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ABSTRACT

This facilitator's manual consists of guidelines and materials for use in conducting a workshop dealing with three management basics for minority women--communication, decision making, and interpersonal skills. Covered in the first half of the manual are the following aspects of implementing the workshop: background on the need for and development of the workshop, a workshop outline and time schedule, the logistics of the workshop, preparing for the workshop, lesson plans for its six sessions, a decision-making paradigm, and suggested readings. The second half of the manual consists of a participant's notebook that contains various forms, information sheets, and learning activities. Included among these are a workshop outline, a pre-workshop questionnaire, communication and decision-making activities, validation exercises, and a workshop evaluation form. (Related facilitator's manuals dealing with career planning and personal and professional development for minority women are available separately--see note.) (MN)

MANAGEMENT BASICS FOR MINORITY WOMEN

Facilitator's Manual

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Women's Educational Equity Act Program
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

T. H. Bell, Secretary

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Participants' Notebook (continued)

PREFACE

Minority women are faced with both racial and sexual discrimination in the world of work. They have been at least partially excluded from the benefits of the thrust of the civil rights movement of the 60's and the women's movement of the 70's. Although minority workers have had increased opportunities in the last two decades, they have still not caught up with the mainstream of American workers.

According to statistics from the U.S. Department of Labor, the proportion of minority women in the labor force exceeds that of white women in all age groups 25 years and older. However, because of occupational segregation due to racial and sexual discrimination, many minority workers remain clustered in low-paying occupations.

Studies have also shown, for example, that Black women start their careers in lower-status jobs than white women do. And with the exception of some professional positions such as teacher, Black women remain concentrated in the less desirable jobs.

The median wage or salary income of minority women, like that of white women, is substantially less than the income of men, whether white or minority. Fully employed minority women continue to earn less than white women, although the earnings gap is narrowing. In 1974, women of minority races who worked year round at full-time jobs had a median income of $6,611--94% of that of white women, 73% of that of minority men and 54% of that of white men. These earning gaps may be partially attributed to occupational segregation. A case in point is the fact that the largest number of Black women are employed in service occupations and in private household work, the lowest paying of all occupations.

Statistics also indicate that lack of education is not a predominate factor in the underemployment of minority women. In fact, minority women workers have 12.4 median years of schooling, with 65% having high school diplomas and 12% having 4 or more years of college. Although this is comparable to 12.6 median years of schooling for white women, research shows that Black women do less well in the labor market than white women of comparable education and experience.

Although many businesses and industries conduct training and upgrading programs, women and minorities have not fared well in being chosen to participate in these programs. Thus, these types of programs have had little impact on lower-wage workers.

In summary, the pattern of the above information indicates that minority women are seriously underemployed. One response to this problem is the development by minority women of specific professional skills and personal knowledge that can raise both their actual status within the work force and their expectations.

The Division of Women's Programs in the College for Continuing Education at Drake University, Des Moines, Iowa, has been in existence for 10 years. During that time, it has developed extensive continuing education programs, including career planning courses, management training, counseling on education and careers, and training in communication skills and assertiveness. The Division has also worked cooperatively with numerous organizations such as NOW, AAUW, Iowa Department of Public Instruction, Iowa Commission on the Status of Women, Des Moines Job Service, and Northwestern Bell Telephone.

Drake University's Division of Women's Programs is recognized as having the most extensive program of continuing education services for women in Iowa. Because of this experience, the Division has been requested to consult with other colleges.

Originally, the Division of Women's Programs was concerned with designing programs that would be relevant for all women, regardless of race, class or status. Such programs included the establishment in 1974 of a Job and Educational Referral Service to provide free education and employment counseling to women on a one-to-one basis. This service was the basis for the establishment in 1976 of a Community Career Planning Center for Women, in cooperation with the Des Moines Junior League.

It became apparent that minority women were not fully utilizing the available services of the Division of Women's Programs or the services of any of the other educational institutions in the greater Des Moines area. Even workshops and seminars in career planning that were offered specifically for and promoted among minority women had difficulty recruiting participants.

In an effort first to understand and then to alleviate this problem, the Division of Women's Programs submitted a proposal for an $18,000 Title I grant to fund a specialized outreach program aimed at assessing the needs of and developing training models for employed minority women. The one-year grant, which was awarded in December 1976, was to be conducted at the Community Career Planning Center for Women.

The project was staffed by a Director, who was Black and female. She was assisted by an extensive Advisory Committee, composed of a wide representation of minority and nonminority officials professionally involved in educational training, employment services, personnel work and equal opportunity services. The project was faced with several tasks:

1. Discovering why minority women were failing to take advantage of the resources and educational programs in the Des Moines area.
2. Designing and implementing a survey for employed minority women to assess their needs in the area of career development.
3. Designing and implementing career development workshops in response to the indicated needs of minority women.

A needs assessment survey was developed by Yvonne Gates, Project Coordinator, and Richard Brooks, a Drake University Professor of Education. The survey was administered to a 10% sample population of the 3,100 employed minority women in the Polk County area.

The survey indicated that the reasons minority women in the Polk County area were not utilizing career planning centers and continuing education programs were as follows:

1. Because the recruiters, trainers or counselors in existing programs were, with few exceptions, white, middle-class women.
2. Because most of the publicity was geared to white women.
3. Because most of the institutions offering the services were seen as too much a part of the white, middle-class establishment and were not perceived as understanding the unique problems facing minority women.
4. Because the cost was prohibitive.
5. Because the women had problems related to child care and transportation.

Another significant and related factor was that the primary focus for minorities in general, as well as for minority women, was simply to get a job, rather than to develop potential or to plan careers.

The survey also indicated that the major obstacles in the attempts of employed minority women to advance were:

1. lack of education
2. lack of opportunity
3. personality conflicts
4. discrimination

Minority women felt that their most important educational needs were:

1. career planning
2. assertiveness training
3. supervisory management skills
4. basic management skills

Based on the information gained in the needs assessment survey, three career development workshops were designed:

1. Minority Women's Survival Kit: Personal and Professional Development for Minority Women
2. Career Planning for Minority Women
3. Management Basics for Minority Women

These workshops were implemented locally during 1977-78 under the Title I grant.

The Division of Women's Programs received a one-year Women's Educational Equity Act (WEEA) grant during 1978-79 to refine, validate and develop training

manuals for these workshops. A significant part of this process was conducting a national seminar for personnel involved in the area of career development for minority women. The purpose of the seminar was to introduce the three workshops nationally and to have them critiqued by others in the field. The input from the seminar, in addition to feedback received locally from minority women who participated in the workshops, was utilized in developing what we feel to be very relevant, useful information and exercises.

At this point, we want to share some of the knowledge we have acquired in the two years of this project.

First, through trial-and-error efforts, we have discovered that the following are important characteristics for workshop facilitators to possess:

1. Facilitators must be minority women.
2. Facilitators must be competent and confident professional women who can serve as role models for workshop participants.
3. Facilitators should have good contacts and rapport with the local business community.
4. Facilitators should also have good contacts and rapport with the local minority community and social organizations.
5. Facilitators should have good workshop leadership and/or teaching skills.
6. Finally, facilitators should have a good historical and sociological understanding of American minority relations.

We have also found that the workshops should be limited to minority women, both as participants and as facilitators.

These manuals have been designed so as to allow an opportunity for facilitators to share their own personal knowledge and expertise in career development with participants, and also to allow participants to share their own thoughts and ideas about the subject matter. It helps to establish a confidentiality policy for all personal sharing among facilitators, participants and role models. This encourages the development of a high level of confidence and trust so that valuable information can be shared freely.

Recruitment of potential participants is also an important factor in the success of the workshops. Support by local business, industry, and community and social organizations is imperative and requires that facilitators and/or project coordinators personally and thoroughly explain the purpose of the program. It is always a good idea to design and print flyers and/or brochures explaining the workshops and to distribute these to employers, minority women and other interested people. Make use of public service announcements and radio and TV spots, as well as other media resources such as newspapers, to publicize your workshops. Once you have successfully conducted one workshop, participants' word of mouth will also provide your program with good publicity.

Stanlie M. Jackson

Stanlie M. Jackson
Editor

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Stanlie M. Jackson, editor of the career development manuals, was Coordinator of the Women's Educational Equity Act (WEEA) grant. She is a Black woman who holds a B.A. degree in Sociology and History from Spelman College in Atlanta, Georgia. She has studied at the University of Ghana in Ghana, West Africa. She also holds an M.A. degree from the Area Studies: West African History Program at the School of Oriental and African Studies (SOAS) at the University of London, London, England.

Ms. Jackson's previous employment experiences include 5 years of teaching as an instructor in Sociology and Afro-American History at Des Moines Area Community College and later as a Sociology Instructor at Central State University in Wilberforce, Ohio. She was also employed as a Case Manager with the Polk County Department of Social Services.

Her duties as Coordinator of the WEEA grant included the development and refinement of the three career development workshops; the facilitation of workshops; and the editing of workshop manuals. She also supervised and coordinated the planning and implementation of the national career development seminar conducted under the auspices of the WEEA grant.

NOTE TO THE FACILITATOR

This manual contains materials for participants as well as for facilitators of the Management Basics Workshop. Those materials intended solely for use by facilitators are so labeled. All other materials (the sheets not marked "Facilitator") are intended to be photocopied in quantity for use by participants during the workshop.

It is recommended that facilitators provide each participant with a notebook made up of copies of the relevant pages of this manual. Facilitators should prepare these participant notebooks well in advance of the workshop and distribute them during Session I.

INTRODUCTION

Management Basics for Minority Women is a six-session (14-hour) workshop. It is designed for minority women who are in nonsupervisory positions or new to the work force and who are concerned with advancement into management positions. It should be presented as one of three workshops specifically designed to meet the needs of employed minority women.

The Management Basics workshop emphasizes three important areas. The first two sessions (5 hours) are devoted to the development of communication skills. The second two sessions (5 hours) are devoted to the development of decision-making skills. The final two sessions (4 hours) are concerned with the area of working with people.

This workshop has at least four learning objectives. Upon completion of the workshop, participants should have:

1. Basic knowledge of the elements of management.
2. Awareness and insight regarding the social and interpersonal dynamics affecting minority women in employment.
3. The ability to apply principles and process in decision making.
4. Increased knowledge and self-awareness in communication and interaction with others.

The goals of this workshop are to provide minority women with an opportunity to become aware of basic qualifications for management positions and to begin assessing their own qualifications for management. The workshop provides participants with an opportunity to begin to determine if they have management potential and if they are interested in pursuing a career in management.

One of the interesting hidden goals (by-products) that develop out of these workshops is the growth of a peer-group support network. Participants share experiences from their areas of employment and share the experience of the workshop. They are encouraged to keep in touch with each other and to provide each other with whatever help and/or information they can. This growing support network, although at first unintentional, has been one of the most important outcomes of the workshops.

Following is an outline for each session of the workshop. Please note that some sessions may appear to be more complete than others. This is because some sessions are devoted to lecturettes. Others sessions are concerned with interpersonal sharing and/or exercises that seek to provide an experiential activity pertinent to the theory-based material. Processing of this material is essential to ensure maximum learning, but it also takes a good deal of time.

You will want to provide participants with a copy of the workshop outline so that they can follow the presentation and be prepared for their homework assignments.

WORKSHOP OUTLINE

Session I: Introduction and Communication Skills

Introduction

- Welcome
- Faculty introduction
- Administrative details
- Pre-workshop questionnaire
- Introductory exercise
- Workshop objectives

Definitions

- Management
- Organizational structure
- Managerial climate

Communication Skills

- Definition
- Johari window
- Johnson-Jackson window

Homework

Prepare a 2-minute speech on your organization (choose one of the following)

1. Obtain and explain an organizational chart
2. Look at the personnel profile of your organization and determine where the women and minorities are located in your organization
3. Explain what your role is in your organization

Read the information on feedback

Session II: Communication Skills (continued)

Feedback

Facilitators will share and explain the organizational chart of their organizations

Speeches

- Two-minute speeches
- Feedback
- Assertiveness in communication

Homework

Read "Overview: Decision Making"
Complete the assignment sheet on decision-making awareness

Session III: Decision Making

Definition of a Decision: Overview

Two optional approaches to decision making
Elements of decision making
"An affair of the mind"
Fateful mistakes
Interdisciplinary framework
Psychology of decision making
Categories of decisions
Levels of complexity

Components of the Complex Decision-Making Process

Identify the problem
Search: identify and list alternatives
Choose the alternative that is the most desirable and the most feasible
Act on the choice
Evaluate (feedback)

Homework

Decision-making activities (mid-session assignment)

Session IV: Decision Making (continued)

Review Questions

Group Decision Making

Decision-making exercise
Desirability-feasibility chart
Group exercise

Session V: Working with People

Review

Panel Discussion: Managerial Women

Problems encountered by minority women in managerial positions
Effective methods of coping with these problems (and ineffective methods of coping with these problems)
Advantages and disadvantages of minority women
Advice to women who aspire to management positions

Session VI: Working with People (continued)

Feedback on Panel Discussion

Summary

Validation exercise
Workshop evaluation form
Workshop objectives

WORKSHOP TIME SCHEDULE

Session I: Introduction and Communication Skills

- Introduction (45 minutes)
- Definitions (45 minutes)
- Communication Skills (1 hour)

Session II: Communication Skills (continued)

- Feedback (45 minutes)
- Speeches (1 hour 45 minutes)

Session III: Decision Making

- Definition of a Decision: Overview (1 hour 30 minutes)
- Components of the Complex Decision-Making Process (1 hour)

Session IV: Decision Making (continued)

- Review Questions (1 hour 30 minutes)
- Group Decision Making (1 hour)

Session V: Working with People

- Review (30 minutes)
- Panel Discussion: Managerial Women (2 hours)

Session VI: Working with People (continued)

- Feedback on Panel Discussion (30 minutes)
- Summary (1 hour)

THE LOGISTICS

What follows is a brief list of things to be done by facilitators in preparation for the workshop. Be sure to see the note on page 1 regarding the preparation of participant notebooks.

Six Weeks to One Month Before:

Mail brochure and application forms to potential participants and/or personnel officers of major businesses and organizations in your community.

Contact local newspapers, radio and TV to publicize the upcoming workshop.

Contact professional minority women and ask if they would consent to serve as role models for a panel discussion. (See Session V.)

Two Weeks Before:

Mail confirmation letters to participants. Include a reminder about dates, time and place.

Compile workshop materials:

- Workshop outline
- Participant notebooks
- Name tags
- C.E.U. registration forms (if applicable)
- Pre-workshop questionnaire
- Workshop evaluation form

One Week Before:

Compile a participants' list, which should include name, address, phone, payment information and a place to note attendance. (It is important to note attendance if C.E.U. certificates are to be awarded at the completion of the workshop. Participants should attend at least five of the six sessions to receive a C.E.U. certificate.)

