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半島青年商会主催

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CHARACTERISTICS OF A TEAM

1. A team needs to have clear, challenging objectives which everyone understamds and want to achieve.

2. A team needs to have members who are committed by being involoved and talking differences through a consensus.

3. A team needs to have members with a variety of different styles that complement one another.

   -Doers who are intent on the job that's to be done and give the team its drive and momentum

   -Thinkers who have good ideas and reject bad ones

   -Carers who keep the team together, ease tensions, promote harmony and are sensitive about relationships with the team

4. A team needs to have a leader who wins consent by adjusting his or her leadership style to suit the needs of the situation. This means sometimes simply telling team members what to do and sometimes getting ideas from team members and orchestrating discussion and agreement.

What is a team ?

Opinions differ, but the simplest definition is to say a team is a small group (6-8 people is a typical size) who co-operate together on a task in such a way that they accomplish more than the sum total of the individuals. The jargon word for this is synergy. This is sometimes expressed as one plus one equals three because you count the'plus', which represents the interaction between people, the 'one's'.

The idea that a combination of different people working together can achieve synergy is central to the concept of a team as opposed to a mere group. Eight people each with different views who fail to cohere or who simply proceed by letting the majority view prevail (as in voting) are a group (i.e. a collection of individuals) not a team.

What is a leader ?

Again opinions vary but we may think of a leader more as a role with characteristic ways of behaving than a particulars person. Of course sometimes a team has a designated leader but interestingly even then it doesn't necessarily follow that that person will behave as a leader. Sometimes we may discover someone else in the team has taken on the role and is acting as an unofficial leader. Sometimes the role is shared and different people at different times do the leading.

The role of a team leader includes the following key behaviours :

-bringing team members in by inviting their comments and soliciting their ideas

-clarifying the team's objectives

-'grasping the nettle' by raising issues and problems that the team ought to face and tackle

-listening to team members' opinions and checking that they have been understood

What are the hallmarks of a good team ?

1. A good team has a high success rate i.e. more often than not it achieves what it sets out to do.

2. A good team agrees clear, challenging objectives i.e. everyone in the team contributes to, share understanding of, and is committed to the objectives.

3. A good team has a leader (it may not always be the same person) who adjusts the leadership style along a spectrum from participative to autocratic in the light of circumstances.

4. A good team has a mix of people who contribute in different but complementary ways thus achieving synergy.

5. A good team operates in such a way that a balance is struck between concern for the task (the 'what')and concern for the process (the 'how').

6. A good team creates a supportive atmosphere where people are happy to go at risk, say what they really think, develop one another's ideas,commit to an agreed course of action even though there may have been differences of opinion.

7. A good team learns from experience, both success and failures, by reviewing it processes and thus constantly improving its own performance.

8. A good team works hard and plays hard i.e. they not only achieve challenging objectives but enjoy themselves as they do.

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e: nwork Questionnaire
h.s short questionnaire will help you discover your style when working
n groups or teams.
h. ughout the questionnaire imagine yourself as a member of a small group
r team, of six or so people. Simply read each item, there are 40
ltogether, and decide as honestly as you can whether you often, sometimes
r rarely behave in the way described. Indicate whether it is often,
o: etimes or rarely in the appropriate box beside each item.

TEAMWORK QUESTIONNAIRE

	Often	Sometimes	Rarely
1. I go out of my way to encourage people in the group.	☐	☐	☐
2. I am inclined to get impatient with people who 'beat about the bush'.	☐	☐	☐
3. I urge the group to stick to plans and schedules and meet deadlines.	☐	☐	☐
4. When there are different opinions within the group, I encourage people totalk their differences through to a consensus.	☐	☐	☐
5. I can be counted on to contribute original ideas.	☐	☐	☐
6. I use humour to ease tensions and maintain good relationships.	☐	☐	☐
7. I seek common understanding prior to making decisions.	☐	☐	☐
8. I listen carefully to what others have to say.	☐	☐	☐
9. I avoid getting involved in conflicts.	☐	☐	☐
10. I can quickly see what is wrong with unsound ideas put forward by others.	☐	☐	☐
11. I openly communicate the whys and wherefores of a situation.	☐	☐	☐

	Often	Sometimes	Rarely
12. I am always ready to back a good suggestion in the common interest.	☐	☐	☐
13. I tend to put forward lots of ideas.	☐	☐	☐
14. I draw people out whenever I sense they have something to contribute.	☐	☐	☐
15. When things aren't progressing well I push ahead and get the job done.	☐	☐	☐
16. I develop other people's ideas so that they are improved.	☐	☐	☐
17. I tend to change my mind after listening to other people's points of view.	☐	☐	☐
18. I tend to seek approval and support from others.	☐	☐	☐
19. I don't mind being unpopular if it gets the job done.	☐	☐	☐
20. I actively seek ideas and opinions from other people.	☐	☐	☐
21. I am a friendly person and find it easy to establish good rapport with others.	☐	☐	☐
22. I am careful not to jump to conclusions too quickly.	☐	☐	☐
23. I am good at noticing when someone in the group is feeling aggrieved or upset.	☐	☐	☐
24. I enjoy analysing situations and weighing up alternatives.	☐	☐	☐
25. I can work well with a very wide range of people.	☐	☐	☐
26. I have a repútation for having a no-nonsense 'call a spade a spade" style.	☐	☐	☐
27. I like to feel I'm fostering good working relationships.	☐	☐	☐
28. I tend to be forceful and dynamic.	☐	☐	☐

