

SUGGESTED USES

Following are some benefits from using this assessment:

- Helping those who believe they have no knowledge gaps or no need for additional learning.
- Demonstrating that every individual regardless of her/his diversity category has more to learn.
- Providing a vehicle for participants to ask additional diversity questions in a “safe” climate in which others are also acknowledging their information needs or knowledge gaps.
- Providing opportunities for participants to affirm to others and themselves how they also possess some diversity knowledge and expertise that can be shared with others.
- Verifying that participants from all “obvious” and “less obvious” diversity categories have varying levels of knowledge about diversity issues.

DIVERSITY AWARENESS ASSESSMENT

David P. Tulin

Instructions: Circle the correct answer to the questions that follow. You are not expected to know all of the answers; for those answers you do not know, choose the answer that seems most likely to be correct.

1. Women who assume jobs that have been traditionally held by men often experience difficulty because
 - a. they are not used to the work.
 - b. their skills have to be upgraded.
 - c. they are kept on the outside by male coworkers.
 - d. they are distracted by the male dominated environment.
2. Provisions of the Americans with Disabilities Act prohibit an employer from inquiring into a job applicant's disability with questions concerning
 - a. mental illness.
 - b. age.
 - c. past work experience.
 - d. religious affiliation.
3. Today's preferred term, used in law and everyday life, is
 - a. physically challenged.
 - b. person with a disability.
 - c. handicapped.
 - d. crippled.
4. When a woman is in control of a communication dynamic with a man, she prefers to stand
 - a. closer to the man than he would prefer to stand to her.
 - b. farther from the man than he would prefer to stand from her.
 - c. the same distance from the man that he would prefer to stand from her.
5. The "glass ceiling" theory in organizational life refers to
 - a. the effect of indirect lighting on employee motivation.
 - b. the high expectations, but frustrating limits, that women and minorities experience in promotions.

- c. the hiring of entry level and female employees with the clear opportunity for future promotions based on performance.
 - d. the feeling that many minorities and women experience of being constantly watched and supervised by those above them.
6. One of the most common complaints of employees with physically handicapping conditions is
- a. they are constantly taken care of by coworkers.
 - b. they are treated as though they are invisible.
 - c. they are asked to perform duties beyond their capabilities.
 - d. they are regularly asked about their physical conditions.
7. Women in blue-collar, male-dominated occupations are physically sexually harassed more often than their female white collar counterparts; they are
- a. less assertive in resisting and reporting it.
 - b. more assertive in resisting and reporting it.
 - c. equally assertive in resisting and reporting it.
 - d. more assertive in resisting, but less likely to report it.
8. Of those taking advantage of parental leave, child care, and flex-time benefits,
- a. 90 percent are women and 10 percent are men.
 - b. 60 percent are women and 40 percent are men.
 - c. 75 percent are women and 25 percent are men.
 - d. 50 percent are women and 50 percent are men.
9. Affirmative Action programs are designed to
- a. give preference to female and minority candidates who may be somewhat less qualified in order to make their numbers in the work force equal to white males.
 - b. open access to potential employees who have previously been excluded from equal competition for jobs within particular organizations.
 - c. fill a predetermined quota of women and minorities in an organization.
 - d. have organizations look more affirmatively on women and minorities in job evaluations than they look on white males.
10. Based on 1993 research, sexual harassment costs the typical Fortune 500 company large sums of money each year as a result of low productivity, employee turnover, and absenteeism, with totals averaging in excess of
- a. \$1 million yearly.