Make sure all materials are ready.

Suggested Number of Participants:

One facilitator works most comfortably with a maximum of fifteen participants.
Two facilitators work most comfortably with a maximum of twenty-five participants.

First Week of the Workshop:

Mail confirmation letters (see Session V) to role models. Include a reminder about date, time and place and reiterate the purpose of the role models' remarks.

Fifth Week of the Workshop:

If applicable, prepare C.E.U. certificates for workshop participants.

Prepare a list of participants' and facilitators' names, addresses and home and office phone numbers. Make enough copies to give to participants during the sixth session of the workshop.

One to Two Weeks Following the Workshop:

Facilitators meet to share workshop evaluations and to discuss any changes (additions or deletions) that should be made.

Send thank-you notes to the role models, along with an honorarium for their services (see Session III).

Make contact with participants, if possible (see Note, p. 71).

WORKSHOP PRELUDE

If you are like most trainers/facilitators, you will find yourself excited about the challenge of beginning a new workshop. By now you will have invested a good deal of time on preparation--reading, taking notes, compiling participant notebooks, and tending to publicity and other administrative details. You are probably wondering if you remembered to do everything or if you should have done something else. You may also be a bit nervous about such unknown variables as who the participants are and how they will respond to you and the workshop.

We have found that it can be reassuring for facilitators to be on hand early for the first session of the workshop. This will provide you with an opportunity to be sure that the room is comfortably arranged and to put on the coffee pot (if one is available). But most important, you will be there to greet participants warmly as they arrive. Ask each participant to put on a name tag as she comes in. It is helpful to remember that participants are probably just as nervous as you are, if not more so.

SESSION I: INTRODUCTION AND COMMUNICATION SKILLS

INTRODUCTION

Facilitators should begin Session I by welcoming all participants in a manner that will encourage the development of a relaxed atmosphere for the workshop. Facilitators should introduce themselves individually to participants as they arrive and more fully to the group later. In keeping with developing a relaxed atmosphere, participants and facilitators alike should refer to each other by first names.

If applicable, spend the first few minutes of the session taking care of administrative details, such as filling out C.E.U. registration forms (necessary for awarding C.E.U. certificates upon completion of the workshop) and passing out participant notebooks. Be sure participants are seated in a circle. Ask participants to spend a few minutes completing the pre-workshop questionnaire, and collect these forms as participants finish them.

At this point, facilitators should again introduce themselves to participants. These introductory remarks should include information on employment background to establish legitimacy and credibility; they should also help participants begin to relax with you and begin to perceive the workshop as a safe place for self-disclosure.

Following is an example of a facilitator's introduction:

> My name is Mary Smith. I am presently employed at the Department of Social Services as a Staff Development Specialist and Supervisor of Social Work Training. Previously I was employed at the County Mental Health Center as a Psychiatric Social Worker for 4 years. Before that, I was employed for 2 years at the Human Rights Commission as a Human Rights Specialist. I was also an Assistant to the Director of Community and Child Studies at the Child Guidance Center for 2 years. I have held both management and nonmanagement positions during my career.
>
> I am married and the mother of two sons, 10 years old and 4 years old. I am required to do quite a bit of travel in my job, so I do experience some difficulties juggling the demands of home and career. Today, for example, I presented a new statewide training plan to the management team at work. I have worked diligently on this task for the past week. The plan was well received, but my family is awfully tired of soup and sandwiches; my laundry is piled high and I haven't set my hair in over a week.

Then move on to the participants' introductory exercise. Instructions for this exercise should be written on the board as the facilitators verbalize them. Ask each participant to state:

> Her name
> Her place of employment

Her position (job titles are appropriate, but ask participants to share specifically what they do)
Something of interest about herself
Her expectations of the workshop
Her name (again)

This exercise is designed to help break the ice. It helps to initiate the process of self-disclosure among participants. Although there are many introductory exercises that could be used in place of this one, it has been chosen because it also serves as a means to begin working on communication skills. If facilitators are familiar with another exercise that would serve this purpose, it could be substituted.

At the completion of the introductory exercise, facilitators should spend a few minutes briefly explaining the workshop objectives. Upon completion of the workshop, participants should have:

1. Basic knowledge of the elements of management.

2. Awareness and insight regarding the social and interpersonal dynamics affecting minority women in employment.

3. The ability to apply principles and process in decision making.

4. Increased knowledge and self-awareness in communication and interaction with others.

Facilitators should then spend a few minutes explaining their expectations of the workshop and/or establishing workshop ground rules. Expectations or ground rules should include the following:

1. All sessions will begin on time. There may be times when participants are unavoidably detained, but they will be expected to come in quietly so as not to disturb the other participants.

2. C.E.U. certificates can be awarded only to participants who have attended at least five of the six sessions.

3. Participants will be expected to complete assigned readings and homework activities, although there will be no exams and although they will not have to turn in their assignments.

Facilitators may also take this time to establish a smoking policy and a break policy. If possible, facilitators may want to keep a coffee pot going and let participants know they are free to get coffee (or tea) whenever they wish to do so.

DEFINITIONS

Facilitators should then spend time defining management, organizational structure and managerial climate, using the definitions found in the participant materials as a basis for this lecturette.

It is important that facilitators carefully demystify the concept of management. Be sure definitions are understandable and familiar. Share with participants examples of management in which they may have been involved, e.g., home, church, or social organizations.

Try to use a common or familiar example as the terminology is being defined. One useful example could be the church, as many minority women are frequently involved with religious institutions. For example, facilitators could point out that the church's human resources include the membership, the choir, the usher board, etc.; that tithes and offerings are its financial resources; and that the building and any machinery or equipment could be the material resources.

The church is also a useful example when you are explaining organizational structure. Help participants to recognize the various components of the church's management and how it affects church activities and atmosphere. Encourage the participants to share experiences and examples.

COMMUNICATION SKILLS

Facilitators should then move on to a lecturette on communication skills. The Management Basics workshop contains a section on communication for at least two important reasons:

1. The development of good communication skills increases opportunities for minority women to enter management positions.

2. Minority women have indicated, in response to the needs assessment survey and other workshops, the need to develop good communication skills.

The following Johari window* is the basis for this lecturette on giving and receiving feedback and the concept of self-disclosure:

	Known to Self	Unknown to Self
Known to Others	A. Public Arena	B. Blind Spot
Unknown to Others	C. Private Area	D. Unconscious Area

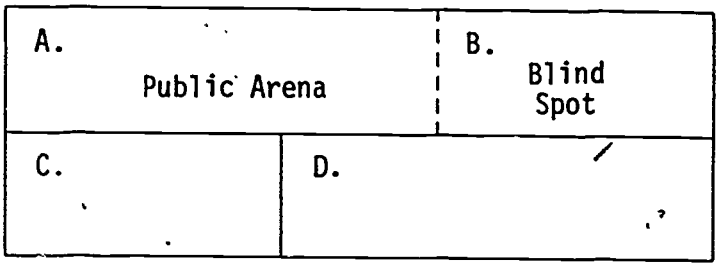
*"The Johari Window: A Model for Soliciting and Giving Feedback," by Phillip C. Hanson in The 1973 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators, John E. Jones and J. William Pfeiffer, eds. (San Diego, Calif.: University Associates, 1973), p. 115. Used with permission.

Pane A

Defined as the Public Arena: This area designates information that is known to self and known to others. This information is generally of a nonthreatening nature (e.g., "I have on a blue shirt today"). As the level of trust of self-disclosure increases, this pane becomes larger (e.g., "I am the mother of two sons").

Pane B

Defined as the Blind Spot: This area designates information that is known to others but unknown to self. When a person receives feedback regarding the Blind Spot, the Public Arena increases (e.g., "Your slip is hanging").



Pane C

Defined as the Private Area: This area includes information that is known to self about self but is not shared with others, unless done so by choice. The sharing of private information (self-disclosure) occurs more readily as the level of trust toward others increases. This area requires that one take risks in sharing personal information (any personal information, opinions or feelings may be used as an example in this area).

Pane D

Defined as the Unconscious Area: The information contained in this area can represent latent potentialities, childhood memories and unrecognized resources. This area will always exist because people are never totally aware of themselves. Soliciting and receiving feedback may bring things in this area to a level of self-awareness.

The focus of this lecturette should be on giving and receiving feedback as a means of reducing the Blind Spots and increasing the Public Arena selves. Communication with others becomes clearer if information is shared in the form of feedback.

The Johnson-Jackson window* is a modification of the Johari window:

	Known to Minority Group	Unknown to Minority Group
Known to Dominant Group	A. Public Arena	B. Blind Spot
Unknown to Dominant Group	C. Private Area	D. Unconscious Area

The basic theme of the panes is consistent with that of Johari's window. However, the issues of race and sex are addressed in regard to how minority women perceive themselves and how others perceive them.

Pane A - Public Arena

An example of this could be a Black woman's wearing a red dress. This knowledge is, of course, known to the minority woman and to other members of dominant and minority groups who see her. What may be unknown about this example are the perceptions and/or stereotypes of the dominant group regarding a minority female's wearing the color red. It is entirely possible that her attire could provoke a negative reaction and/or negative feedback.

Pane B - Blind Spot

The Blind Spot may be illustrated by using the same example cited earlier regarding someone's slip hanging. However, the perceptions of the dominant group regarding a minority female's grooming habits or neatness may be biased by stereotypes and racial prejudice.

Pane C - Private Area

Two examples come to mind as illustrations of information known to self or known to members of a minority group, but unknown to members of the dominant group:

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*Designed by Cecilia Johnson, Supervisor, Social Work Training, Iowa Department of Social Services; and Stanlie Jackson, Coordinator, Minority Women's Project, Drake University.

1. The traditional New Year's Day meal of chitterlings and black-eyed peas in the Black community.

2. The preparation of Capirotada (a type of bread pudding) by Mexican-Americans as a replacement for meat during the Lenten season.

This information may be perceived negatively by members of the dominant group. Racial prejudice and stereotypes have traditionally been underlying factors in the occurrence of negative feedback from dominant to minority groups. The result has been damaging to the identity and self-esteem of minorities; it has been equally damaging to members of the dominant group.

Pane D - Unconscious Area

This area remains the same. It is assumed in the area of minority/dominant relationships that many interactions are dictated by conscious and unconscious material. Much of this material is often negated or verified via feedback and open communication. The history of negative communication and feedback occurring between minorities and dominant others indicates a great amount of risk in sharing feelings, opinions and perceptions in the form of feedback. Only through increased awareness on the part of both minorities and the dominant group can minorities take full advantage of opportunities in managing others.

Facilitators should encourage participants to share thoughts, questions and examples regarding both the Johari and the Johnson-Jackson windows. Both illustrations provide good stimulation for participants regarding the issues of communication, feedback, interpersonal relationships and working in a white, male-dominated work force.

HOMEWORK

Review the participants' homework assignments--preparing a 2-minute speech and reading the information on feedback--as described in the workshop outline.

PRE-WORKSHOP QUESTIONNAIRE

Please complete the following questionnaire.

NAME _____ DATE _____

ADDRESS _____ ZIP CODE _____

HOME PHONE _____ WORK PHONE _____

AGE _____ MARITAL STATUS (check one): never married _____ divorced _____
married _____ widowed _____
separated _____

WHERE ARE YOU PRESENTLY EMPLOYED? _____

WHAT IS YOUR WORK? _____

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL ATTAINED (check one): high school _____ 2-year college or certificate _____ 4-year college _____ Master's _____ Ph.D. _____

COMPARE YOURSELF TO THE AVERAGE PERSON IN OUR SOCIETY (e.g., "MUCH LIKE A PERSON WITH A HIGH SCHOOL EDUCATION") IN THE FOLLOWING AREAS:

	Low		Average		High
	1	2	3	4	5

1. Verbal ability:
2. Math ability:
3. Artistic talent:
4. Organizational ability:
5. Writing ability:
6. Athletic ability:

WHAT KINDS OF KNOWLEDGE DO YOU HAVE, DIFFERENT FROM THOSE OF THE AVERAGE PERSON?

WHAT HAVE YOU MADE A THOROUGH ATTEMPT AT DOING, ONLY TO DISCOVER YOU'RE NOT GOOD AT IT?

HOW DID YOU FIND OUT ABOUT THIS WORKSHOP?

Please write a personal statement expressing why you want to take this workshop. Please include in your statement where you feel you are now and how you think the self-assessment and training will be helpful to you.

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OVERVIEW: MANAGEMENT[1]

Human beings work together in groups, such as organizations, companies, industries, institutions, agencies and bureaus. All groups have leaders--either assigned or natural. Leaders are called managers (especially in business and industry) and they are what makes a group move ahead.

Management is the "organ" of leadership, direction and decision making in our social institutions. It is also the coordination of the human resources, materials, methods and machines needed to reach a stated objective.

The role of the manager is to maximize resources, both material and human, with which he or she works. It is also to create a climate for a group's resources to grow in value and use.

Accomplishment of these tasks requires the manager to possess the following skills:

Communication skills
Decision-making skills
The ability to work with people

GENERAL CATEGORIES OF MANAGEMENT

Top Management refers to activities concerned with policies, objectives and overall lines of control for an entire organization. Top management provides policy and communicates to middle management about long-range plans, targets, budgets and new directions. Sometimes top managers are referred to as:

Administrators (especially in national or local public services)

Executives (especially in corporations)

These terms are often used interchangeably; thus, their meanings have become unclear. All top managers, however, are involved with decision making and policy formulation.

Middle Management consists of group leaders responsible for carrying out and implementing top-management decisions. They interpret policies and long-range goals and convert them into instructions. This is the framework followed by line supervisors. They have executive responsibility for planning, organizing, budgeting and authorizing materials, equipment, personnel or other resources as needed.

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[1]See Peter F. Drucker, Management: Tasks, Responsibilities, Practices (New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1974). Also see Irene Place and Sylvia Plummer, Women in Management (Skokie, Illinois: VGM Career Horizons, 1980).

Supervisory Management has the main responsibility to get production. To do this, they act as a communication link between production workers and middle management. Their role is similar to that of a teacher. They make sure workers know what is expected of them, that they have the necessary tools for their work, and that they know how to use them. They also keep work schedules, train replacements, counsel and motivate workers, and try to maintain a happy working environment for the production group.

Line Supervisors usually come up through the ranks; therefore, they are more production oriented than planning, organizing or controlling oriented. Usually, line supervisors understand the environment and point of view of production workers better than they do the language, activities and point of view of management. (Lots of women are in this position.)

MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES*

1. Organizing

   -setting objectives
   -identifying functions
   -developing individuals
   -delegating duties
   -ensuring accountability

2. Planning

   -planning a course of action that leads to a future goal

3. Controlling

   -clear communication channels
   -authority
   -means of measuring progress

4. Directing

5. Staffing

6. Motivating

"Key processes that all managers must have a good grasp of might include such items as the following":

1. Having the ability to develop goals and objectives.
2. Being able to build a plan to implement their goals; interrelating their goals with those of others.
3. Being capable of effective communications, especially with people, but also in written and formal presentations.
4. Being able to resolve or balance conflicts among work, interests and people.
5. Being good at problem solving in all its phases, with work processed on people problems.
6. Making balanced decisions--making them carefully, weighing the important elements and generally using good judgment.
7. Being able to determine priorities with flexibility, to change them as needed, and to stick with them when necessary.

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*Adapted from Irene Place and Sylvia Plummer, Women in Management (Skokie, Illinois: VGM Career Horizons, 1980) and Breakthrough: Women into Management by Rosalind Loring and Theodora Wells. © 1972 by Rosalind Loring and Theodora Wells. Reprinted by permission of Van Nostrand Reinhold Company, New York.

Managerial Climate*

Rationale: It is important to understand patterns of organizational climate. These underlying philosophies affect company policies, attitudes, behaviors, opportunities for change and advancement possibilities. Understanding the managerial climate is particularly important for women as they move both individually and collectively through the organizational structure. Knowing the organizational climate in which one is working can assist one in predicting where difficulties will occur, where maneuverability is possible and the kinds of opportunity that women will have to advance in management.

Organizational Climates

1. Exploitative: Makes maximum use of people, with minimum concern for their needs.

2. Paternalistic: Ensures that the top person (like father) knows what's good for people and keeps the prerogative to decide.

3. Consultative: Occurs when people, both men and women, are encouraged to contribute and to be taken seriously. Decision making is centrally held, but consideration is given to the experience and expertise of those people near the function involved.

4. Egalitarian: Means each according to his or her abilities in organizational processes. Both men and women have more impact through using their competence and creativity and through participating in decision making, which is diffused throughout the organization. This climate is more coordinated than controlled at the top.

Organizational-climate concepts can also be applied to departments or smaller operating groups. An egalitarian manager may, when possible, be a "buffer" between her subordinates and her bosses. It is also possible for authoritarian persons to be managing in an egalitarian organization.

*From Breakthrough: Women into Management by Rosalind Loring and Theodora Wells. © 1972 by Rosalind Loring and Theodora Wells. Reprinted by permission of Van Nostrand Reinhold Company, New York.

McGregor's Theory X and Y*

Rationale: As managers begin to understand why people work, the right environment can be set for maximum productivity. It is also important to develop a personal leadership style from the information, insights and beliefs held about people. What is believed about people will affect the attitude toward other people.

McGregor believes that the manager's behavior is influenced by his or her basic beliefs and assumptions about people. These beliefs are represented by two polarities:

Theory X	Theory Y
People dislike work.	People expend effort naturally at work as well as at play.
People must be coerced, controlled, threatened and punished.	People exercise self-direction and self-control toward objectives to which they're committed.
People prefer to be directed; they want security above all else.	People commit themselves to objectives for inner rewards and self-esteem.
	People seek responsibility.
	People use imagination, ingenuity and creativity.

The somewhat negative behavior of the Theory X belief produces a tense, restrictive, controlled, "cover your tracks" atmosphere. The Theory Y belief creates openness, a willingness to work together and to try new ideas, and often assists employees to develop unknown resources.

*From The Human Side of Enterprise by Douglas McGregor.

JOHARI WINDOW*

	Known to Self	Unknown to Self
Known to Others	Public Arena	Blind Spot
Unknown to Others	Private Area	Unconscious Area

JOHNSON-JACKSON WINDOW

	Known to Minority Group	Unknown to Minority Group
Known to Dominant Group	Public Arena	Blind Spot
Unknown to Dominant Group	Private Area	Unconscious Area

*See "The Johari Window: A Model for Soliciting and Giving Feedback," by Phillip C. Hanson in The 1973 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators, John E. Jones and J. William Pfeiffer, eds. (San Diego, Calif.: University Associates, 1973). Used with permission.

FEEDBACK*

Feedback is one tool for understanding ourselves and gaps in our communication with others. Getting feedback is one way to learn more about our impact on other people: what they perceive us to say or do and how this affects them. It is thus an essential part of personal development. Sometimes we assume we know about how others see us, but our assumptions may be incorrect. Women in organizations indicate that they have to be particularly active in seeking feedback from peers and managers, because too often they are given general comments like "You're doing fine" that neither indicate exactly where they stand nor identify directions for improvement. Sometimes the vague back pat by a manager masks the manager's own inability to tell the woman honestly how she is doing and how she is seen. In a number of organizations in which women are breaking through into previously all-male areas, they are encountering subtle resistances so that often they are the last to know, unless they actively seek feedback from others. One woman who assumed her manager's friendliness meant she was "doing just fine" was fired upon returning from a vacation and only then learned that she had been the subject of considerable discussion at management meetings. The lack of feedback gave her no hint of the impending firing and no opportunity to learn, change, or improve her performance; withholding feedback can thus be one way that systems can hold women back. For all of these reasons, it is important that we be comfortable with actively taking initiative in seeking feedback.

1. We need to know what good feedback is and how to help those around us give it to us. We can become receptive to feedback and skilled in evaluating and using the feedback we do receive.

2. Giving feedback is likewise important because it is an essential part of communications, for it permits the others to discover both strengths and weaknesses and it helps all parties in a relationship to adjust to one another and to improve their understanding.

Feedback includes skills in both confronting and supporting. Confrontation involves directly pointing out to another person a discrepancy in his or her behavior: between stated intentions and actual behavior, between promises and performance, or between expectations and output. It involves the ability to be aware of lack of fit between words and actions, situations and appropriate behavior, performance objectives and actual performance. The little boy in the children's story who pointed out that the emperor had no clothes on was very effectively confronting a group of people with their own blind spots or willingness to be fooled. People as well as whole systems may be confronted with the myths by which they are operating. But confrontation is only one-half of the coin; without supportive behavior it can be a dangerous strategy.

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*Reproduced by special permission from NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science, "Feedback," from NTL Women and Management Lab, Arlington, Virginia, February 1975.

Support involves taking the needs and situation of the other into account, pointing out the good as well as the bad, choosing to confront at that time when the other is ready to hear the message. Support does not mean that we hide our perceptions or let the people continue to believe that the emperor is clothed because that will keep them happy; it does mean calibrating the message to the ears of the receiver. It also means leaving people with something on which to build, something positive, and demonstrating genuine concern for the effects of the feedback. Women have traditionally been socialized to give support alone, without confrontation, but both skills are critical. Some men who voice concerns about working for or with women are afraid that women managers will be too gentle and not confronting enough, that they will not be critical and therefore not provide others with feedback that will aid their growth. On the other hand, some men also say that they are afraid that women in power will only confront and not support, as a way of "paying men back." Learning to give good feedback can be absolutely essential for women in management positions.

Characteristics of helpful feedback:

1. It is descriptive rather than evaluative. Describing one's own reaction leaves the other individual free to use it or not use it as he or she sees fit. Avoiding evaluative language reduces the need for the other to act defensively.

2. It is specific rather than general. Specific items of behavior are included rather than general labels or judgments. The more actual incidents or bits of behavior that can be described, the more useful the feedback.

3. It takes into account the needs of the receiver. Feedback can be destructive when it serves only our needs and fails to consider the needs of the person on the receiving end.

4. It is directed toward behavior the receiver can control. It is very frustrating to be told about something over which we have no control.

5. It is solicited rather than imposed. Feedback is more useful when the receiver has himself or herself formulated the questions or issues around which he or she wants feedback, or has agreed that this is the time and place in which the receiver wants feedback. Effective managers often define in conjunction with their employees the issues for which feedback is desirable.

6. It is well-timed. In general, feedback is most useful at the earliest opportunity after the behavior or event toward which it is aimed. (Of course, timing also takes into account the needs of the receiver, his or her readiness to hear it, etc.) But stale feedback is sometimes worse than no feedback at all, because past history cannot be undone; only if past behavior and events have relevance to present behavior or present feelings should they be dredged up as a source for feedback.

7. It is checked to ensure clear communication. The receiver is asked if he or she understood the message, perhaps is asked to indicate what he or she heard and if this understanding corresponds to what the giver of feedback had in mind.

8. Other sources of data are taken into account, to learn about the degree to which the feedback is shared by others or represents only one person's biases. If the feedback is given in a group, both the giver and receiver can check out what other people saw and felt. If feedback is given in a one-to-one situation, a third party may be asked to be present; this occurs routinely in performance appraisals in many companies.

9. The giver of feedback is aware of his or her own values and emotional states and how these might be affecting his or her reactions to the other.

Getting good feedback can make use of the same guidelines:

1. Asking for description rather than evaluation: "What did I do that made you feel that way?" "What did you see that made you feel I was _____?" "How did that make you feel when I _____?"

2. Asking for the specifics, the details of what the other saw or heard. Probing for more specific information.

3. Letting the other person know of our needs. Checking out what needs of the giver of feedback are in operation in this situation. Indicating how the feedback is making us feel, whether we can continue or need to stop, what other kinds of information would be helpful.

4. Indicating what the limits of our control might be, what aspects of situations we have no control over.

5. Helping to shape the issues for which we want feedback or can accept feedback.

6. If feedback is not forthcoming after important events or behavioral risks for which we want feedback, routinely to seek it ourselves to ensure its timeliness.

7. Checking with the giver of feedback to make sure we understand the message, that what we hear is what she or he intended.

8. Asking others for their impressions, in order to check the feedback with other sources of data: "Is this one person's impression, or do others see me the same way?" These additional data can help us to decide whether we want to do anything about the feedback, whether change is indicated. It is also a way of putting the feedback in perspective, to see it as part of a larger picture, and thus to decrease our emotional vulnerability to every small piece of feedback.

9. Being aware of how the other person's values and emotional states may be shaping his or her feedback, and thus making a judgment about how to use the feedback and how much of it to assimilate.

Sometimes the giver of feedback perceives himself/herself to be taking a grave risk, with unknown consequences, particularly if the feedback is negative

or confrontative. Ironically, sometimes the giver needs reassurance more than the receiver of a negative message. Women are often trapped in these binds, on both ends of the feedback situation:

-- on the receiving end, when men hold back their feedback for fear that the woman will "fall apart" or from discomfort with the greater readiness with which some women show their feelings; these men need to be shown that the woman really does desire feedback and is ready to hear it, even if it is difficult, and is ready to aid in making it helpful. Sometimes a woman may have to ask many times for feedback before people around her will believe she really wants it or will feel comfortable enough to give it. (Men in organizations at the present time seem more likely to want to protect women from tough messages than to deliver them.)

-- on the giving end, when some women apologize for having negative feelings, indicate their own discomfort at "criticizing" or "confronting" another and subtly indicate that they want to be sure they'll still be loved after delivering a difficult message. This, however, deflects the receiver's attention from the feedback he or she is receiving, from the real learning that could be occurring, and concentrates it on the giver. One consequence might be that the receiver will be unlikely to seek feedback from the giver again. A more effective set of behaviors involves learning to give feedback unapologetically and to remind ourselves that the other person may be unlikely to "love" us for it at the moment.

SESSION II: COMMUNICATION SKILLS (continued)

FEEDBACK

Part of the homework assignment from the first session was to read the information on feedback. At the beginning of Session II, the facilitators should spend about 15 to 20 minutes summarizing this information, making sure that participants thoroughly understand the concepts of confrontation skills and supportive behavior and how they are interrelated.

Facilitators should also present the concept of feedback in the context of the two windows (Johari and Johnson-Jackson) discussed in Session I. One facilitator might receive some feedback from the other facilitator (e.g., "Your slip is hanging"), indicating that this knowledge could originally be placed in the box marked Blind Spot, i.e., known to others, unknown to self. However, because of the feedback process, this knowledge can now be placed in the box marked Public Arena, i.e., known to others, known to self.

At this point, facilitators may also want to explain how feedback enlarges our areas of relationships and provides information that will continue personal growth. Facilitators can discuss the idea that the feedback tool is also a tool that can increase self-esteem.

Participants should then be asked to think about what they have read and what has been discussed. Allow 5 to 10 minutes for questions or discussions.

SPEECHES

Participants were also given the homework assignment of writing a 2-minute speech on their organizations. The rest of the session should be devoted to these speeches. At this time, the feedback information will also be used.

Facilitators should have on hand one envelope for each participant with her name typed on it. Facilitators should also have plenty of small slips of paper (about 3" x 5").

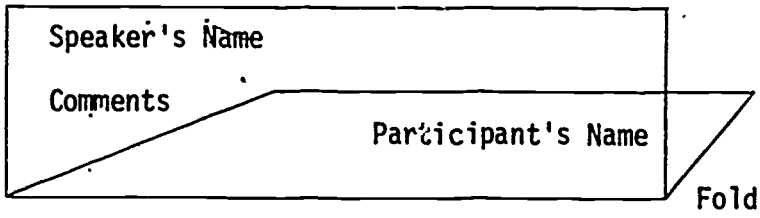
While each person gives her 2-minute speech, the other participants should listen and watch carefully so that they can provide her with feedback.

At the conclusion of each speech, the participants should write the speaker's name at the top of the small slip of paper. Under that, they should write down their feelings about the speaker's speech.

Speaker's Name
Comments

Comments should begin with the word I ("I think...," "I feel...," "I enjoyed...," etc.). They should be positive and/or constructive (e.g., "I feel you really spent a lot of time preparing your speech," "I think your speech would be more effective if you could develop better eye contact").

On the back of the slip of paper, the participant should write her name and fold the slip so that the comments are covered but the speaker's name can be seen.



The facilitator should collect these feedback slips after each speech and should place them (unread) in the speaker's envelope. At the completion of all speeches, the facilitator should give each person her own envelope, explaining that each person can do whatever she pleases with the feedback--she can read it; she can use the information or ignore the information; or, if she pleases, she can discard the slips without reading them. Facilitators should explain that this may be decided at home alone and that neither comments nor what was done with the comments will be discussed again.

There are at least four important purposes for doing this exercise. First, managers are often required to give oral reports in staff meetings or to give speeches; thus, the initial purpose of this exercise is to provide participants with an opportunity to prepare and deliver a short speech in a supportive environment. Second, preparing the speech requires participants to do a little research about their organizations; they begin to become aware of the positions and numbers of women and minorities within their organization. Third, this exercise gives the participant opportunities both to provide feedback and to receive feedback in a supportive setting. Finally, the exercise provides information about other organizations that participants might be unfamiliar with.

HOMEWORK.

Ask participants to read "Overview: Decision Making" and to complete the assignment sheet on decision-making awareness.

OVERVIEW: DECISION MAKING*

Decision is the act of a person in choosing, selecting or deciding among several possibilities. When a person takes or chooses a specific action, she or he is required to make a commitment of personal resources that cannot be replaced. (Examples of these resources could be time, money, style of life, and strongly held beliefs.) Decisions can be painful, pleasant, or anxiety producing, or they might relieve a troubling situation.