	Often	Sometimes	Rarely
29. I like to anticipate probable difficulties and be prepared for them	☐	☐	☐
30. I press for action to make sure people don't waste time or go round in circles.	☐	☐	☐
31 32. I can usually get people to agree on a course of action.	☐	☐	☐
32 33. I like to ponder alternatives before making up my mind.	☐	☐	☐
33 34. I tend to be open about how I'm feeling.	☐	☐	☐
34 35. People sometimes think I'm being too analytical and cautious.	☐	☐	☐
35 36. In discussions I like to get straight to the point.	☐	☐	☐
36 37. While I'm interested in all views I do not hesitate to make up my mind when a decision has to be taken.	☐	☐	☐
37 38. Flippant people who don't take things seriously enough usually irritate me.	☐	☐	☐
38 39. I am able to influence people without pressurizing them.	☐	☐	☐
39 40. I like to think things through before doing something.	☐	☐	☐

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TEAMWORK QUESTIONNAIRE : SCORE KEY

ITEM	OFTEN	SOME TIMES	ITEM	OFTEN	SOME TIMES	ITEM	OFTEN	SOME TIMES	ITEM	OFTEN	SOME TIMES
1			2			5			6		
4			3			10			9		
7			15			13			12		
8			19			16			17		
11			26			22			18		
			28			24			21		
20			30			29			23		
31			32			33			25		
37			36			35			27		
39			38			40			34		

Total of items m'ked 'often'			
Multiply by 2			
Total of items m'ked 'sometimes'			
Grand Total			
	LEADER	DOER	THINKER	CARER

Score % : > 15/20 strong

< 9/20 not comfortable with this role

How to score and interpret your questionnaire

The questionnaire is designed to reveal your teamwork style and indicate which of four roles you are best suited to. The four roles are:

Leader - making sure that objectives are clear and agreed and that everyone is involved and committed.

Doer - urging the team to get on with the task in hand.

Thinker - producing carefully considered ideas and weighing up and improving ideas from other people.

Carer - easing tensions and maintaining harmonious working relationships.

Which role or roles are you best suited to? It is possible that you are an all-rounder equally at home with each of the four roles. Most people, however, have a role that fits best with their style and another one or two roles that they can utilise if need be.

To score your questionnaire indicate in the columns on the next page, which items you thought you did <u>often</u> or <u>sometimes</u>. Do not indicate items you marked as rarely done.

The maximum score for each role is 20. Your highest total score indicates the role you are best suited for. Your next highest indicates your back up role or roles. Low scores, say of 9 or below, suggest you are not comfortable with that particular role or roles. If your scores are all around the 15 mark, whilst there might be a preference for one or two roles, it suggests you are flexible enough to adopt any of the four roles.

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THE ABILENE PARADOX

A personal experience told by Jerry Harvey, Professor of Business Administration at George Washington University

Sunday afternoons in July in Coleman, Texas (population 5,607) are not exactly winter holidays. This one was particularly hot - 104 degrees as measured by the Walgreen's Rexall Ex-Lax Temperature Gauge located under the tin awning which covered a rather substantial "screened-in" back porch. In addition, the wind was blowing fine-grained West Texas topsoil through the house. The windows were closed, but dust filtered through what were apparently cavernous, but invisible, openings in the walls.

"How could dust blow through closed windows and solid walls?" one might ask. Such a question betrays more of the provincialism of the reader than the writer. Anyone who has ever lived in West Texas wouldn't bother to ask. Just let it be said that wind can do a lot of things with topsoil when more than thirty days have passed without rain.

But the afternoon was still tolerable - even potentially enjoyable. A water-cooled fan provided adequate relief from the heat as long as one didn't stray too far from it, and we didn't. In addition, there was cold lemonade for sipping. One might have preferred stronger stuff, but Coleman was "dry" in more ways than one; and so were my in-laws, at least until someone got sick. Then a teaspoon or two for medicinal purposes might be legitimately considered. But this particular Sunday no one was ill; and anyway, lemonade seemed to offer the necessary cooling properties we sought.

And finally, there was entertainment - Dominoes. Perfect for the conditions. The game required little more physical exertion than an occasional mumbled comment, "shuffle 'em", and an unhurried movement of the arm to place the spots in the appropriate perspective on the table. It also required somebody to mark the score; but that responsibility was shifted at the conclusion of each hand so the task, though onerous, was in no way physically debilitating. In short, dominoes was diversion, but pleasant diversion.

So, all in all, this was an agreeable - even exciting - Sunday afternoon in Coleman; if, to quote a contemporary radio commercial, "You are easily excited." That is, it was until my father-in-law suddenly looked up from the table and said with apparent enthusiasm, "Let's get in the car and go to Abilene and have dinner at the cafeteria."

To put it mildly, his suggestion caught me unprepared. You might even say it woke me up. I began to turn it over in my mind. "Go to Abilene? Fifty-three miles? In this dust storm? We'll have to drive with the lights on even though it's the middle of the afternoon. And the heat. It's bad enough here in front of the fan, but in an unairconditioned 1958 Buick it will be brutal. And eat at the cafeteria? Some cafeterias may be okay, but the one in Abilene conjures up dark memories of the enlisted men's field mess."

But before I could clarify and organize my thoughts even to articulate them, Beth, my wife, chimed in with, "Sounds like a great idea. I would like to go. How about you, Jerry?" Well, since my own preferences were obviously out of step with the rest, I decided not to impede the party's progress and replied with, "Sounds good to me," and added, "I just hope your mother wants to go."

"Of course I want to go," my mother-in-law replied, "I haven't been to Abilene in a long time. What makes you think I wouldn't want to go?"

So into the car and to Abilene we went. My predictions were fulfilled. The heat was brutal. We were coated with a fine layer of West Texas dust which was cemented with perspiration by the time we arrived; and the food at the cafeteria provided first-rate testimonial material for Alka-Seltzer commercials.

Some four hours and 106 miles later we returned to Coleman, Texas, exhausted. We set in front of the fan for a long time in silence. Then, both to be sociable and also to break a rather oppressive silence, I said, "It was a great trip, wasn't it?"

No one spoke.

Finally my mother-in-law said, with some slight note of irritation, "Well, to tell the truth, I really didn't enjoy it much and would have rather stayed here. I just went along because the three of you were so enthusiastic about going. I wouldn't have gone if 'you all' hadn't pressured me into it."