- b. \$3 million yearly.
 - c. \$7 million yearly.
 - d. \$20 million yearly.
11. A person who says “Do you think Pat should be at this meeting?” clearly means something quite different from one who says “I think Pat should be at this meeting.”
- a. True.
 - b. False.
12. Efforts to integrate deaf people into conventional schools and to help them learn to speak English are causing fierce resistance from some activists within the deaf community because they
- a. consider deaf people simply as a linguistic minority who speak a different language.
 - b. consider deaf people unteachable through conventional methods.
 - c. consider it a waste of resources.
 - d. wish to support deaf people by teaching them separately.
13. Eighty-five percent of all human communication has no necessary relationship to the content of what is being said.
- a. True.
 - b. False.
14. Placing persons with disabilities in a separate seating area at public events is often experienced by people with disabilities as
- a. the same as segregation.
 - b. a reasonable accommodation.
 - c. Neither a nor b.
 - d. Both a and b.
15. According to the 1991 “Glass Ceiling” Report of the U.S. Department of Labor, women and minorities who were in higher management positions were almost always in
- a. line positions such as operations and production.
 - b. line positions such as sales.
 - c. staff positions such as human resources and public relations.
 - d. temporary positions.

16. When employees have good communication skills, work teams have been shown to be more creative and productive when they are composed of people who
 - a. come from the same area of professional specialization.
 - b. have similar work and communication styles.
 - c. come from similar cultural backgrounds.
 - d. come from similar educational backgrounds.
 - e. None of the above.
17. Among the costs that managers and their employers pay for “walking on egg shells” in supervising and communicating criticism and praise to female and minority employees is
 - a. limiting the employee's ability to contribute to the organization.
 - b. an increase in charges of discrimination.
 - c. support for some white males who accuse the organization of unfair preferential treatment for minorities and women.
 - d. increased probability that the female or minority employee will fail.
 - e. All of the above.
18. Nonverbal cues in an interview that are good indicators of a candidate's high motivation are smiling, gesturing, good eye contact, and animated verbal interchange.
 - a. True.
 - b. False.
19. One of the most frequently cited factors that women and minorities have indicated as being helpful to their advancement to top executive levels in organizations has been
 - a. the need to fill a minority quota.
 - b. being seen as the best qualified candidate for the position.
 - c. having the most experience.
 - d. having been mentored and coached by significant organizational leaders.
20. An individual's claim of employment discrimination can be upheld if the use of a language that the employee does not understand has been used by a supervisor or colleague to prevent the employee from satisfactorily performing his or her job.
 - a. True.
 - b. False.

DIVERSITY AWARENESS ASSESSMENT SCORING KEY

1. C
2. A
3. B
4. B
5. B
6. B
7. A
8. B
9. B
10. C
11. B
12. A
13. A
14. D
15. C
16. E
17. E
18. B
19. D
20. A

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■ U.S. STYLE TEAMS (USST) INVENTORY

Gaylord Reagan

Abstract: Research has shown that the use of organization teams, which works well in the Japanese culture, often does not work well in organizations in the United States. The characteristics of the predominant U.S. culture do not support-and, in fact, may work against-effective team functioning. For particular reasons, quality-circle teams, management teams, and cross-functional teams tend not to be as effective as expected.

The shamrock team, with a small core membership and others who join and leave as the need arises is more suited to the needs of U.S. organizations. However, three team norms-that work with, rather than against, U.S. culture-must be adopted before even this type of team can be effective. The U.S. Style Teams Inventory measures the extent to which the respondent's organization supports and implements the three critical norms.

Despite years of caution from experts (Dean & Bowen, 1995; Floyd & Woolridge, 1994; Krishnan, Shani, Grant, & Baer, 1993; Lawler, 1994; Miner, 1974; Muczyk & Reimann, 1987; Reger, Gustafson, Demarie, & Mullane, 1995; Sitkin, Sutcliffe, & Schroeder, 1995; Szwegold, 1992), management gurus and organizations in the United States demonstrate an unquestioned faith in the ability of teams to produce competitive advantages while adding value for customers. Although they have much to offer in organizations, teams may have been oversold, particularly when they are utilized in reengineered, reinvented, and restructured organizations. After reviewing the results of a survey of 4,500 teams in fifty U.S. organizations, Nahavandi and Aranda (1994) report that:

Despite the many success stories on the use of teams . . . , success has been uneven. Recently, there has been much frustration on the part of managers and employees . . . that teams might not be the panacea everyone hoped for, especially at senior management levels. As a result, many employees feel that teams are a waste of time. The time spent on developing trust and agreement does not translate easily into high creativity and performance . . . Overall, teams have not done consistently for the U.S. what they did and are continuing to do for Japan. Dramatic improvements rarely emerge with increased use of teams. There is little evidence that employees are more creative or more motivated when they work in teams. (p. 59)

CHARACTERISTICS OF U.S. CULTURE

Nahavandi and Aranda (1994, pp. 60-61) contend that unhappy results with teams often can be attributed to characteristics of U.S. culture. They identify seven cultural features that appear to diminish the payoffs derived from using teams in reengineered organizations. The seven features are as follows:

1. A long-held belief that performance improvements are attained through individual ingenuity and creativity. Visions of individuals tinkering in their workshops dominate U.S. thinking in regard to the sources of new products. Ingenuity is depicted as two young men in a garage cobbling together the first Apple computer. Similarly, great leaders are relied on to come to the aid of troubled corporations.

2. An emphasis on individual rights and nonconformity rather than on conformity and group harmony. The Europeans who came to North America centuries ago often did so because they did not fit in their own cultures. Their nonconforming religious practices, rebelliousness toward traditional social and economic restrictions, desire to be judged by what they could do instead of by their family names, need to escape famines and wars, responses to punishments for various misdeeds, and belief in individual rights led them to establish societies that stressed their values. In many ways, these values are still reflected in contemporary U.S. organizations. Those values do not encourage conformity, group harmony, and team work.

3. A high level of tolerance for conflict and competition at the expense of cooperation and unity. U.S. organizations vigorously recruit the aggressive, results-oriented, competitive, independent, take-charge, bottom-line oriented, overachievers who eat problems for lunch and are then perplexed when their team-building efforts produce few positive results. When one raises and rewards wolves, one cannot expect to have cooperative house pets.

4. An almost ingrained distrust of power, hierarchical structures, and management. Disputes between labor and management are part of U.S. history. Much of the U.S. labor force believes some of the following: You cannot trust management; power corrupts; listen, but verify; divide and conquer; it's all politics; they're only looking out for themselves; nobody asks for my opinion!

5. An emphasis on attaining quick results, while ignoring both the past and the future. Given the nature of the U.S. economic system, it is logical for organizations to continually ask their personnel and suppliers, "What have you done for me today?" Unfortunately, loyalty has become something of an outdated concept. Investment-portfolio managers demand strong quarterly returns. If those are not forthcoming, takeovers threaten organizations. Quick, current results are what counts.

6. A preference for dynamic action, instead of slow, steady, incremental progress. "This organization must be turned around in thirty days, or else!" Those who display a willingness to make the dirt fly are rewarded. The vision is short term rather than long term.

7. The presence of high levels of demographic diversity and heterogeneity in society and the work place. Studies have shown that in the short-to-moderate term, reaching agreement is simpler in homogeneous groups (Watson, Kumar, & Michaelsen, 1993).

Heterogeneity slows things down: different values, genders, cultures, religions, ethnic traditions, customs, behavioral patterns, communication styles, expectations, and norms confront individuals with complex packages of information to decode and act on. In contrast, in more homogeneous cultures—such as Japan’s—where central values are shared, reaching agreement is considerably simpler (Nahavandi & Aranda, 1994).

The combined impact of these seven cultural features often thwarts efforts to install Japanese-style teams in U.S. organizations. Significant resources are invested in teaching personnel that they “need to become cohesive . . . more cooperative, and patient with process and slow change” (Nahavandi & Aranda, 1994, p. 61). Organizations encourage team problem-identification and resolution; they urge employees to rise above cultural diversity and demographic heterogeneity in a quest for higher levels of teamwork; and then they wonder why their implementation efforts produce so little return on investment. In search of an explanation, they wonder if they have used the wrong training materials, purchased the wrong videotape, or should have selected another consultant, should have relied less (or more) on the internal training staff, or should have read a different book or research study. Alas, none of these explanations offers much help.