Decision Making does all of the following:

1. Helps you to focus on what is really important to you.
2. Can teach you how to evaluate and use information in making your decision.
3. Can provide you with some techniques by which you can identify and explore new alternatives.
4. Can encourage you to take action.
5. Can give you more control over your life.

Learning to decide effectively can lead to directing your life more effectively.

*Reprinted with permission from How to Decide: A Guide for Women by Nellie Tumlin Scholz, Judith Sosebee Prince, and Gordon Peter Miller.

ASSIGNMENT

(Please bring to next session)

1. Try to become particularly aware of your decision-making activities during this next week.
2. In the space below, list some of the decisions you make.
3. Try to include one decision from each of the following areas:
   a. concerning job tasks
   b. made before or after working hours
   c. concerning the weekend
   d. concerning your future or that of others
4. Select one or more of your decisions that you would be willing to share, and mark your choice(s) with a checkmark.

I'd be willing to share:

1. _____ ☐

2. _____ ☐

3. _____ ☐

4. _____ ☐

SESSION III: DECISION MAKING

DEFINITION OF A DECISION: OVERVIEW

The format of this session is different from the formats of the first two sessions. Session III is primarily devoted to a lecturette that provides basic information about the decision-making process. There are a few very short exercises, each designed to help process information from the lecturette.

The information in this session was developed by Dr. Marty Prentice. An associate professor of management in the College of Business Administration, Drake University, Dr. Prentice holds a B.S. degree in psychology and sociology from Washington University, a master's degree in educational administration from California State College and a Ph.D. in curriculum development and instructional design from Ohio State University. Dr. Prentice has spent a major portion of her professional career involved in instructional design, project management and public relations. She was the recipient of a small grant from the Women's Educational Equity Act Program to conduct a project entitled "Mid-Career Women in Administration" for 1979-80. She has served on a number of state and regional committees and published in the area of instructional development.

Facilitators should begin the session by asking if participants have any questions or thoughts they would like to share from the two previous sessions. Try to devote 5 to 10 minutes to this discussion and review. Explain the session format to participants and make sure they are in comfortable listening positions. Tell them to take notes if they wish.

Begin by asking participants to refer to their notebook materials on decision making and to follow along as you lecture. Briefly reiterate the definition of a decision: the act of a person in choosing, selecting or deciding among several possibilities.

Then briefly explain the two optional approaches to decision making as a process (see participant materials), as follows:

1. Helter-skelter decision making

   The shotgun approach to decision making, characterized as a spur-of-the-moment, data-less, and emotion-laden decision-making process. (It is not characterized as a thoughtful process.)

2. REAL decision making

   A rational, thoughtful approach to the decision-making process. The first letter of each of the four main characteristics coincides with the letters in the word REAL.

a. Responsibility

This characteristic requires each individual to ask herself the question, "Who am I responsible to when I make a decision?" (herself, her boss, her job, her spouse, her friends, etc.).

b. Emotionalism or emotionality

Each decision must have a sense of caring. We must care about this decision after determining whom we are responsible to.

c. Authenticity

Individuals must be "authentic," or true to themselves, when they are making a decision. This means that we must be aware of who we are and what we value.

d. Logic

This characteristic requires that our decisions be rational.

Here, facilitators might also mention that every decision occurs at a point in time and then becomes a part of the next decision-making process or cycle.

To introduce theory, explain that the decision-making process can be similar to a "pet hunch," as in the helter-skelter approach, or it can be an interrelated hypothesis, as in the REAL approach. If it is an interrelated hypothesis, then it can describe, explain, predict and guide action.

Next, explain the chart that lists the four elements of decision making. Mention that these elements have nothing to do with the actual decision itself.

1. Decision makers

Who makes the decisions? Again, emphasize the need for each individual to know herself. Ask each participant to begin thinking about her personal values, personality, perceptions and experiences.

2. Decision structures

Where are these decisions being made? Are we making them individually, in a group or in an organization?

3. Decision process

Can be rational or nonrational; "an affair of the mind." Here the facilitator can digress for a few minutes to the chart that depicts "an affair of the mind," using the following as a basis for the lecturette. (Or facilitators can state that they will return to this concept once they have covered all four elements of decision making.)

There are three components to "an affair of the mind":

a. Cognition

The process of discovering, rediscovering and recognizing things.

b. Production

The mental use of information:

1) Divergent thinking: brainstorming, unexpected, creative decision making.

2) Convergent thinking: expected, specific short answers.

Exercise: Ask participants the quickest way to get from one point in your city or town to the next. Spend about one minute brainstorming this question. Write the answers on the chalkboard. Ask participants if this is an example of divergent or convergent thinking. Why?

Exercise: Make believe that you are going to give each participant $500. Ask each participant to take 30 seconds to list three ways she would spend this unexpected bonus. Then ask participants to share their lists-orally (write them on the chalkboard). Ask participants to determine which answers could be classified as divergent thinking and which as convergent thinking and why.

c. Evaluation

The determination of the suitability, adequacy or appropriateness of the things we have discovered and recognized. (For example, if you were asked what you thought was the best holiday of the year, your criteria for evaluation would include such things as your upbringing, your family life and your values. Thus, individual answers to this question could easily vary.)

4. Decision (itself)

Present the last of the four elements of decision-making by explaining that a decision can be routine, creative, negotiated, repetitive or nonrecurring.

It is appropriate at this point for the facilitator to discuss the concept of pitfalls to avoid or mistakes to avoid. Begin by mentioning that one of the problems that seem to plague the decision-making process is that somehow, if we make a decision, it might turn out to be a terrible mistake.

This is what is meant by "pitfalls to avoid" or "mistakes to avoid." Sometimes people seem to feel that everything depends on one decision, and if a mistake is made, dire consequences will result. This feeling makes some people very hesitant about decision making, and some people actually refuse to make any decision at all.

Understanding when and why pitfalls or mistakes could occur can be very helpful in overcoming these fears. If participants can first think about and then remember the following guidelines, they will be taking the first steps toward overcoming the possibility of making fateful mistakes.

Mistakes occur when:

We act without knowing what our alternatives are.
We fail to attempt to anticipate or figure out what the possible outcomes of decisions might be.
We overestimate or underestimate the importance of certain information.
We spend lots of time collecting irrelevant data.
We make the process too complex.
We procrastinate and make no decision at all.

Move on to the next set of charts in the participant materials. Do not spend much time on the "Interdisciplinary Framework" chart. Mention briefly that this is justification for spending 2 weeks on decision making during the workshop. The chart indicates that the decision-making process can be found in almost every discipline. If participants are interested in pursuing this topic further, suggest that they read the book Managerial Decision-Making Process by E. Frank Harrison.

Go on to the "Psychology of Decision Making" chart. This chart attempts to define very broadly some of the psychological characteristics of decision making.

Explain that there are several questions that we need to ask and answer about ourselves in order for us to be good decision makers.

1. Do we know ourselves well? Do we know others (co-workers, spouse, families, etc.) well? What makes us and others tick? How do we respond to things? Can we predict how others will respond to things?

2. What is our risk-taking quotient?

   Some people accept risk taking very easily, while others avoid risk taking as much as possible. Which category do we fall into?

   Research indicates that many men find risk taking to be both challenging and exciting; many women, on the other hand, find it frightening or scary and shy away from it. (While little information is available, it might be interesting to research the question of minority response to risk taking.)

   Be sure to emphasize the fact that the research does not suggest that these characteristics are innate. Men and women are not born with these characteristics; instead, they are socialized into these roles. This means that, with work, this behavior can be modified.

3. Do we need to have things spelled out for us--must everything be specific and concise--or can we tolerate uncertainty or ambiguity?

Some people need to have everything specifically spelled out for them, while others are less concerned about details.

For example, while one is teaching at a small university, it is always interesting to note student responses to an assignment. If, for example, students are assigned to complete a term paper, some have very little problem going right to work. Other students, however, need to ask many specific questions, such as:

Should the paper be typed? Should it be single-, or double- or triple-spaced? How many words should be on each page? Does the paper need to include footnotes? Should footnotes be at the bottom of the page or can we use end notes? How many inches from the bottom of the page should we place a footnote? Should there be a cover page? What should go on the cover page? Can you count the cover sheet as page 1? And so forth.

There <u>are</u> some areas in which uncertainty or ambiguity cannot be tolerated. For example, when flying an airplane, the pilot needs to be <u>certain</u> of the <u>exact</u> landing procedure under all circumstances.

These examples are ones found to be useful in field testing; however, facilitators may wish to substitute other examples.

4. Finally, we also need to be concerned with defining <u>values</u> and <u>ethics</u> and the differences between the two.

<u>Values</u> are personal and address the question of what is important to the individual.

<u>Ethics</u> encompass the field of philosophy and seek to place a judgment on something. Organizations or groups have ethics that they are supposed to be committed to as an organization or group. It is possible for an individual to hold <u>values</u> that may differ from her or his organization's <u>ethics</u>.

Move on to the chart on categories of decision and discuss the two categories as follows:

1. Category I decisions

   Explain that these decisions are classified as routine, programmable and negotiated. A definite criterion exists for the structure of this category of decision and is proceduralized/and thus predictable. The strategy for making this type of decision is to rely upon already-developed rules and principles, uniform processing and computational techniques.

2. Category II decisions

   These decisions are classified as unique, creative and inspirational. The structure of this category is based on unknown criteria; thus,

it is unstructured and elusive. The strategy for making this kind of decision is reliance upon judgment and intuition, individual processing, and problem-solving techniques.[1]

Ask participants to look at the classifying activity on the following page of their notebooks. Using the information from the categories of decision, ask participants to determine and mark which decisions are routine and which are creative and to be prepared to explain why. Then ask participants to select those decisions which they are willing to share from their homework assignment (Session II) and to determine whether the decisions are routine or creative. Discuss the responses, making sure that the participants are clear on the differences between the two categories.

Next, refer to the "Levels of Complexity" chart. Explain that decision making can be divided into three basic levels of complexity:

1. Yes/no

   These are decisions that require only a simple yes or no response (e.g., "Are you going to the movies this evening?" "Do you want hot dogs for dinner?" "Will you answer the phones for me while I take a 5-minute break?").

2. More complex decisions

   As its name implies, this level is a bit more complex, because we are required to think about what will occur if we say yes or no to a problem. (For example, "Should I get up at 5:30 each morning?" If I respond yes, it could be because I can have a good, hot breakfast, do my exercises and get some of my housework done. If I respond no, it could be because I would rather sleep longer than accomplish all the tasks described in my yes response.)

   Another example of this second level of decision making is task decisions. Turn to the page on task decisions and quickly discuss the elements involved. Task decisions occur when someone requests help and we're faced with responding to the request. It is necessary for us to know what we are being asked to do, the procedures required to do the task and what part of the procedure is creating the problem. We must also know the procedure to complete the task and be able to explain it, step by step.

   Exercise--After explaining task decisions, ask participants to help you figure out how to put your coat on. (Rules: Pretend you have never done this task before. Do not allow participants to touch you or the coat. Follow participants' instructions exactly, but in an unusual manner. For example, if you are told to put your hand in the sleeve, put your hand in the bottom of the sleeve rather than through the top.) This exercise is designed to reiterate the elements involved in explaining a task decision.

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[1] See The Managerial Decision-Making Process, 2/e, by E. Frank Harrison, p. 14. Copyright © 1981, Houghton Mifflin Company.

3. Complex decisions

There are five parts to a complex decision, which are described in the following section.

COMPONENTS OF THE COMPLEX DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

1. Identify the problem

Exactly what is the problem?
What are your resources?
What are your constraints?
What are your values?
What, if any, ethics are involved?

2. Search

What are your alternatives?
List them.

3. Choose

Look at your list of alternatives.
Ask yourself two questions about each alternative on your list:

Is it desirable?
Is it feasible?

Choose the alternative that is the most desirable and the most feasible.

4. Act

After choosing the alternative that is the most desirable and the most feasible, then act on it--or do the action required.

5. Evaluate (feedback)

Ask yourself--did it work? Why or why not?
Then "feed" this information "back" up to A (identify the problem) so that you will have some criteria to use when you need to make the same or a similar decision again.

After explaining this process for complex decision making, give an example, using all five parts. You are, of course, free to develop your own example, or you can use the following:

Example:

1. Identify the problem

What should I have for dinner tonight?
What are my resources?
refrigerator and/or freezer
restaurant
grocery store

What are my constraints?
I'm very hungry, so I want something quick and filling
I have very little money, so it has to be inexpensive
What are my values?
A good, hot, nourishing meal
A nonfattening meal
What are my ethics?
None, in this particular instance

2. Search

What are my alternatives? List them:
Refrigerator - leftover broiled chicken
frozen hot dogs
bacon and eggs
peanut butter
Restaurant - Kentucky Fried Chicken
McDonald's hamburger
pizza

3. Choose

What is both desirable and feasible?
Restaurant - Desirable because the food will be ready quickly and will be filling
Not feasible--lack of money (constraint) and and fattening food (value)
Refrigerator - Hot dogs or peanut butter are not desirable, because I don't care to eat either tonight
They are also not feasible, because they are fattening
Bacon and eggs are not desirable or feasible, for the same reasons that the hot dogs or peanut butter are not
Leftover chicken is both desirable (good the first time) and feasible (easy to heat and nonfattening)

4. Act

I'll go home, heat up the chicken and eat it

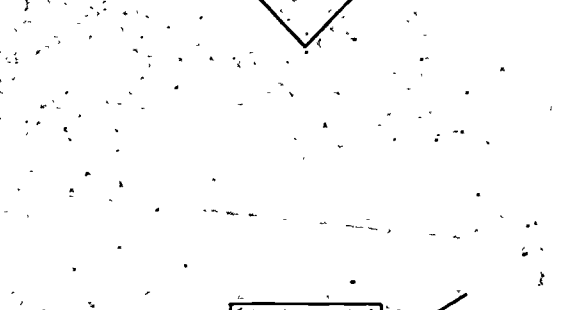
5. Evaluate

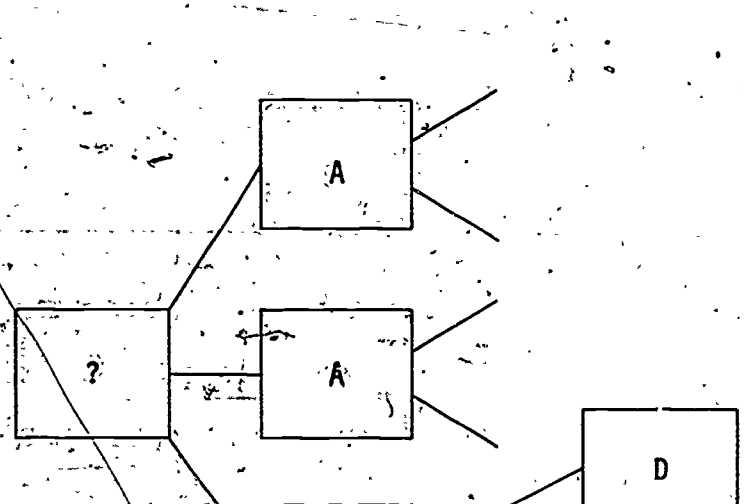
A good, hot, nourishing, nonfattening, inexpensive meal--I'll remember this alternative the next time I'm in a dilemma about what to eat

HOMEWORK

Ask participants to complete the mid-session assignment sheet.