I couldn't believe it. "What do you mean 'you all?'" I said "Don't put me in the 'you all' group. I was delighted to be doing what we were doing. I didn't want to go. I only went to satisfy the rest of you characters. You are the culprits."

Beth looked shocked. "Don't call me a culprit. You and Daddy and Mama were the ones who wanted to go. I just went along to be sociable and to keep you happy. I would have had to be crazy to want to go out in heat like that. You don't think I'm crazy, do you?"

Before I had the opportunity to fall into that obvious trap, her father entered the conversation again with some abruptness. He spoke only one word, but he did it in the quite simple, straightforward vernacular that only a life-long Texan and particularly a Colemanite can approximate. The word was "H-E-L-L-L."

Since he seldom resorted to profanity, he immediately caught our attention. Then he proceeded to expand on what was already an absolutely clear thought with, "Listen, I never wanted to go to Abilene. I was sort of making conversation. I just thought you might have been bored, and I felt I ought to say something. I didn't want you and Jerry to have a bad time when you visit. You visit so seldom I wanted to be sure you enjoy it. And I knew Mama would be upset if 'you all' didn't have a good time. Personally, I would have preferred to play another game of dominoes and eaten the leftovers in the icebox."

After the initial outburst of recrimination we all sat back in silence. Here we were, four reasonable sensible people who, on our own volitions, had just taken a one-hundred-six mile trip across a Godforsaken desert in furnace-like temperatures through a cloud-like duststorm to eat unpalatable food at a hole-in-the-wall caferteria in Abilene, Texas, when none of us had really wanted to go. In fact, to be more accurate, we'd done just the opposite of what we wanted to do. The whole situation seemed paradoxical. It simply didn't make sense.

At least it didn't make sense at that time. But since that fateful summer day in Coleman, I have observed, consulted with, and been a part of more than one organization that has been caught in the same situation. As a result, it has either taken a temporary side-trip, and occasionally, a terminal journey to Abilene when Dallas or Muleshoe or Houston or Tokyo was where it really wanted to go. And for most of those organizations, the destructive consequences of such trips, measured both in terms of human misery and economic loss have been much greater than for the Abilene group.

This story is concerned with a paradox -- "The Abilene Paradox." Stated simply, it is as follows: Organizations frequently take actions in contradiction to what they really want to do and therefore defeat the very purposes they are trying to achieve. It also deals with a major corollary of the paradox, which is that the inability to manage agreement is the major source of organization dysfunction.

When a group gets lost in such a cloud of unrecognized agreement, it frequently manifests behavior that leads one to mistakenly believe the organization is caught in a dilema of conflict. For that reason, it takes a different type of team-development problem-solving process involving agreement management to develop new, more functional organizational behaviors.

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INTERPERSONAL BEHAVIOUR

The purpose of this subject is to develop your understanding of the ways in which people behave when negotiating with one another. We shall first recognise the behaviours which successful negotiators use in counselling situation.

What is a behaviour

A behaviour is something which a person does (not something he is). It is an observable event which you can see or hear to happen.

Examples are:-

. disagreeing with your boss
. scratching your ear
. dialing a telephone number

Some behaviours have more influence on your skills at persuading than others.

Eleven behaviours which influence your success in negotiating and persuading

Making suggestions Building Suggestions	initiation
Agreeing Disagreeing Defending/Attacking Blocking/Difficulty stating Open	reaction
Testing understanding Summarising Seeking information Giving information	clarification

Making suggestion

A suggestion puts forward a NEW concept proposal of a course of action, and is actionable.

Building suggestion

A building suggestion extends or develops a suggestion which has been made by another person. It is an additional concept, proposal, or course of action based on your implied acceptance of the previous proposal, and is also an actionable one.

Building suggestions are very important to the successful derivation of a constructive conclusion. They are often hard to make. Research shows that meetings where a lot of building suggestions occur are more successful than meetings where they are absent.

Agreeing

An agreeing behaviour involves a conscious and direct declaration of support of another person's concepts.

Disagreeing

A disagreeing behaviour involves a conscious and direct declaration of differences of opinion, or criticism of another person's concept.

Defending/Attacking

A defensive/attack behaviour attacks another person or defensively strengthens on individual's own position. Defending/attacking behaviour usually involves the use of emotional words or open criticism (such as "stupid", "nonsense") and often contain emotional overtones.

Blocking/Difficulty stating

Blocking/difficulty stating behaviour places a difficulty or a block in the path of a suggestion or concept without offering any alternative suggestion and without offering a reasoned statement of disagreement, e.g. "It won't work" or "No way".

Open

An open behaviour exposes the individual who makes it taking the risk of loss of status. This behaviour may be considered the opposite of defending/attacking. It includes admissions of self mistakes or inadequacies in a non-defensive manner. It is "self-attacking" in a low profile so as to allow you to prevent receiving an open attack from another person, provided you put this up at the right moment.

Testing Understanding

This seeks to establish whether or not an earlier contribution has been understood. e.g. "Am I right to say that ....."

Summarising

This restates in a compact form the content of previous discussions or considerations. This behaviour is normally used to recapture the aims of the discussion and provides a brief account of the conclusions so far reached.

Testing Understanding and Summarising are the two checking behaviours used extensively by skilled negotiators to avoid confusion and to ensure that everyone is on the same wavelength.

Seeking Information

This is to ask for facts, opinions or clarification from another individual or individuals.

Giving Information

This is to offer facts, opinions or clarification to other individuals.