A TYPOLOGY FOR TEAMS

Nahavandi and Aranda (1994) also present a useful, although somewhat broad, typology for gaining insights into why team efforts do not work as planned. Their model describes four types of teams, three of which are currently in use and a final one designed to take advantage of U.S. cultural characteristics.

1. QUALITY-CIRCLE TEAMS

Quality-circle (QC) teams first appeared in the U.S. in the mid to late 1970s. Their fluidity of membership is very low, and members are first-level operating personnel. The complexity of tasks they focus on is also low and consists mainly of internal issues. Members report to management. The major need of this type of team is for training. Given its stable membership and its focus on simple issues, the QC team is not suited to dealing with the broad, complex problems that confront contemporary organizations. The model commonly is found in organizations that are relatively new to the use of teams.

2. MANAGEMENT TEAMS

The fluidity of membership of teams of mid-level and higher managers is low. The complexity of tasks they deal with is high; they identify, sell, and implement potential solutions. Team members focus on external issues (issues outside the team). The major need of this type of team is for empowerment. Although these teams deal with complex issues, their stability of membership renders them largely unsuited for dealing with the strategic problems that face organizations. Management teams commonly are found in

organizations that have adopted more complex structures and face more complex problems.

3. CROSS-FUNCTIONAL TEAMS

Much favored in organizational/process reengineering, cross-functional teams have fluid membership and focus on comparatively simple, internal problems. The major need of such teams is for organizational structures that will help their multidisciplinary members function together. Although such teams enjoy fluid membership, their focus on simple issues tends to make them unsuited for dealing with strategic problems. Unfortunately, this model commonly is found in organizations that have adopted more complex structures and face more complex problems.

4. SHAMROCK TEAMS (U.S. STYLE)

This team model, first proposed as an organizational model by Charles Handy (1989), is named for the Irish clover with three leaves to each stem because a shamrock team has three staffing components:

- A stable core of three to five members who see the task through to completion;
- Specialized resource people who join and leave the team as needed; and
- Temporary or part-time members who are called on for brief periods of time when the team needs additional labor or expertise.

The highly fluid membership of this team concentrates on resolving complex, strategic, internal and external issues. The major needs of this type of team are understanding and capitalizing on its diversity, involving “outsiders” (such as customers) in its activities, and being creative. The shamrock model is best suited for use by organizations that face radical changes within a highly complex environment—as do most large organizations today.

	Quality-Circle Teams	Management Teams	Cross-Functional Teams	Shamrock Teams
Fluidity of Membership	low	low	high	high
Membership Components	first-level operators	middle to top management	multidisciplinary	multidisciplinary
Complexity of Tasks	low	high	low	high
Locus of Issues	internal	external	internal	internal and external
Members Report to	management	board members or executive managers	matrix	(varies)

	Quality-Circle Teams	Management Teams	Cross-Functional Teams	Shamrock Teams
Major Team Need(s)	training	empowerment	supportive organizational structures	understanding and capitalizing on diversity, involving outsiders, being creative
Not Suited for	broad, complex problems	strategic/ complex problems	strategic/ complex problems	simple narrowly defined problems

IMPORTANT NEW NORMS FOR U.S. TEAMS

Adopting the shamrock-team model requires that managers and employees in the U.S. first work together to reconceptualize the paradigms within which they think about what teams do and how they do those things. Then the managers and employees need to work together to adopt three behavioral norms that will help their teams to take advantage of U.S. cultural patterns (Nahavandi & Aranda, 1994). These norms are as follows.

VALUE AND ENDORSE DISSENT AMONG TEAM MEMBERS

Given the emphasis in the United States on individualism, conflict, competition, quick results, success, and action within a highly diverse and heterogeneous society, Japanese-style harmony may not be a realistic goal. Contentious entrepreneurship has long been a strength in the U.S., so disagreement and differences should be valued as key parts of a creative process instead of being targeted for elimination through the efforts of trainers and videotapes. Instead of pursuing harmony and agreement, recent studies suggest that teams should pursue creative tension (Pascale, 1990).