TWO OPTIONAL APPROACHES TO DECISION MAKING AS A PROCESS





Decisions are made at a point in time.
Each decision becomes a part of the next decision-making cycle.

HELTER-SKELTER DECISION MAKING
(the shotgun approach)

Characterized as:
- spur-of-the-moment
- data-less
- emotion laden

REAL DECISION MAKING
(the rational, thoughtful approach)

Characterized by:

R _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _

E _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _

A _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _

L _ _ _ _

Theory

(from "pet hunch" to interrelated hypothesis)

..... it can describe

..... it can explain

..... it can predict

..... it can guide action

Elements of Decision Making

Decision makers: personal values, personality, perceptions, experiences

Decision structures: individual

group

organization

Decision process: rational or nonrational "an affair of the mind"

Decision: routine, creative, negotiated, repetitive, nonrecurring

Decision Making: "An Affair of the Mind"

Cognition (process of discovering, rediscovering, and recognizing)

Production (mental use of information)

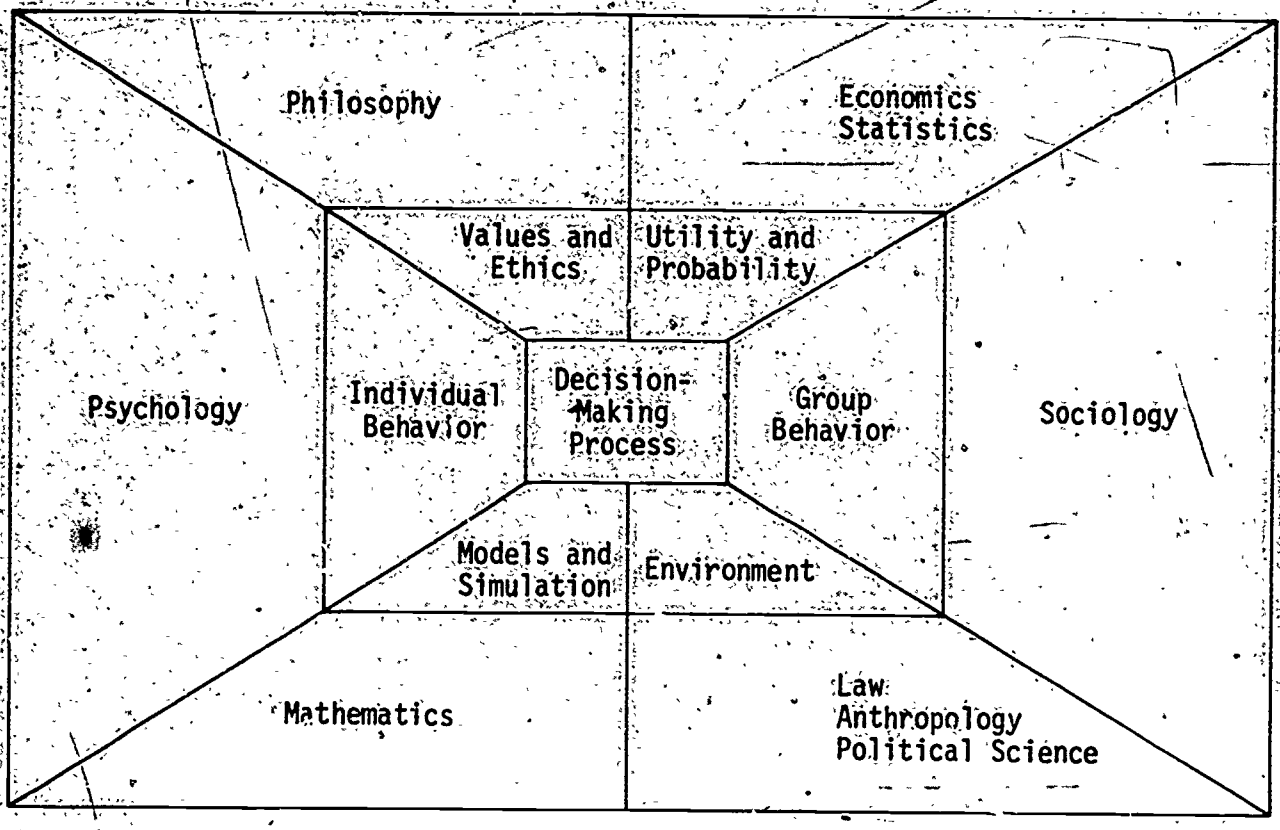
1. divergent
2. convergent

Evaluation (the determination of the suitability, adequacy or appropriateness of the things we have discovered and recognized)

Pitfalls to Avoid

- acting without knowledge of alternatives
- failing to anticipate probable outcomes
- overestimating or underestimating the importance of certain information
- collecting irrelevant information
- making the process too complex
- making no decision at all

INTERDISCIPLINARY FRAMEWORK*



*From The Managerial Decision-Making Process, 2/e, by E. Frank Harrison. Copyright © 1981, Houghton Mifflin Company.

Psychology of Decision Making

1. Personality traits/characteristics
2. Propensity for risk acceptance/avoidance
3. Perception of self and others
4. Preference for certainty/tolerance of ambiguity

Philosophy of Decision Making

a. Values

b. Ethics

c. Personal
   Organizational

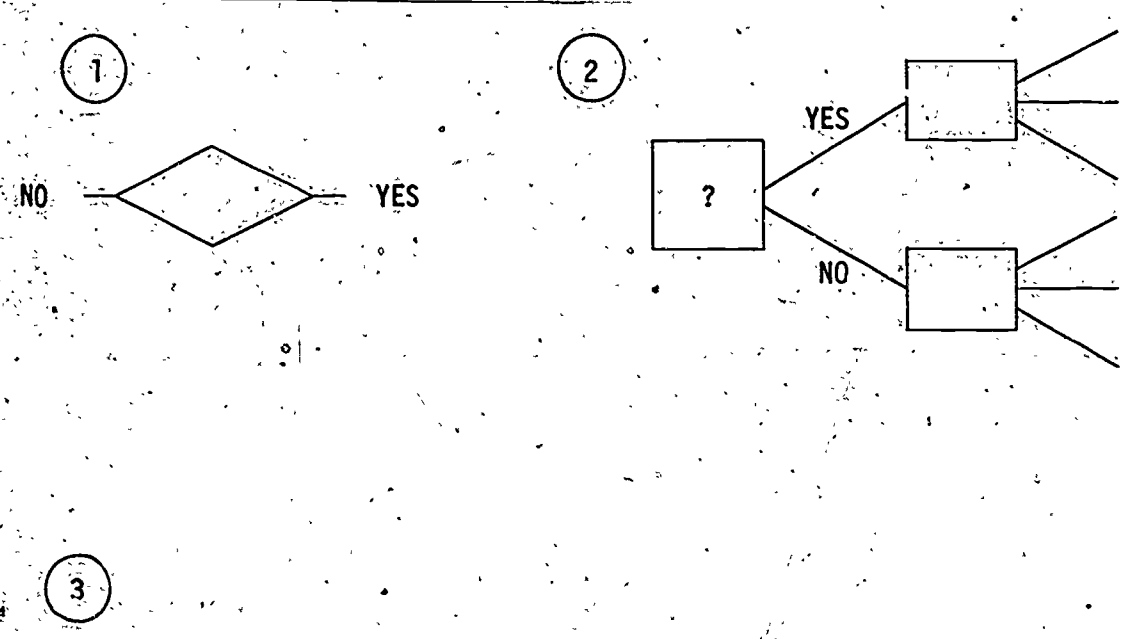
d. Personal
   Organizational

DECISION CATEGORIES*

	Category I Decisions	Category II Decisions
Classification	routine	unique
	programmable	creative
	negotiated	inspirational
Structure	proceduralized	unstructured
	predictable	elusive
	definite criteria	unknown criteria
Strategy	reliance upon rules and principles	reliance upon judgment and intuition
	uniform processing	individual processing
	computational techniques	problem-solving techniques

*Adapted from The Managerial Decision-Making Process, 2/e, by E. Frank Harrison. Copyright © 1981, Houghton Mifflin Company.

Levels of Complexity



1. Identify
2. Search
3. Choose
4. Act
5. Evaluate

CLASSIFYING ACTIVITY

(Check as appropriate)

	I (Routine)		II (Creative)
1.	_____	What time to get up on a workday	_____
2.	_____	What route to take to work or school	_____
3.	_____	What priorities to set for daily achievement	_____
4.	_____	How to complete a regular weekly report	_____
5.	_____	How to complete required time cards	_____
6.	_____	How to interest other people in helping you	_____
7.	_____	How to gather regularly needed information	_____
8.	_____	How to spend your long weekend time off	_____
9.	_____		_____
10.	_____		_____
11.	_____		_____
12.	_____		_____

TASK DECISIONS

Q. When someone asks for help:

"How do you make this 'x' machine work?"

Q. How do you help her or him?

1. What is the person really asking?
2. What are the procedures required to operate the "x" machine?
3. Which procedure is the problem?
4. Now--and only now--can you respond.

Q. Do you know how each procedure (task) is completed?

Q. Can you analyze each job-related procedure (task) into its component parts in order to help when someone asks for help?

1. Watch someone perform the task.
2. Review any directions available.
3. Talk with persons familiar with the task.
4. Try the task yourself.

Q. When someone asks for help, how do you decide what the real problem may be?

1. Observe informally.
2. Request a formal demonstration.
3. Question casually.
4. Conduct a structured interview.

P.S. If all of the above are done in an atmosphere of supportive concern, everyone wins.

60

MID-SESSION ASSIGNMENT

NAME _____

POSITION _____

1. Continue your awareness of decision-making activities, particularly those conducted in a group setting.

2. Select one group decision in which you have participated, or one that you have observed closely.

3. In the space below, carefully describe the event, including the following:

   a. the setting (office, home, church, other)

   b. the structure (policy board, working committee, social friends, other)

   c. the leadership (you, other designated person or persons, joint, informal, other)

   d. The participants (active, passive; volunteer, assigned; cooperative, antagonistic; other)

   e. preparation for the decision (discussion, formal report, authoritarian "edict," other)

SESSION IV: DECISION MAKING (continued)

REVIEW QUESTIONS

Begin this session by reviewing Session III. Again, briefly define a decision as the act of a person in choosing, selecting or deciding among several possibilities. Remind participants of other topics covered, such as helter-skelter and REAL decisions, categories of decision, and levels of complexity in decision making. Answer any questions that participants might have at this time.

Before moving on, elicit some feedback from participants on decision making as it relates to their own jobs. Facilitators may wish to ask some or all of the following questions:

- Do you feel you are in a decision-making position in your job?
- What types of decisions do you make?
- Is it difficult for you to make decisions? Why or why not?
- Do your decisions affect other people? How do you feel about that? How do you think others feel about it?
- Do you feel that being a member of a minority group and/or a woman creates a problem for you as far as decision making is concerned? Why? How do you handle this?

GROUP DECISION MAKING

Ask participants to choose a problem from their first decision-making homework assignment and to divide into small groups of three or four persons each. These groups should share the problems they have chosen and pick one problem to work on. In their small groups, participants should put the chosen problem into the complex decision-making diagram. They should first identify the problem; next list the available resources and the constraints; and then determine the values or ethics involved. Next, participants should complete the "search" part of the diagram by listing all the alternatives. Then participants should determine the desirability and feasibility of each alternative and choose the alternative that is most desirable and most feasible. During this exercise, facilitators should be circulating from group to group, making sure that instructions are being followed and answering any questions.

Participants should come back to the large group and share the results of the exercise. In each group, ask that participant whose problem was chosen how she feels about the chosen alternative. Suggest that she act on the problem and share the outcome with the group at a later date.

The above exercise is the basis for the group decision-making component of the workshop. Group decision making occurs when two or more people are involved in or concerned with making a decision. It is an important process,

since many decisions are made by more than one person. Also, the sum of individual decisions does not necessarily equal a group decision.

Example:

Alice, Betty and Carol need to decide from among three different alternatives. Each indicates the order of preference for her choices:

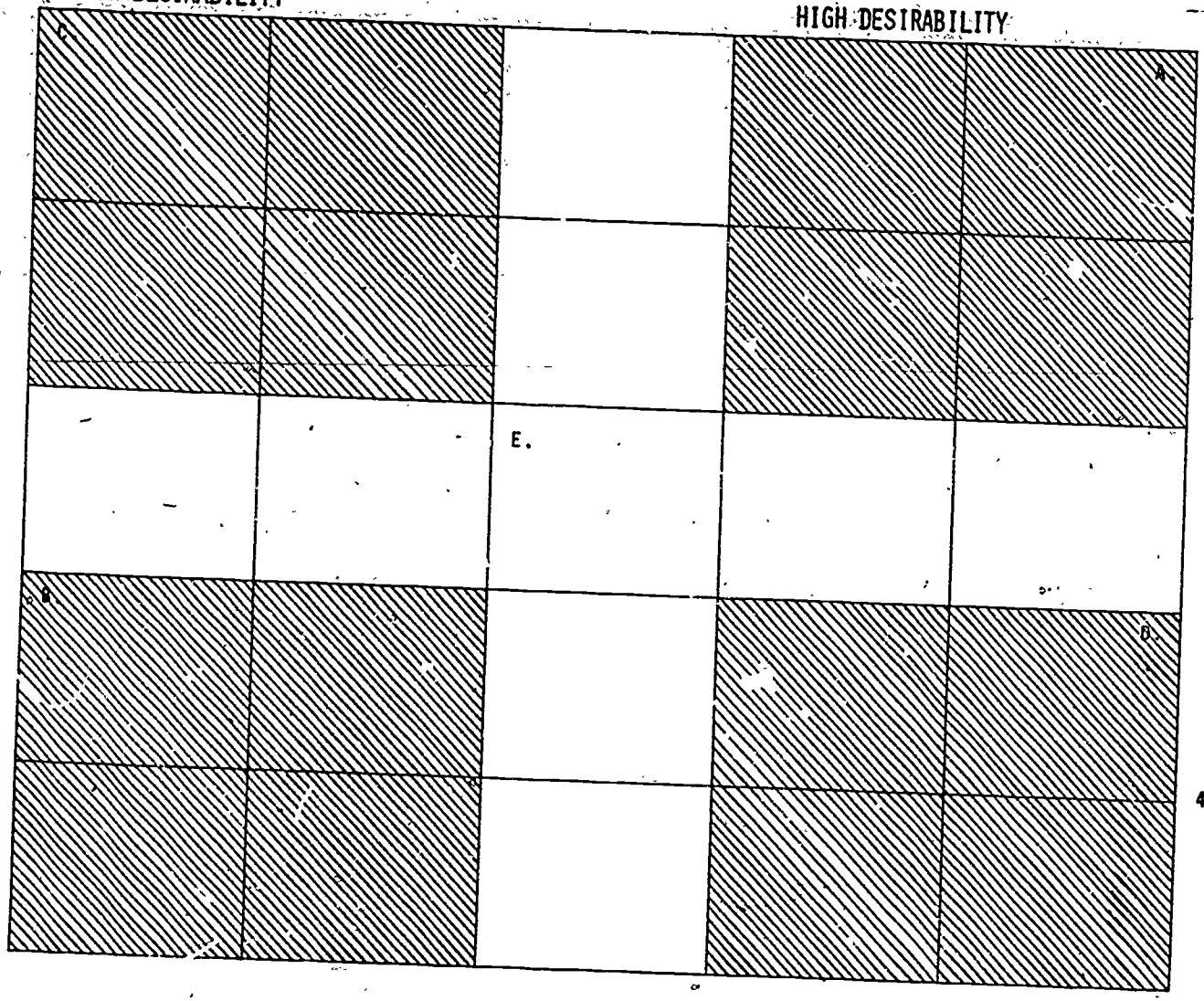
	First Choice	Second Choice	Third Choice
Alice	A	B	C
Betty	B	C	A
Carol	C	A	B

Alice prefers A over B, and B over C:
Betty prefers B over C, and C over A.
Carol prefers C over A, and A over B.