Perception vs. Intention

Different people have different perception on similar subjects. So does the case in interpersonal communication. All of us have a tendency to accept ideas that us perceive to be right and to screen out those we do not accept. Research data show that this perceptual influence will affect interpersonal communication in at least two ways:-

(1) We SEE in the behaviour of OTHERS

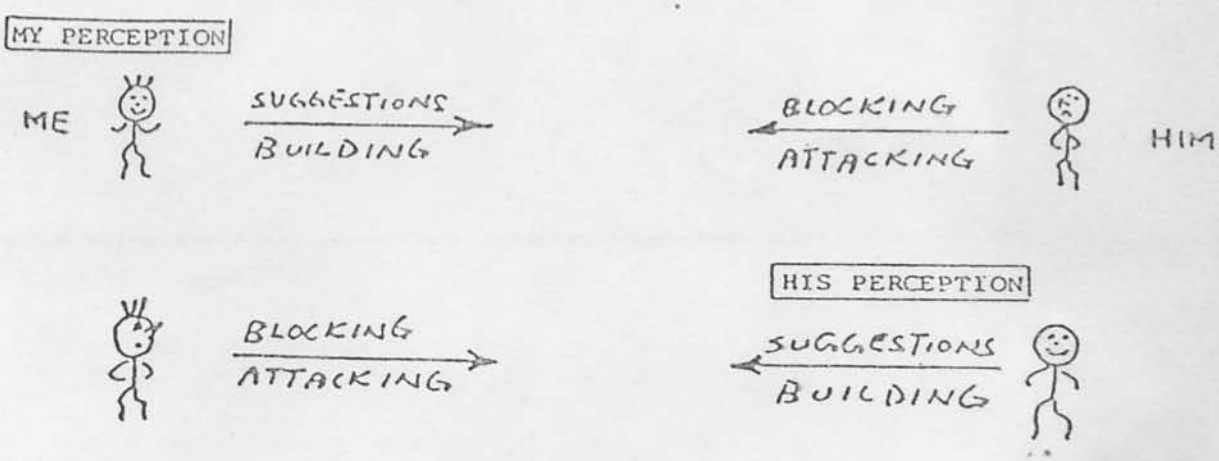
* 2½ times as much blocking/difficulty stating
and * 40% more defending/attacking

than we see in OUR OWN

(2) We SEE in OUR OWN behaviour

* 30% more suggestions
and * significantly more building suggestions

than we see in OTHERS



We can't both be RIGHT
Chances are that we are both WRONG

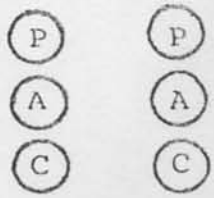
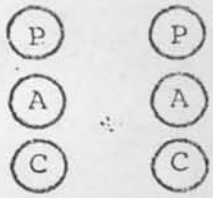
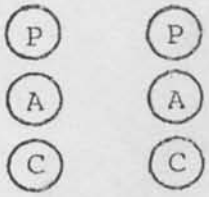
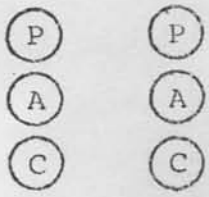
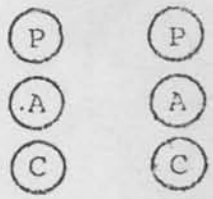
The important fact is that our behaviour is often interpreted differently from what we intended and misinterpreted in a NEGATIVE direction.

What are the common causes of misunderstanding

* Counter suggestions (failure to get a reaction)
* Irritators
* Defending/attacking spirals
* Behaviour chains
* Lack of testing understanding and summarising
* Inadequate or lack of labelling of our behaviour

Avoiding these traps aids clear communication and prevents misunderstanding.

TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS EXERCISE

1.	Female Programmer	:	Look at my deck! It was in order when I gave it to you. Now it's a mess!	
	Young Male Operator	:	So what! You had a keypunch error anyway!	
2.	Female (Telephone)	:	I'd like to speak with Smith. He's in a meeting in Room 10-B.	
	Secretary	:	I'm sorry, but we never interrupt meetings for telephone calls. You'll have to leave a message.	
3.	Male Analyst	:	I don't have the reports - - I didn't even know they were due today.	
	Female Project Leader	:	Look, you know I always need those reports on the 15th of the month! The customer expects them this afternoon, and if they're delivered late again, we'll probably lose his business.	
4.	Vice President	:	If you were organized, you wouldn't have these problems.	
	Department Manager	:	It's not my fault. If it weren't for the headcount freeze, I could meet the schedule.	
5.	User (Telephone)	:	Why can't an organization the size of yours work out a problem as simple as this conversion?	
	Salesman	:	I'm sorry to hear that you're having this problem. I'm sure Mr Cheung, who is in charge of our conversion team, can help. I'll ask him to call you this afternoon.	

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TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS EXERCISE (3)

12.	Boss	:	How does it look? Do you expect to finish on schedule?	(P) (A) (C)	(P) (A) (C)
	Analyst	:	It would have been finished already if it wasn't for the user changing the specifications.		
13.	Manager	:	What do you say we discuss the rest of this over lunch?	(P) (A) (C)	(P) (A) (C)
	Project Leader	:	Great!		
14.	Secretary	:	I'm sorry, Mr Tong's line is busy. Would you like to wait or do you want to leave a message?	(P) (A) (C)	(P) (A) (C)
	Customer (Telephone)	:	I've already left three messages and not one of them has been returned! Why should I think this one would be?		
15.	Female Programmer	:	These users are all alike - - they never know what they really want.	(P) (A) (C)	(P) (A) (C)
	Female Programmer	:	I know just what you mean. I have a customer - - you wouldn't believe how unreasonable he is. Let me tell you what he pulled last week		
16.	Female Programmer	:	Can you help me find the error in this program?	(P) (A) (C)	(P) (A) (C)
	Male Programmer	:	I can't help you - I've got enough problems of my own! The boss is on my back. My program won't work and the turnaround is lousy.		
17.	Secretary	:	Mr William called while you were at lunch and cancelled his 2:30 appointment with you.	(P) (A) (C)	(P) (A) (C)
	Boss	:	What do you mean, he cancelled his appointment? You should have told him how important it was!		

TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS EXERCISE (2)

6.	Salesman	:	How long do you expect the presentation to late?	(P) (A) (C)	(P) (A) (C)
	Secretary	:	It should be over by, oh .. ... 3:00 - 3:30. Are you planning to attend it?		
7.	Programmer	:	I can't wait all day for those reports. The customer expects them by noon.	(P) (A) (C)	(P) (A) (C)
	Decollator	:	I've got all kinds of work to do myself, but I can't get anyone to fix my machine.		
8.	Salesman	:	You should never make appointments for me without checking first! I can't meet with Marshall at 2:00.	(P) (A) (C)	(P) (A) (C)
	Secretary	:	What else was I supposed to do? That's the only time he could come!		
9.	Customer	:	I can never make this machine work right. It keeps jamming!	(P) (A) (C)	(P) (A) (C)
	Female Clerk:		I never have this problem with customers that know how to use this equipment.		
10.	User	:	Is it possible to build this system so that it will provide a one hour response?	(P) (A) (C)	(P) (A) (C)
	Analyst	:	That's too expensive. A system that provides a 24-hour turn-around is sufficient for your requirement.		
11.	User (Telephone)	:	If you can't have these modifications completed and to me by Friday, we can't do business.	(P) (A) (C)	(P) (A) (C)
	Analyst	:	Now look! You're not the only customer I work with. You'll just have to wait your turn like everyone else.		

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TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS

INTRODUCTION

The theory of transactional analysis has only in recent years been thought worth applying in the area of customer services as a result of it being popularized by books such as the following:-

(a) I'm OK - You're OK,
(b) Games People Play,
(c) Born To Win, and
(d) Everybody Wins.

This theory has a relatively short history - spanning over a period of only 20 years. It was originated by Dr. Eric Berne to explain, in an oversimplified way, the transactions or moves people make in their dealings with others.

Dr. Berne believed that a person's pattern of behaviour is well formed relatively early in life, perhaps at the age of 5. If a baby is fortunate enough, he is loved by those around him, who comfort and care for him. People around him will rock him, sing to him, feed him, and protect him. Gradually, the baby is able to recognize those around him and he begins to absorb or record what is going on.

When he can move around on his own, he encounters the "No, no" or "Don't do this" of his parents. He begins to find out what behaviour is "OK" and what is not. He learns, for example, that it is all right to paint a colour book but not the wall. As he matures he learns to size up the facts of every situation. He calculates the odds and decides whether to do certain acts or not, depending upon the consequences he can see and reason out for himself.

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During all these formative years, the brain is recording every experience for future playback. From birth our brains act as high-fidelity tape recorders, recording not only experiences but all of the thoughts, feelings, sights, sounds and smells associated with them. Whatever we have ever done is recorded in the brain and all it requires is a stimulus to help us recall past experiences. The sight of fresh falling snow, the smell of bakery bread, or the sound of a special tune can bring long forgotten memories flooding back.

THREE DIFFERENT EGO STATES

The information recorded by our brains almost from the moment we are born forms the basis of the three ego states. Each individual has 3 separate and distinct parts within himself which we may call the "Parent", "Adult" and "Child". They are represented by capital letters P, A, C in TA language. This is to reinforce the fact that they differ from their usual meanings of parents, grown-ups and children.

The Parent

The Parent ego state is molded by what our brains have recorded as we watched and heard our actual parents or others who served as parent figures. Later in life we may still hear their original "No, no" or "Good boy, Good girl" in our minds.

Early in life the values and ideals of our parents became ours. The information is taken in straight, without any editing. It is stored just as if it were on videotape and available for instant replay.

The information or messages picked up by a child can be both verbal and non-verbal. Have you ever been told that you look or act like your mother or father? Children often adopt the mannerisms and gestures of their parents. It could be an accent in their speech, a walk, a stance, a gesture or a facial expression.

Everything we saw was recorded. These external events that happened around us have been deeply rooted in our "recorder". These include the rules, laws, "How to", "don't", "should", "shouldn't", etc. We will recall certain responses and reactions automatically and unconsciously in our working lives.

The Parent ego state has two components:

(a) The Nurturing Parent and
(b) The Critical or Prejudicial Parent

The NURTURING PARENT is that part of us when we become sympathetic, encouraging and protective.

The CRITICAL or PREJUDICIAL PARENT is that part of us when we behave in a judicial, moralising or punitive manner.

The Adult

The Adult ego state gathers and processes information, it then computes it and evaluates it. When we in the "Adult" role we usually become unemotional and we are more concerned with what is most expedient and most useful. This state allows us to develop a capability to assess the realities around us.

The Child

The Child ego state encompasses all the thoughts, actions and feelings experienced in childhood. A man jumping for joy when his team scores a touch down is indistinguishable from a five-year-old boy. The Child is creative, self-indulgent, affectionate, rebellious, self-centered, fearful, aggressive, curious, and fun-loving.

There are three distinct parts of the Child ego state: (a) the Natural Child, (b) the Adapted Child, and (c) the Little Professor.

(a) The Natural Child is joyful, spontaneous, adventurous, angry, rebellious, fun-loving, etc. He is free, un-restrained, impulsive, aggressive and fearful.

(b) The Adapted Child is complying, withdrawing and courteous. Everyone of us is born with a Natural Child state but soon, we learn through experiences and parental training that in order to get along in society some of the inclinations of the Natural Child have to be modified. Social skills which are helpful in relating to others and in fulfilling personal social needs are transmitted to the Adapted Child, the feelings of "Okayness" and/or of inadequacy.

(c) The Little Professor possesses the ability to intuitively figure things out. When applying this ability, we know how long we can put off doing something before getting into trouble. We can motivate a friend, co-worker or spouse to do a favour for us.

It is significant that we can understand these 3 different ego states. We cannot say that one ego state is better than another. It would depend on the situation, and each of us will have to decide which ego state is most appropriate. In a working environment, it is desirable to have our Adult state functioning because this will assist us in making correct decisions.