Instead of identifying and promulgating the company way of thinking, a more productive approach is to teach teams to manage (not eliminate or resolve) conflict, fight by agreed-on rules, innovate, draw out different points of view, and utilize productive disagreement (not consensus decision making). Tom Peters (1994) refers to this approach to business as getting “weird, flat, and horizontal.” If everyone is in agreement, the idea probably is not weird enough.

STRONGLY ENCOURAGE FLUIDITY OF MEMBERSHIP WITHIN TEAMS

“It is not clear that stability of team membership is in the best interests of either teams or organizations. In fact, we have long been aware of the detrimental effects of too much stability and cohesion” (Nahavandi & Aranda, 1994, p. 63). Current thinking suggests building a core of three to five project-long team members, supplemented by temporary or part-time members and longer-term specialized resource personnel. Nahavandi and Aranda have found that this “movement of members in and out of teams, together with the presence of the core members, prevents the development of too much cohesion and

complacency, allows for the dynamic renewal of teams and their members, and leads to better use of our diverse population” (p. 64).

EMPOWER TEAMS TO ADDRESS KEY RESULTS AREAS AND TO IMPLEMENT THEIR DECISIONS

Teams frequently are prohibited from addressing certain fundamental issues in the organization (which are reserved for senior management’s attention) and usually are required to obtain permission from higher levels prior to implementing their decisions. “In order to gain permission to implement their ideas, teams are forced to suggest easily acceptable and non-controversial solutions to problems” (Nahavandi & Aranda, 1994, p. 64).

Not surprisingly, these restrictions can easily disempower and marginalize teams. This eliminates solutions that are innovative, entrepreneurial, paradigm shifting, frame breaking, boat rocking, or simply weird—the very features that attract customers in a highly competitive marketplace. These restrictions also work against those features of U.S. culture that have long conveyed competitive advantage: a willingness to take risks, an openness to seeing things differently, and an inclination to experiment and ask “What if?”

Building team-implementation efforts around the three norms specified above will encourage participants to take advantage of their culture’s strengths (individualism, competitiveness, and speed) instead of producing frustration by trying to avoid using those strengths.

THE U.S. STYLE TEAMS (USST) INVENTORY

PURPOSES

The USST Inventory is designed to accomplish the following objectives:

1. To familiarize organizations with the need to utilize team strategies that are culture sensitive.
2. To offer a constructive critique of popular team models being implemented in U.S. organizations.
3. To identify the seven cultural features that need to be considered when implementing team models in U.S. organizations.
4. To identify strategies that will help U.S. organizations to reap a greater return on investment from their team-implementation efforts.
5. To offer U.S. organizations a format to use as they assess their readiness to implement teams.

VALIDITY

The U.S. Style Teams (USST) Inventory is designed for use as an action-research tool rather than as a data-gathering instrument. Applied in this manner, the inventory has demonstrated a high level of face validity when used with audiences ranging from executive managers to nonmanagement personnel.

ADMINISTRATION

The following suggestions will help facilitators to administer the USST Inventory.

Completion of the Inventory

Distribute copies of the USST Inventory and read the instructions aloud. After reading each of the thirty-three statements, respondents should make check marks next to the statements that accurately characterize team norms in their organization. Resolve any questions about how to take the inventory. Urge respondents to avoid overanalyzing their choices. Ask respondents to wait to score their inventories until they are directed to do so.

Theory Input

When respondents have completed the inventory, discuss the shortcomings of traditional team models, the seven critical features of U.S. culture, the team typology, and the three norms for new teams. Answer any questions pertaining to these bodies of information.

Prediction

Ask the participants to predict whether their organizations will score “high,” “medium,” or “low” in terms of support for U.S. norms in utilizing teams.

Scoring

Distribute copies of the USST Inventory Scoring Sheet to the respondents. The same process is used to score each of the three norms. First, in the upper grid, respondents should circle indicated numbers that correspond to the statements they checked on their inventories. Then, in the lower grid, they should circle indicated numbers that they did not circle on their inventories. The “reverse scored” statements in the lower grid indicate norms that run counter to the norms described in positively scored statements. This wording hinders attempts to complete the inventory in an unreflective manner.