At first glance, it may appear that A is preferred to B, that B is preferred to C, and that, therefore, A is preferred to B and C; however, the following chart indicates that C is preferred to A at least twice. This example simply proves that it is extremely difficult to use logic or vote counting to make a group decision that the group is really pleased about.

Marty Prentice, Duke University College of Business Education, and Prudence Dyer, Drake University College of Education, have designed a desirability-feasibility chart that simplifies and equalizes the group decision-making process. When used correctly, it also eliminates the possibility of a strong personality's dominating the decision-making process of the group.

Each participant should be provided with three copies of the desirability-feasibility chart (see pp. 55, 57, 60). Facilitators should use one copy of the chart to explain the procedure. The chart is divided into 25 grids.


LOW DESIRABILITY
HIGH DESIRABILITY
HIGH FEASIBILITY
LOW FEASIBILITY
C.
A.
E.
B.
D.
3.
1.
2.
4.

Each grid represents a ranking of desirability and feasibility. For example:

A = alternative with the highest desirability and the highest feasibility.

B = alternative with the lowest desirability and the lowest feasibility.

C = alternative with the lowest desirability but the highest feasibility.

D = alternative with the highest desirability but the lowest feasibility.

E = alternative that has medium desirability and medium feasibility.

The shaded areas indicate the following:

#1 = any alternative in these four grids would have above-average desirability and feasibility.

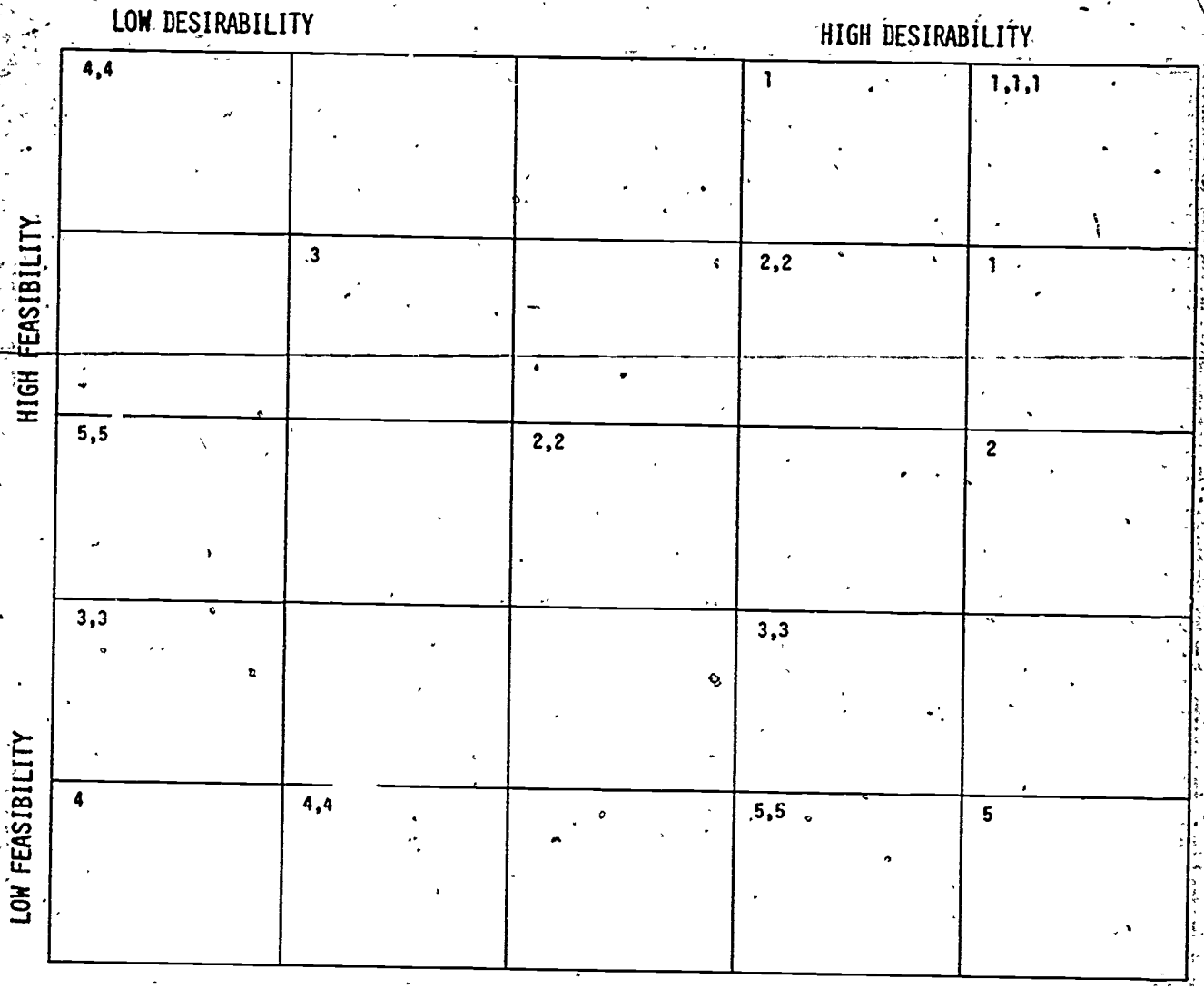
#2 = alternatives in these four grids would have below-average to low feasibility and desirability.

#3 = these alternatives would have below-average to low desirability but above-average to high feasibility.

#4 = these alternatives would have below-average to low feasibility but above-average desirability.

Explain to participants that, to use the chart to make a group decision, a group would first need to identify the problem--the resources, constraints, values and ethics. Next, the group would list the alternatives, each of which would be assigned a number. Each member of the group would be given a chart upon which to position the alternatives, by number, as she or he saw fit. Finally, the charts would be collected and a master chart prepared by recording each person's tally.

For example, five people are deciding from among five alternatives. A master chart might look something like this:


LOW DESIRABILITY
HIGH DESIRABILITY
HIGH FEASIBILITY
LOW FEASIBILITY
4,4
1
1,1,1
3
2,2
1
5,5
2,2
2
3,3
3,3
4
4,4
5,5
5

From the tally, it looks as if #1 and #2 have the highest ranking of desirability and feasibility, while #3 and #4 have the lowest rankings in desirability and feasibility.

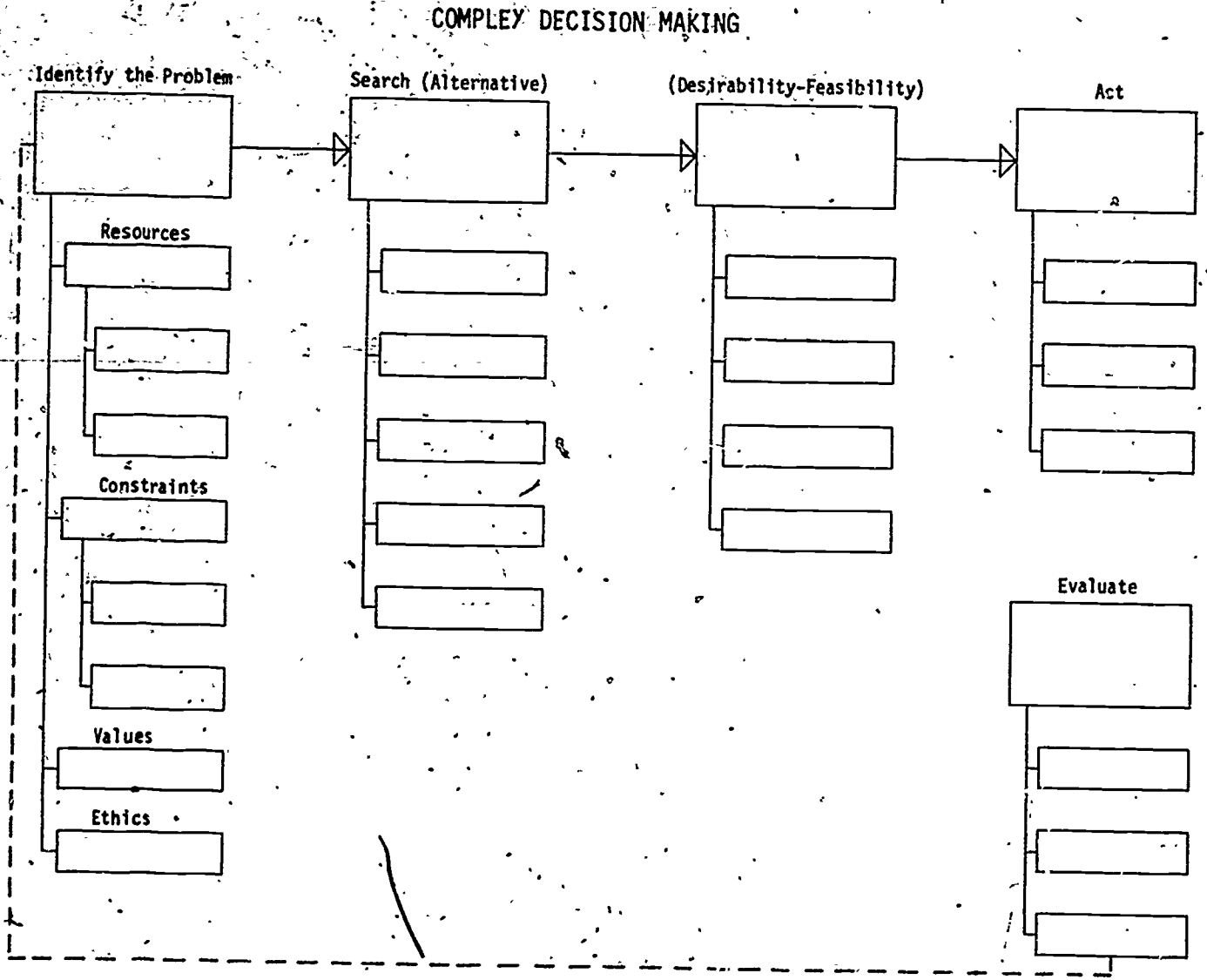
The alternative chosen by the group as being most feasible and most desirable is #1.

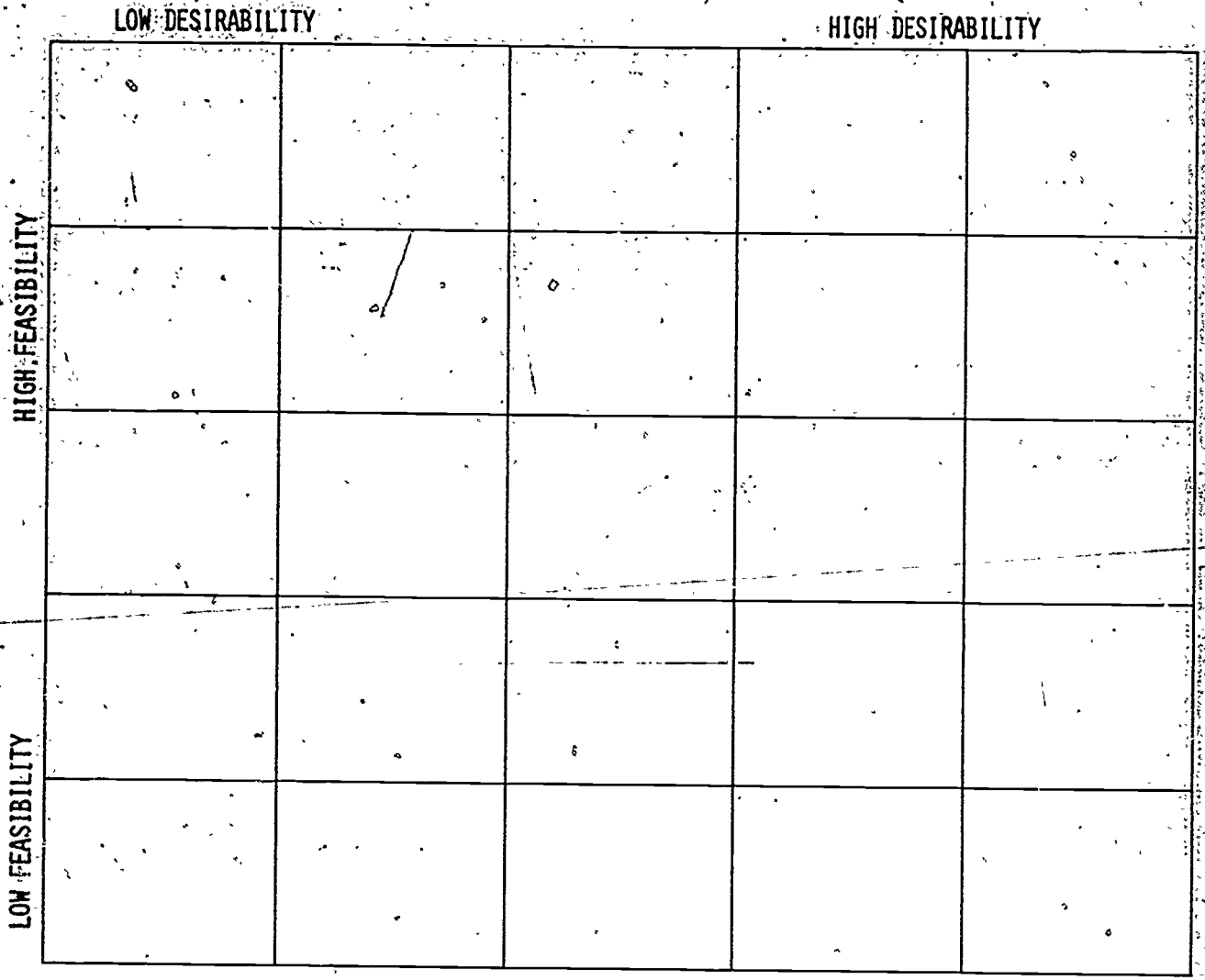
Facilitators should spend a few minutes answering any questions participants have. Then ask participants to take out their homework assignment from Session III (description of a group decision--setting, structure, leadership, participants and preparation for the decision).