Understanding and being aware of the three ego states (P, A, C) can give us freedom of choice - how we think, feel and behave in any given situation; how we make decisions and recognize the alternatives available to us.

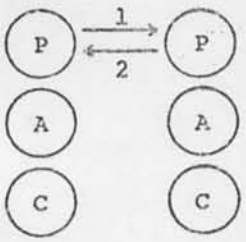
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TRANSACTIONS

What are we doing here?

We are transacting with each other to get strokes and recognition. Sometimes we get exactly what we expect - things turn out like we intended. Sometimes the conversation gets cut off immediately and we are surprised or confused. Sometimes I say one thing, but secretly I mean another, so I say it in such a way that the person will hear my hidden message as the real message. These are the three main ways we talk to each other. We talk from the Parent, Adult or Child part of us to a part of the other person - that means there can be a lot of variety in our responses to each other.

I can talk to your Parent from my Parent and can diagram the conversation like this:



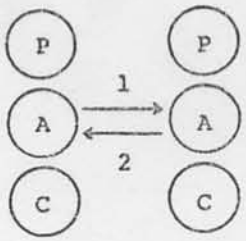
Stimulus:

1. That was a terrible movie. (brow furrowed)

Response:

2. Yes, it was! (upset face)

I can address your Adult with my Adult.



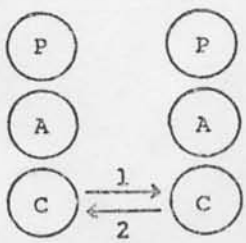
Stimulus:

1. The handling reports will be on your desk at 3 p.m.

Response:

2. Thank you.

I can invite your Child to hear mine.



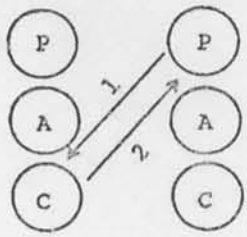
Stimulus:

1. Let's cut class and go surfing.

Response:

2. Let's!

I can talk to your Child from my Parent.



Stimulus:

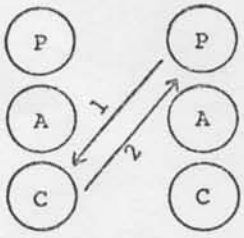
1. You don't look well. Can I help?

Response:

2. Wow! I've got a real headache. Have you an aspirin?

or

...../2



Stimulus:

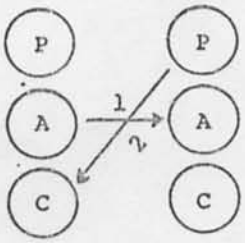
1. You are late for work again! (angry)

Response:

2. I'm sorry. (head hanging)

If I send a message to a part of you and you respond from that part we are in business and can talk that way until we are finished with the subject or until one of us leaves. There is no conflict between us - the lines are all parallel and open. Each of us is getting what we expected.

If I send a message to your Adult and you respond from your Child or Parent we have a problem in communication. Our lines are crossed and we stop talking about the original subject and talk about manners or you or me. These kinds of transactions cause us pain and do not get work done or problems solved. When we get locked into transacting with someone in this manner we need to take a look at what investment we have in not solving problems or in staying upset or unhappy. We can diagram the transaction and track down the trouble and practice new ways of responding and relating.



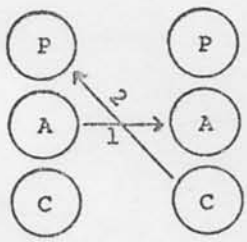
Stimulus:

1. What time are you going home?

Response:

2. Why are you so interested in when I'm leaving?

or



Stimulus:

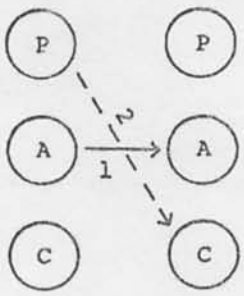
1. What time are you going home?

Response:

2. Wouldn't you like to know!

Either way bad feelings result. Communication stops.

If I have a <u>hidden</u> purpose in my communication I'll say it in such a way that you will get my meaning. My <u>words</u> may be Adult words but said in such a way that your kid hears them.



Stimulus:

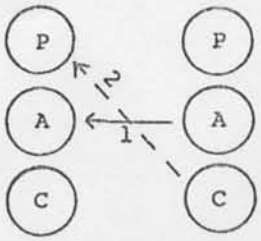
1. I'll do the report this time.

Stimulus:

HIDDEN MESSAGE:

2. You are too stupid to do it right!

...../3



Response:

1. Alright.

Response:

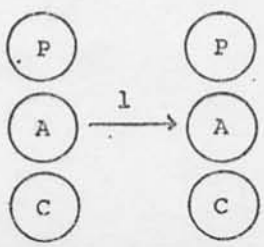
HIDDEN MESSAGE:

2. You are right, I am so dumb that I can't do it right.

When there is an ulterior or hidden message, how the transaction turns out is determined by that unspoken message.

Since you have so many places to respond from, when you are talking to someone else with the same multiple ego states, the possibilities for misunderstandings are staggering.

How do we get unstuck from responding in unhealthy or unsatisfactory ways? Stop and think. That means activating your Adult ego state. You don't have to respond immediately. Take a second and use the part of you that will get you what you want. If you have transactions that are giving you pain, practice coming on with a response from a different ego state. Invite the other person to respond differently to you. That is being in charge of yourself.



Here are a few responses you could make to the stimulus: 1. When are you going home from work?

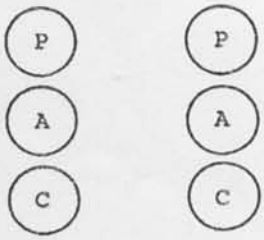
From your
Nurturing Parent:
Do you want to ride with me?
Critical Parent:
Why do you want to know?
Adult:
At 4:30
Adapted Child:
Did you see me leave early yesterday?
Free Child:
As soon as possible!