The number of circled items in each column should be determined and the result written in the space designated “Total.” Each total should be multiplied by three and the result written in the space designated “Score.”

Scores for all three norms should be added together and the result written in the space designated “Grand Total.” This result will vary from a low of zero to a high of ninety-nine.

Interpretation and Discussion

Distribute copies of the USST Inventory Interpretation and Discussion Sheet to the respondents. Respondents should check the score interpretation box that corresponds to their “Grand Total” figures. Some groups find it helpful to record individual scores on a collective chart with appropriate boundaries.

After scoring their inventories and discussing the resulting scores, respondents should read and discuss the four brief guidelines for implementing U.S. style teams (item 4 on the USST Inventory Interpretation and Discussion Sheet).

Finally, respondents should prepare and discuss answers to the discussion questions. These answers can serve as the basis for action planning.

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U.S. STYLE TEAMS (USST) INVENTORY

Gaylord Reagan

Instructions: Read the following list of thirty-three questions. Make a check mark in the box preceding each question that accurately describes team norms in your organization. Avoid “overthinking” your responses. Your initial choices often come closer to your true perceptions.

- ☐ 1. The organization places a strong, positive value on achieving harmony.
- ☐ 2. The organization values high levels of cohesion among team members.
- ☐ 3. Teams are trusted to make major decisions.
- ☐ 4. People in the organization hold diverse cultural values.
- ☐ 5. Teams welcome new ideas and perspectives from resource people with special skills.
- ☐ 6. A team’s tasks are clearly tied to the organization’s strategic plans and initiatives.
- ☐ 7. The assumption is that the organization’s way is the right way.
- ☐ 8. Members are encouraged to play different roles within the teams on which they serve.
- ☐ 9. Teams are usually required to seek permission before they can implement any of their recommendations.
- ☐ 10. Disagreement is viewed as being the basis for creativity.
- ☐ 11. The organization uses flexible employment relationships with its personnel.
- ☐ 12. A team’s ideas must be easily acceptable and noncontroversial to be implemented.
- ☐ 13. The organization stresses incremental improvement rather than innovation.
- ☐ 14. People believe that teams need high levels of stability in order to be productive.
- ☐ 15. Teams are encouraged to define their own goals and their areas of impact.
- ☐ 16. People productively manage dissent and controversy.
- ☐ 17. People tend to have more or less permanent memberships on certain teams.

- ☐ 18. Teams are well-anchored in organizational realities.
- ☐ 19. My coworkers draw out and value different points of view.
- ☐ 20. People can enter and exit teams as their skills and knowledge are needed.
- ☐ 21. People realize that teams must look outside themselves for ideas and feedback.
- ☐ 22. The organization provides training in attacking problems and creating innovative ideas.
- ☐ 23. Temporary and part-time personnel play active roles in the organization's teams.
- ☐ 24. Teams accept the fact that other people's perspectives can be more valuable than those of the team members.
- ☐ 25. The organization values individualism and independence.
- ☐ 26. Culturally diverse populations are actively involved in the organization's teams.
- ☐ 27. Team members realize that cooperation and coalition building form the basis for team success.
- ☐ 28. Competitiveness is valued at most levels of the organization.
- ☐ 29. Teams welcome new ideas and perspectives from customers.
- ☐ 30. Coalition building is emphasized by the organization's teams.
- ☐ 31. Team members know how to be creative.
- ☐ 32. Teams have a stable core of no more than three to five long-term members.
- ☐ 33. Teams are encouraged to empower themselves.

USST INVENTORY SCORING SHEET

Instructions: Using the scoring grid below:

1. In the top part of the grid, circle the numbers of the indicated statements that you did check on the USST Inventory. In the lower part of the grid, circle the numbers of the indicated statements that you did not check on the inventory. The numbers in the lower part of the grid represent statements for which a reverse scoring process is used: If you did not select these statements, their scores count.
2. Total the number of statements in the columns for each norm and enter the totals in the boxes provided. Then multiply each norm total by three and enter the sums in the boxes provided. The three resulting scores reflect your perception of the comparative levels of support that your organization offers to the suggested team norms.
3. Add together the three norm scores to produce a grand total. This number indicates your perception of the overall level of support your organization offers for U.S. style teams.