Divide participants into groups of from four to six persons each. Ask them to share their group decisions and to pick one to work on as a group. (Incidentally, participants could use this process to determine the decision they will work on.) After choosing the decision, the group should define the problem (constraints, resources, values and ethics) and determine the alternatives, assigning a number to each alternative. Then each participant should use her chart and determine her desirability-feasibility ranking for each alternative. Have one person complete the master chart and let the group know what decision was made.

Come back to the full group and process the exercise. Facilitators should ask participants what they thought of the process. Ask them to reflect on ways they could use it at work (and/or at home).

End the session by reminding participants that a panel discussion is planned for Session V.


COMPLEX DECISION MAKING
Identify the Problem
Search (Alternative)
(Desirability-Feasibility)
Act
Resources
Constraints
Values
Ethics
Evaluate


LOW DESIRABILITY
HIGH DESIRABILITY
HIGH FEASIBILITY
LOW FEASIBILITY

GROUP DECISION MAKING

philosophy
vocabulary
personalities
tolerances

unanimous
majority
consensus

ASSETS OF GROUP DECISION MAKING*

- greater sum of knowledge or information
- greater number of approaches to a problem
- differing viewpoints to stimulate new thought
- wider acceptance of final choice
- reduced chance for communication failure
- better comprehension of decision outcome

PROBLEMS RELATED TO GROUP DECISION MAKING†

- social pressure
- acceptance of alternative solutions
- individual domination
- winning the decision

GROUP SIZE‡

- odd number to prevent a deadlock
- small enough for the reticent to participate
- large enough to allow one to shift roles
- large enough to allow one to withdraw from a position
- large enough to allow majority/minority split without isolating a single member

*From Harrison, p. 199.
†Ibid., p. 200.
‡Ibid.,

DECISION STRATEGIES WHEN YOU ARE WORKING WITH GROUPS

	WHEN YOU NEED CREATIVE DECISIONS	WHEN YOU NEED DIRECTED DECISIONS
Sample situations	When generating alternatives	When making selection and planning decisions
Roles	Heterogeneous, competent persons; a leader who encourages creative processes	Specialists and other involved persons, directed by a task-oriented leader or coordinator
Processes	Free discussion of all ideas brought before the group; problem-solving process with full participation; spontaneous communication	Specify objectives; interaction between participants; focus on productivity and goal achievement
Climate	Relaxed, nonstressful, ego-supportive; absence of rules, procedures and sanctions	High stress and tension levels; focus on quality and quantity commitments and time constraints
Norms	Openness in communication; consensus; nonauthoritarian	Professionalism; objectivity; majority; authoritarian directiveness

Summary: Decision Making*

A decision is not possible unless there are two or more courses of action to take.

The individual makes each decision unique. Two people may face a similar decision, but each person is different, and each may want a different outcome.

A decision can be rated as critical or important:

1. If it has something to do with what you can or cannot do in the future.
2. If it affects others.
3. If it is important to you.
4. If it is difficult to resolve immediately.

Most people say that a decision is poor if the result is not what they wanted; however, a person has direct control over the decision, not the outcome. A good decision does not guarantee a good outcome, because you cannot control the outcome. A good decision, however, will increase your chances of having a good outcome.

A good decision is one in which the skills of decision making are used to choose the alternatives that are best according to the decision maker's preferences. The "goodness" of a decision is based on how it is made, not on how it turns out. A good decision could yield a bad outcome, and a bad decision (one poorly made) could yield a good outcome.

SESSION V: WORKING WITH PEOPLE

REVIEW

The first 30 minutes of this session should be spent on a review and summary of the previous sessions of the workshop. Facilitators should encourage participants to ask any questions or share any comments they might have about the workshop thus far. If for some reason you have been unable to complete any part of the previous lecturettes or exercises, now is the time to do that.

PANEL DISCUSSION: MANAGERIAL WOMEN

The last 2 hours of this session should be devoted to a panel discussion. Members of the panel should include successful minority women from your community who are in managerial positions in business, state agencies or educational institutions. A panel of four to six women is a comfortable number for discussion.

Choose your panelists carefully. They should be confident and competent managerial women, at ease with oral communication skills.

Be sure to contact potential panelists several weeks in advance, as they will need to make arrangements in their busy schedules to accommodate you. It is not too early to call potential panelists 6 weeks to a month before the workshop to set a tentative time and to be placed on their schedules. Your call should be followed by a letter to the panelists during the first week of the workshop. The following is an excerpt from letters that have been sent to panelists:

> We are currently conducting a six-session workshop on Management Basics for Minority Women. It is designed for minority women who are in non-supervisory positions or new to the work force and who are concerned with advancing into management, developing communication skills, developing decision-making skills and working with people.
>
> We are pleased that your schedule permits you to be our guest on (date and time). Members of the panel will include (list names).
>
> We are particularly interested in having you address the issue of working with people from your perspective as a member of a minority group and as a woman. Questions you might consider while preparing your remarks include the following:
>
> What problems have you encountered because you are a woman and/or a minority group member?
> What ways have you devised to cope with these problems effectively (and what methods have you found to be ineffective in coping with these problems)?

What advantages and disadvantages do you have as a minority group member and/or woman?
What advice can you give to a minority woman who is aspiring to a management position?

If possible, we would like you to limit your remarks to from 5 to 7 minutes. A question-and-answer period will follow, allowing participants an opportunity to gain additional insights.

Your letter should conclude by reiterating the date, time and place of the meeting. Give your phone number so that panelists can call you for further information if necessary or can alert you to any last-minute scheduling difficulties.

It is, of course, impossible to provide specific information about what will occur in this session. The success of the session depends almost entirely on the managerial expertise and remarks of the panelists and on the responses of the participants. The role of the facilitators is to encourage discussion by judiciously adding pertinent comments and making sure that all are at ease. It is best to declare this a closed session, since some of the information that panelists wish to share could be of a confidential nature. If participants and panelists are made aware of a policy of confidentiality, the panelists usually will be more willing to share important information.

Incidentally, this session of the workshop has proved to be informative and exciting, not only for participants, but also for panelists.

(Note: Because the panelists have arranged their schedules to accommodate you in an information-sharing session, it is nice to try to provide them with a small honorarium. This expression of gratitude, depending on your budget, could range from $10.00 to $25.00. The panelists will appreciate this small token of thanks.)

SESSION VI: WORKING WITH PEOPLE (continued)

FEEDBACK ON PANEL DISCUSSION

Facilitators should begin this session by allowing 15 to 20 minutes for feedback on the panel discussion. This is an opportunity for participants to ask questions or share thoughts about the panel, after having had some time to reflect.

SUMMARY

Facilitators should next ask participants to complete the validation exercise (see participant materials), which is self-explanatory. About 20 to 30 minutes should be spent on this exercise.

At the completion of the validation exercise, participants should come back to the full group. Ask each participant to take a few minutes to complete the workshop evaluation form. Collect the forms as participants complete them.

If applicable, facilitators should award each participant a C.E.D. certificate. Suggest that recipients might wish to make copies of their certificates and have them placed in their personnel files at work.

Conclude the workshop by summarizing the goals and expressing what you feel has been accomplished. Allow time for participants to share any comments they might have. Before dismissal time, give each participant a list of the names, addresses and phone numbers of all participants.

Note: Facilitators should meet within a week or two following the last session of the workshop to share the workshop evaluation forms and to discuss the design and format of the workshop, as well as any deletions or additions that might be helpful for the next workshop.

Also, since facilitators do not participate in the validation exercise, you might want to write a short note to each participant. The note should reflect your personal method of validating one or two characteristics or behaviors you noted during the workshop. You might also offer encouragement to each participant in her efforts to achieve her career goals. Also, send thank-you notes to the role models, along with an honorarium for their services.

MANAGING ORGANIZATIONS: LISTEN, LEARN & LEAD*

Some people aren't interested in being managers--they want to be bosses. They'd rather have people work for them than with them. They seem to think the people they supervise are not only subordinate in rank, but inferior in character and ability.

"I don't want initiative or cooperation from an employee," states one man in his mid-30s who runs his own novelty distribution business. "I want obedience." What he's gotten so far in his four-year-old company is very high personnel turnover.

Contrary to popular opinion, being a manager doesn't come naturally to most people. Yet, since so much good management thinking sounds like obvious common sense once you hear it, it's also hard to convince people that they have something to learn about making the best use of an enterprise's human and material resources. Furthermore, since many poorly managed enterprises still deliver their basic services somehow and, if profit-oriented, make some money, the decision-makers in these institutions remain either unaware of or indifferent to the high price poor management exacts in human stress and material waste. The attitude often seems to be, "We're getting the job done, so what's the problem?"

The problem is how to get the job done well, how to get the most out of what is invested in staff and material, how to explore the unrealized capabilities of the enterprise: the problem is how to manage organizations, be they business entities, social institutions, political units, or civic and cultural organizations.

Solving this problem is the life's work of three successful managers--call them Hannah, Wayne, and Dan--who each make over $40,000 a year managing organizations. After several years in a private social agency and a corporation, Hannah has become the executive vice-president of a prestigious national nonprofit organization. Wayne and Dan are firmly entrenched middle managers in Fortune 100 corporations. Together, these three have over 55 years of mainstream managerial experience.

In talking about what it takes to be a good manager, all three initially stressed personal qualities a manager needs. They emphasized knowing yourself, and being honest about, and comfortable with, what you know.

"People react to the vibrations you project," says Wayne. His voice, a dark-timbred tenor, is carefully even and soothing. He seems conscious about not raising anyone's temperature. "So if you're comfortable with yourself and with the function you hold, that's almost half the battle right there."

---

*By Judy Simmons (a writer formerly in management with AT&T). Reprinted with permission from Black Enterprise magazine, November 1978. Copyright © 1978, Earl G. Graves Publishing Company, Inc.

According to Wayne, the dues paid for getting comfortable, especially by black managers in big corporations, are self-reliance, self-evaluation, and discipline.

"If you're black, you don't have a peer group to talk to," he explains. "I had to internalize, depend on myself. The isolation makes you ask yourself critical questions about your own performance. And you've got to come up with the honest answers or you don't survive.

"Above all, you've got to keep your cool," Wayne adds. "White people expect blacks to blow. It takes a steely discipline to project the right style, and style governs substance in this business."

Speaking with the crisp competency of a Southern-lady school principal, Hannah highlights the importance of self-confidence. "A manager, especially a black woman manager, must have a good sense of self. She has to be secure enough of her own capabilities to compete with white men in their environment." Hannah is five feet, ten inches tall and speaks clearly and definitely. It's easy to imagine her directing other people.

Hannah stresses that women managers must come to terms with traditional feminine role expectations if they are to be effective. "Most women over thirty or thirty-five have some conflict about what a woman should and should not do in relation to men; often the conflict is unconscious. I seem to be lucky enough not to be bothered by that as much as some women I know," she says. "I think growing up on a farm had a lot to do with that. Work had no gender there--everyone did everything--and you learned about teamwork. I've never seen myself as being an extension of males, and I don't have much ambivalence about competing with and supervising men."

The personal qualities that Dan feels are necessary for good managers are honesty, courage, and accountability.

"There are those people who think management is a cold, calculating science," Dan said, "but it all boils down to a basic attitude about people and about oneself. I must be open and honest with people in order to get good morale, and morale is a crucial factor in any work group. I have to know who I am and where I stand on issues and principles. I don't mind sharing these perceptions with my subordinates."

Now approaching 50, Dan has logged over 25 years in management, mostly corporate. He is about six [illegible]t tall with burnished teak-brown coloring. As he speaks in a velvet orator[illegible]aritone, using unaccented standard English flawlessly, it is obvious that [illegible]s quite comfortable with being an over-$60,000-a-year corporate man.

"A basic weakness of the professional managerial class is the avoidance of accountability," states Dan. "Like bureaucrats, professional managers are getting further away from personal responsibility and risk-taking."

Dan is bitingly critical of managers who lack courage and a strong sense of responsibility. "Black managers, with few exceptions, are gutless wonders. I'd rather place the black employment cause in the hands of white women because so many black managers are bull artists. Many of those who carry vice-president titles have no courage and conform far more than is actually required.

"Of course, the selection process by whites chooses these gutless wonders," Dan adds. "The whites weed out more aggressive, hard-charging go-getter blacks through evaluation, calling them brash, abrasive, and insensitive. They want some foot-shuffling darky who will say, 'Yassuh, massa.'"

To the obvious question of how he has survived and flourished in this climate, Dan replied: "Sooner or later, it comes down to taking care of serious business. When they come to me for that, I've got a perspective useful to the corporation, and a plan of action.

"One of my strengths is a naturally good sense of timing. There are many situations in management when timing is key--the right thing at the wrong time can be disastrous."

The personal qualities discussed by Hannah, Wayne, and Dan are the basis for their management styles. There are as many styles for managing people as there are theories about human nature. Managers' styles reflect what they think about their fellow human beings and about themselves.

Someone who assumes that people are basically uninterested in work, want to get as much as they can for nothing, and tend to avoid responsibility will probably choose an authoritarian style similar to that of the man who wants obedience from his employees. Someone who feels that people enjoy meaningful work, generally accept the responsibilities that go with employment, and respond to reason will likely be attracted to more participative management styles.

Since World War II, American management philosophies have moved toward humanism. Instead of the task-oriented management that led to stultifying assembly lines, the tendency now is to focus on satisfying people so they can give their best efforts to accomplishing the work. A major reason for this shift (for those who are unmoved by arguments based on emphathy and compassion) is the simple fact that disgruntled employees are expensive: they take a lot of sick leave; they get careless and have accidents; they interfere with other employees' ability to work; file union grievances that eat up supervisors' time; they create hitches in the work flow; they quit, taking with them expertise that the enterprise has paid for them to acquire, and necessitating more company investment in training new people.

A manager's task is to minimize problems like these by creating a work environment that encourages attendance, productivity, and commitment. Managers can make a start on this by spending some time in introspection to figure out what they do think about the nature of working humans; then they can consciously choose a management style that they should apply consistently in the work

environment. Since the manager's style sets the climate of the work environment, it should be based on something more dependable than personal whims varying daily and hourly with one's moods.