In rich relationships there are many ways people relate to each other. They can share common goals and ideals and prejudices. They can work together on projects like budgets and income tax. They can discuss and solve problems. They can play together and be close without the need to control or manipulate. They can take care of each other and nurture each other when the other person wants or needs it. They can also be taken care of without feeling inadequate or guilty for it. The more ways they relate the richer and more stable the relationship is. In healthy relationships people transact directly and in a straightforward manner, free from hidden messages and manipulations.

...../4

EXERCISE

Think about an unsatisfactory transaction you had today. Diagram it as you remember it. How could you have responded to invite a different, satisfying result?



Alternate Responses:

Nurturing Parent

Critical Parent

Adult

Adapted Child

Free Child

- END -

TYPES OF BEHAVIOUR	WORDS USED	TONE OF VOICE	FACIAL EXPRESSIONS	BODY GESTURES
CRITICAL PARENT	MUST; SHOULD; I TOLD YOU; NEVER; DON'T DO THIS; MAKE SURE; YOU BETTER; KEEP QUIET;	CRITICAL; COLD; SNEERING; HARSH; FORCEFUL; AUTHORITARIAN; SEVERE;	HORRIFIED LOOK OF DISAPPROVAL; SCOWL;	POINTED INDEX FINGER; ARMS FOLDED; HAND ON HIP;
NURTURING PARENT	DON'T WORRY; DON'T CRY BE GOOD; SMART; DON'T BE AFRAID; NEVER MIND;	SOFT; LOW; PROTECTIVE; SUPPORTIVE; CONSOLING; SYMPATHETIC; ENCOURAGING;	SMILING; PLEASANT; AFFECTIONATE; FRIENDLY;	PAT ON BACK; CONSOLING TOUCH; HOLDING SOMEONE; WAVING HANDS;
ADULT	I THINK; PROBABLY; MY OPIOION; WHAT DO YOU THINK; LET'S FIND OUT; TELL ME MORE;	CLEAR; CALM; OBJECTIVE; APPROPRIATE; INQUIRING;	EYE CONTACT; CURIOUS LOOK; WATCHING ATTENTIVELY; ALERT; PENSIVE;	NODDING HEAD TO INDICATE UNDER-STANDING; FACING SPEAKER; ERECT BUT LOOSE
ADAPTED CHILD	YES! MAY I? I AM SORRY! I WANT; HELP; DID I DO ALL RIGHT?	TIMID; UNCLEAR; REQUESTING; PITIFUL;	EYE DOWNCAST; CRYING; GUILTY LOOK; UNHAPPY; SAD;	WITHDRAWN OBSCENE GESTURES HANDS ON FACE
NATURAL CHILD	I QUIT; OUCH; OH YEAH; I LOVE IT; HA, HA: GIVE ME;	TEASING; PLAYFUL; BABY TALK; EXCITED;	LAUGHING; WIDE-EYED; HAPPY;	SKIPPING; DANCING RHYTHMIC SWAYING

IDENTIFICATION OF BEHAVIOUR

1. How about going to a seven o'clock movie this evening?
   (_____)

2. Don't cry, nobody is going to hurt you.
   (_____)

3. Oh, I am sorry, I will do better next time.
   (_____)

4. Can't you ever do anything right?
   (_____)

5. I don't care, I don't want to do it.
   (_____)

6. What other alternatives do we have?
   (_____)

7. John, have you finished your report on ABC Company?
   (_____)

8. I have enough, I quit.
   (_____)

9. I told you not to be late again!
   (_____)

10. Don't feel bad. I know you have done your best.
    (_____)

GREY STAMP

Sorry, the flight is fully booked. No chance.

Your staff are useless, rude and uncooperative.

CX is a lousy airline.

See, you made that silly mistake again.

I don't like you.

I don't trust you at all.

You airline people talk about nothing but money.

This is ridiculous!

You don't have any initiative.

Damn you!

Damn stupid!

You are making a fool of yourself.

You Chinese.

You should do that.

I'm sorry to tell you that there is no vacancy for you.

You are not good enough for me.

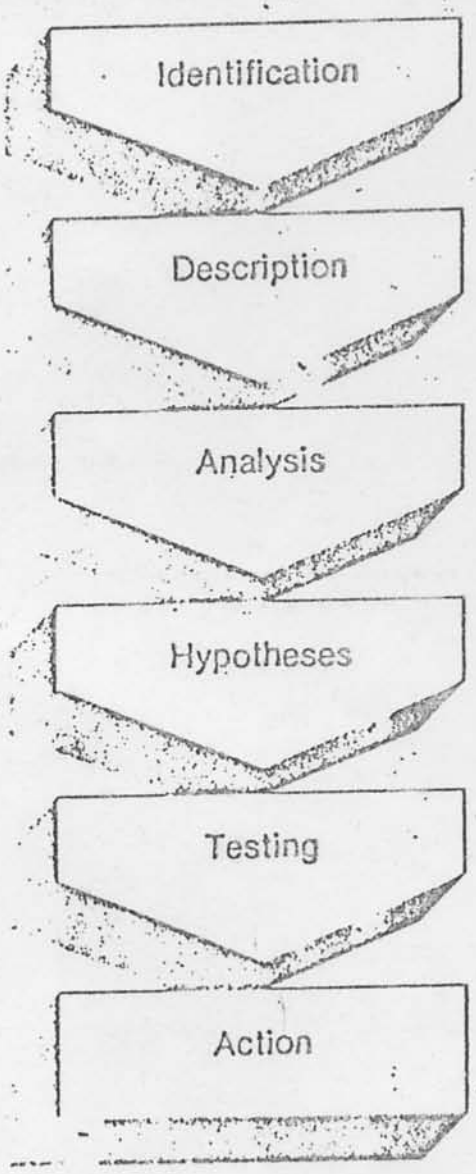
Don't over-estimate yourself. Who do you think you are?