	Norm #1	Norm #2	Norm #3
Upper Grid	1	5	3
	4	8	6
	10	11	15
	16	14	18
	19	20	21
	22	23	24
	25	26	27
	28	29	30
	31	32	33
	Lower Grid	7	2
13		17	12
	Norm #1 Total _____	Norm #2 Total _____	Norm #3 Total _____
	Norm #1 Score _____ (Norm #1 Total × 3)	Norm #2 Score _____ (Norm #2 Total × 3)	Norm #3 Score _____ (Norm #3 Total × 3)
	Grand Total _____ (Norm #1 Score + Norm #2 Score + Norm #3 Score)		

USST INVENTORY INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION SHEET

1. Check the box whose range includes your “Grand Total” score.

- ☐ 99 - 85 You perceive strong organizational support for all three norms underlying U.S. style teams. If you also support these norms, your main task is to identify ways to ensure their continued existence within your work group and the overall organization. If you do not support these norms, you might feel a bit uncomfortable with the direction in which you perceive your organization to be heading.
- ☐ 84 - 75 You perceive moderate organizational support for U.S. style teams. Many aspects of the three norms are present and being rewarded. If you support these norms, your main task is to identify ways you can demonstrate their value to your work group and, eventually, to the overall organization. The next time you lead a team, you might suggest that members try out these norms.
- ☐ 74- 65 You perceive some organizational support for U.S. style teams. The norms are mentioned from time to time, but little practical or consistent use is made of them. If you support these norms, you might inject them into training programs or demonstrate their use in a low-key way within your own work group or in a task team.
- ☐ 64- 0 You perceive erratic, inconsistent organizational support for U.S. style teams. Some people and some teams occasionally utilize aspects of one or more of the three norms. Some individuals are vaguely aware of one or more of the norms, but the norms are not reinforced. Your organization may have a strong preference for another style of teamwork or may prefer not to use teams.

2. Which of the three norms received the highest score? How does your perception compare to those of other people from your work group—how are your scores alike and different? This score represents your organization's strength. How can your organization retain and build on this score? What is your action plan for helping this to happen?
3. Which of the three norms received the lowest score? How does your perception compare to those of other people from your work group—how are your scores alike and different? This score represents your organization's greatest opportunity for improvement. How will you strengthen this score? What is your action plan for doing so?

4. Researchers who have studied U.S. style teams offer a deceptively brief set of guidelines for their implementation.¹
 - a. Begin with less-complex team models (quality-circle teams, top management teams, cross-functional teams) and gradually move into U.S. style teams. If your organization currently does not utilize teams, you may find that it is easier to adopt the new model because you will not have to overcome existing norms regarding the operation of teams.

How and where could you begin to implement this model?

- b. Start any changes in team operation in small doses; avoid beginning with organization-wide changes. Use a “pull strategy” (attract converts with the good results your model is achieving) instead of a “push strategy” (ordering everyone to implement a change and punishing those who cannot or will not do so).

What would be a good starting point for you to begin to implement this change in team norms?

¹ A. Nahavandi & E. Aranda (1994), “Restructuring Teams for the Re-engineered Organization,” *Academy of Management Executive*, 8(4), 66.

- c. Provide team members with lots of “cafeteria style” training (user choice with respect to type and quantity) in productive controversy, constructive thinking, creativity, and political behaviors. Avoid training in consensus decision making and reaching agreement.

How can you help to bring about this type of training?

- d. Managers need to demonstrate the productive use of U.S. style teams in their own work areas. Help personnel around you (and on teams to which you belong) to have positive experiences with constructive dissent, fluid team membership, and empowerment.

How can you help people around you in the organization to have this kind of experience?

5. How can you implement these four guidelines in your organization? What problems can you foresee, and how would you overcome them?