A basic understanding managers and subordinates must come to is precisely what to expect of each other. In the larger corporations, this understanding is based on detailed job descriptions, which manager and subordinate prepare and discuss. Sometimes as a result of such discussions, jobs are redesigned so that the job structures allow subordinates to meet managerial expectations. Too often, managers have hidden agendas which they spring on subordinates after something has "gone wrong," leaving subordinates bewildered and bitter because they didn't even know what the game was, much less how they were expected to play it.

This withholding of information is a manipulative device used by some managers to "keep 'em off balance so they can't gang up on us." Such managers feel their authority will be undermined if subordinates understand the whole program and take adult and equal roles.

Dan's approach to supervising people shows he is very much aware of the need to be clear about expectations. "I think management is basically teaching," he said. "You lay out responsibilities, get understandings with your people, and then let them go. But, of course, you don't abdicate. You keep yourself available for advice and counsel.

"When I take over an organization, I make an assessment of the strengths and weaknesses of the staff. Then I try to get us comfortable with each other. I tell them I don't second-guess them: there's no Monday-morning quarterbacking because hindsight is always 20-20. But, I tell them, if many mistakes are made, I'll begin to question their judgment, and that leads to my losing confidence in them. If that continues, it's sufficient reason for removing them from my organization."

It's axiomatic that these basic steps of management--defining jobs and setting mutually understood objectives--require full two-way communication between manager and subordinate. Wayne and Hannah both emphasize the importance of listening as a managerial technique.

"You have to be a bigger receiver than transmitter," explains Wayne. "You can never learn all there is to know about your people. You have to establish rapport, put yourself in other people's shoes. People basically want to know where they stand--the less ambiguity, the better."

Adds Hannah, "You need to listen. Listening is a definite skill--not just what they say, but how they say it. And you need to observe them, see whom else they talk with regularly so you'll know what sorts of alliances exist in the work group.

"You also need to find out what your people are interested in, what their personal goals are, and how those goals mesh with the organization. A manager must get people to work together to accomplish organizational goals. So you

have to know their strengths and desires, how they view the organization, and what specific things motivate them. And it's important to solicit their ideas of how things can work."

What Hannah described is the two-way feedback process that is essential to effective management. Regular feedback that managers give subordinates on how they're doing is essential for their improved performance, and their development of additional job skills. Feedback from subordinates to managers provides valuable information on job procedures, work problems, and morale and personal needs. Feedback in the form of annual performance appraisals, compiled from notes managers should make regularly during the year, is the basis for subordinates' raises and promotions (or the lack of them). And feedback on poor performance and unsatisfactory behavior, such as persistent absenteeism, is a cornerstone of progressive discipline. When a manager can show that a disciplinary step such as firing was preceded by adequate mutual communication about the problem and its consequences (from docking wages to dismissal), it gives the manager an airtight case in the event of arbitration, and takes a lot of stress and strain off the manager's conscience and nervous system.

And black managers particularly need to minimize the strain they're under. According to Bryant Rollins, a program leader in the American Management Associations' seminars for black managers, the rate of high blood pressure, ulcers, and other stress-related illnesses is about twice as high among black managers as among their white counterparts. He attributes the additional stress to the fact that black managers have fewer support systems, both within and without the corporation, and pay more dearly for mistakes. (This also contributes to the black manager's unwillingness to initiate action and take risks.) Another factor he cites is internal pressure from the self-doubt which the society cultivates disproportionately in black individuals. He told the story of one black woman whose white subordinates ignored her, taking their problems and questions to one of her white peers. It took six months--and input from other black managers at a seminar--for this woman to admit the problem wasn't her subordinates' attitudes but her own lack of confidence and unwillingness to confront white people. After facing that, she was able to tell her staff what she expected of them, and straighten out the peer as well.

One of the best ways for the manager to take off unnecessary pressure is by having the ability to admit mistakes--a rare quality shared by Hannah, Wayne, and Dan.

"It's interesting," says Wayne, "when you've made a mistake and somebody is ready to nail you to the wall, you just say, 'I blew that--it's my fault, and here's what we can do about it.' Nine times out of ten, you'll have them eating out of your hand. And when your own subordinates make mistakes, you should never criticize them in front of other people. You may chew them up one side and down the other in private, but if you support them when they need it, you get real loyalty and respect."

Says Dan: "I have no problem saying I don't know. And when it comes to mistakes, I'm not omnipotent and I let people know that."

Summing up the challenges of managing organizations, and reflecting on the qualities that experienced managers such as Hannah, Wayne, and Dan bring to the job, one thing is clear: good management may be common sense, but good managers are not common people.

VALIDATION EXERCISE

Validation--the process of confirming or validating another person's behavior or individual characteristics--is a caring, human expression. Validation strengthens a relationship and offers the possibility of freeing the other person from self-doubts and anxieties.

The experience of giving and receiving validation may initially be uncomfortable; however, with practice this discomfort can be overcome. Positive validation needs to be an honest statement of one person's experience of another person. "Owning" the validation is necessary ("I value...," "I appreciate...," "I find you..."). This "I" language focuses the statement on the experiencing of the other person and avoids judgmental and evaluative "you" statements.

There are two areas of consideration in developing or enhancing the ability to receive validation from others. First, it is sometimes necessary to give oneself "permission" to receive positive comments or compliments. Second, it is important strenuously to avoid discounting oneself ("I could have done better"), others ("You really don't know me"), or the validation statement ("That's dumb"). Developing a responding statement ("Thank you," "That feels good," "I appreciate that") and practicing or role playing the experience are ways to develop and enhance your validating skills.

Exercise Groups
5 to 6 people

1. Select a recorder and give her your paper.
2. One group member will be the focus of attention and the others will make validating or affirming statements about that person.
3. When you are the focus of attention, listen carefully and enjoy the experience. Respond with appreciation and/or acceptance.
4. Your recorder will list the statements given to you by each group member.

Your name_____ Recorder_____

1._____

2._____

3._____

4._____

5._____

6._____

WORKSHOP EVALUATION FORM

Date_____

The questions below have been designed to aid us in the evaluation of various aspects of this workshop. We are interested in obtaining your honest evaluation so that this information can be used to plan future workshops that will provide maximum benefit to participants.

Section I:

For each question, please rate your response on a 5-point scale, according to the definitions at the top of each column. A space (#20) at the end of the first section is provided for any explanation of your responses you may want to provide.

Please circle the number on the scale most closely matching your response to each question.

	Not at all	Very little	Some	Quite a bit	A great deal
1. Did you like the structure of the workshop?	1	2	3	4	5
2. Did the workshop succeed in meeting its stated goals and objectives?	1	2	3	4	5
3. Did the workshop fulfill your personal goals and expectations?	1	2	3	4	5
4. Did you feel there was enough time for discussion?	1	2	3	4	5
5. Did you feel discussions were instructive and relevant?	1	2	3	4	5
6. Did you find the contact with minority women from other companies helpful and instructive?	1	2	3	4	5
7. Did you feel there was enough time for informal meetings with the workshop leader(s) and with other participants?	1	2	3	4	5
8. Was the level of the workshop too advanced?	1	2	3	4	5

	Not at all	Very little	Some	Quite a bit	A great deal
9. Was the level of the workshop too basic?	1	2	3	4	5
10. Do you feel you learned something in this workshop that you will try out on your present job?	1	2	3	4	5
11. Do you anticipate using the things you learned in future jobs?	1	2	3	4	5
12. Did this workshop alter your career plans in any way?	1	2	3	4	5
13. Do you feel more capable of handling problems with a manager or a supervisor after having attended this workshop?	1	2	3	4	5
14. Did the workshop leader(s) lecture in an interesting and understandable way?	1	2	3	4	5
15. Did the workshop leader(s) seem informed about the subject matter?	1	2	3	4	5
16. Did the leader(s) seem willing to teach and to share knowledge with the group?	1	2	3	4	5
17. Did the leader(s) use the time provided in the most effective way?	1	2	3	4	5
18. Did the leader(s) facilitate the group in sharing ideas and in learning from each other?	1	2	3	4	5
19. Did the leader(s) encourage questions and group discussions?	1	2	3	4	5

20. Please use this space to qualify or explain any of your responses to the above questions:

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Section II:

Please indicate, in your own words, the weak and strong points of the workshop.

1. Please describe the idea, concept, feeling, etc., that you learned or experienced in this workshop which you were the most impressed by and which you will use or would like to use in the future.

2. What did you most enjoy about the workshop?

3. What did you least enjoy about the workshop? What suggestions do you have to improve it?

4. Do you have complaints concerning the physical aspects of the workshop (the room was too hot/cold; there was too much outside noise; etc.)?

5. Did you miss any part of the workshop? Yes_____ No_____
If yes, which part(s) and why?

6. Would you like to receive any additional job-related training? If so, please indicate the type of training (business skills, budgeting and problem solving, organizational skills, assertiveness training, career planning, interviewing skills, etc.).

7. Additional comments concerning the workshop:

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APPENDIX A

Two-Track Model: Decision-Making Paradigm

PROBLEM

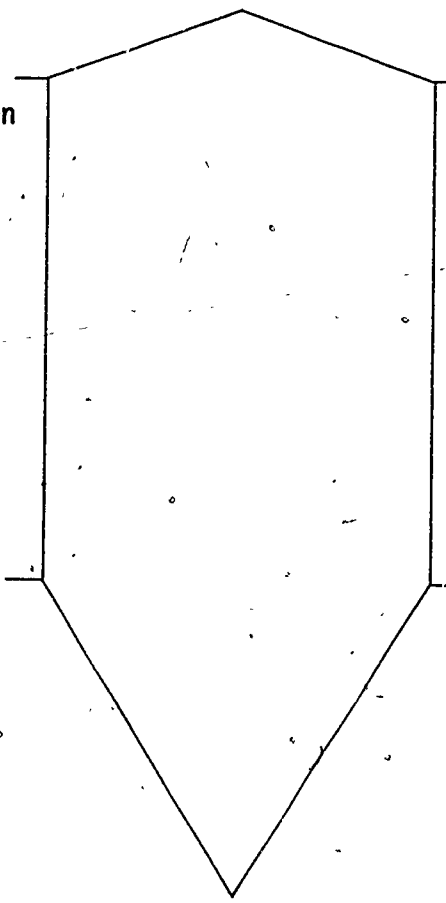
A one-sentence statement of the problem, which is consistent with the information on hand, objectives and information needed. Its validity is tested by rating relevant information and review by experts.

INFORMATION ON HAND

The specific information concerning the problem. Elements include who, what, where, when and why data.

OBJECTIVES

Results needed or limitations that relate to the problem. These are likely to refer to money, people, time, resources, location and goals.



INFORMATION NEEDED

Additional information required for making a choice between options. Quality in evidence is achieved by comprehensiveness, concreteness and relevance.

OPTIONS

Alternative solutions to the problem. Should be reviewed for desirability and feasibility and for consistency with problem statements and objectives.

DECISION

The "best" option

IMPLEMENTATION

The planned use of resources to accomplish the decision. Requires systematic review of trouble spots and "solving" potential problems.

APPENDIX B

WHAT RULES DO YOU HAVE?*

Many women learn to be subordinate by internalizing many self-limiting rules learned from the socializing process. Some of these rules are listed below. Focusing on your own beliefs will raise your own awareness of the possible effects of these beliefs on your behavior. What is significant in each rule is the use of the words ought, must, should and have to. This indicates the controlling influence of the rule and prevents flexibility. Placing unreasonable demands on yourself can work in reverse and cause excessive expectations which often lead to failure, discouragement or a hesitance to start an activity.

Read the following list and check any rules which you feel are a significant influence on your attitude or your behavior.

1. I have to be right.
2. I have to impress others.
3. I must be in control.
4. I should be liked.
5. I must always know the answers.
6. I must be totally responsible.
7. It's necessary to win.
8. I ought always to be informed.
9. I have to be logical and rational.
10. I must always trust and obey authority.
11. It is necessary for me to earn the right to play.
12. I can't be inconsistent.
13. I can't be late.
14. I have to be perfect.
15. I'm always able to take it.
16. I must conform.
17. I have to finish everything.

Other possible rules or messages:

1. Never say no.
2. Smile, no matter how you feel.
3. Always try to improve.
4. Never brag--never claim your strengths.
5. Don't ask for what you want.

Suggestion: Work toward changing the words which are other-directed words (have to, must, can't, ought, should) to inner- or self-directed words (choose, decide, plan, want).

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*Source: New Life Options: The Working Women's Resource Book, by Rosalind K. Loring and Herbert A. Otto. Copyright © 1976, McGraw-Hill Book Company. Used with the permission of McGraw-Hill Book Company. (Practical, complete and comprehensive coverage of the problems and possibilities for women in the working world. Deals with home/job, men/women, subordinate/superior relationships, as well as organization/individual issues.)

APPENDIX C

WHAT WOMEN CAN DO*

Women traditionally have different developmental experiences than men, a fact which results from the culture's views toward sex roles. (This is evident in the infant nursery. Adults make different sounds and use different expressions with an infant wrapped in a blue blanket than with an infant wrapped in a pink blanket.) As women enter the traditionally male area of management, it is necessary to be aware of these differences and to deal with these issues as they become apparent.

A list of suggestions follows:

1. Accept the differences and learn how to overcome them. Possible examples: anxiousness over conflict, vulnerability to criticism, a hesitancy to risk and/or difficulty with initiating causes. These situations need to be anticipated and planned for. Practice at the lowest risk levels will build confidence and one's ability to handle these situations at more intense levels.

2. Decide if you really want to succeed in a management career; evaluate the costs and the benefits.

3. Develop and implement active career plans.

4. Determine present and possible personal levels of knowledge, skill and competence; identify the skills needed and make plans to acquire these skills.

5. Find a coach, godmother, mentor in a senior position to guide and support your career.

6. Become familiar with the informal relationships which usually exist in organizations.

7. Develop awareness of male/female role issues on the job and make plans or procedures to avoid difficulties.

8. Develop home/career plans.

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*From The Managerial Woman, by Margaret Hennig and Anne Jardim. Copyright © 1976, 1977 by Margaret Hennig and Anne Jardim. Reprinted by permission of Doubleday and Company, Inc. (A current, well-written book which explores the differences in the developmental and cultural experiences of men and women and the effect of these differences on managerial skills and careers.)

SUGGESTED READING LIST

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Scholz, Nellie Tumlin, Judith Sosebee and Gordon Peter Miller. How to Decide: A Guide for Women. New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1975.

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Hanson, Phillip C. "The Johari Window: A Model for Soliciting and Giving Feedback," in 1973 Handbook for Group Facilitators, John E. Jones and J. William Pfeiffer, eds. San Diego, Calif.: University Associates, 1973.

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