PROBLEM ANALYSIS

Let us situate ourselves in the past.

When we talk about analysing a problem situation, we want to go from *problem* to *action*.

Like in travelling, there are a number of steps that we may have to pursue along that path. That is called the *logic path* of problem analysis.



...of the problem deviation

...of what the problem *is* and *is not*.

...of the information so that we can...

...formulate some hypotheses as to the possible causes of the problem.

...and then we *test* these hypotheses to identify the real cause in order to...

...take the correct action.

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Let us now take a look at the skills involved in each of the steps of the *Problem Analysis Logic Path.*

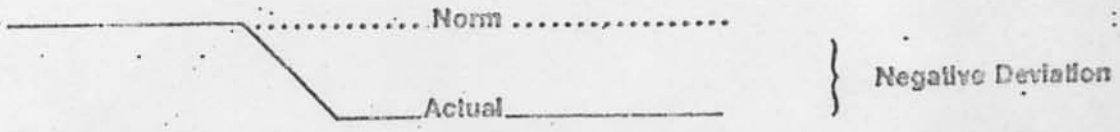
Identification

The first step is, of course, *identification.* "How do I know I've got a problem?" One way of looking at a problem is to say that some obstacle is interfering with attaining some goal. Or some deviation has occurred in the expected performance, or the *norm.* The first element involved is to know the *norm.* Another element that's involved is the knowledge of what is *actually* being achieved or what is actually happening.

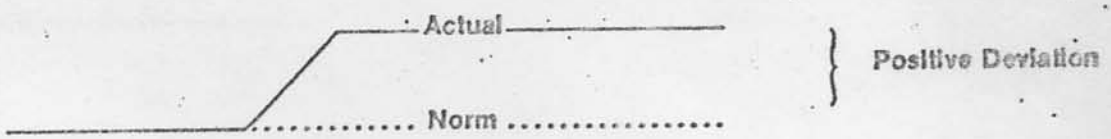
Norm = Actual: No problem

When the *norm* and the actual are one and the same, there is no problem.

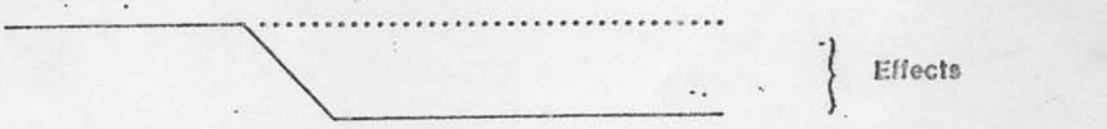
When the actual is lower then the norm, then we have a *negative* deviation.



When the actual is above the norm, then we have a *positive* deviation.



The first thing we will notice about a deviation is its *effects.*



But, in order to correct a deviation, we need to find the *cause.*



To do that, we must proceed to a *description* of the problem.

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Description

To properly describe a problem, there are four dimensions about which we can get some information. These are the *identity, location, timing* and *extent* of the problem. The following are questions designed to help us identify the problem.

IDENTITY

Is	Is not
What	
• What is the problem unit/object/thing?	• What could the problem unit be but it is not?
• What is wrong with it?	• What else could be wrong with it but is not?
• What is the defect/fault?	• What other defect/fault could there be but is not?

The following questions are designed to help us geographically locate the problem.

LOCATION

Is	Is not
Where	
• Where can the problem be found/ noticed/observed/reported?	• Where else could the problem be but it is not?
• Where is the defect/fault on the unit?	• Where else could the defect/fault be but it is not?

The following questions are designed to help us determine the timing of the problem.

TIMING

Is	Is not
When	
• When was the problem first observed?	• When else could the problem have been observed but it was not?
• When in the life/operation cycle is the defect/fault observed?	• When else could the defect/fault be seen but it was not?
• What is the pattern?	• What could the pattern be but is not?

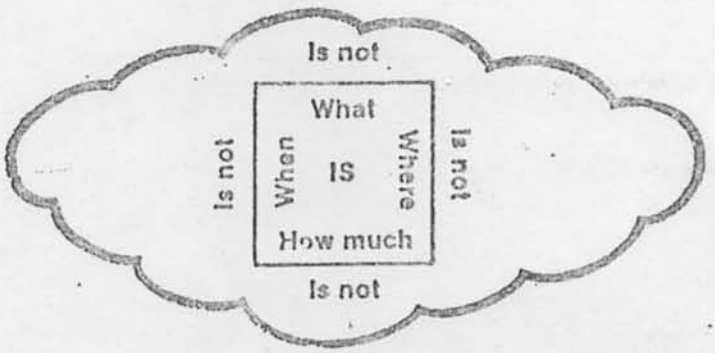
The following questions are disigned to help us determine the magnitude of the problem.

EXTENT

Is	Is not
How Much, Many	
• How many objects/units are defective?	• How many objects/units could be defective but they are not?
• How many defects/faults on the object/unit?	• How many defects/faults could there be but are not?
• How much of the object/unit is defective?	• How much of the object/unit could be defective but it is not?
• What is the trend?	• What could the trend be but is not?

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By describing the problem in terms of what it *is* and what it *is not*, we are able to put sharper boundaries around the problem. These boundaries will help us through the next step.



Analysis

The first step of analysis is to compare the *problem area* to the *non-problem area*. In other words, the *is* to the *is not*. We can compare for *similarities*, or we can compare for *differences*. In looking for new and additional information, experience has shown that comparing for *differences* is more helpful. In particular we should examine our description to look for *differences* in areas where there are *sharp contrasts* in the information.

The following questions are designed to help us to identify *differences*:

- What is different, distinctive or unique between *what* the problem *is* and what it *is not*?
- What is different, distinctive or unique between *where* the problem *is* and where it *is not*?
- What is different, distinctive or unique between *when* the problem *is* seen and when it *is not*?

The next step is to examine the differences in order to identify *changes* that have occurred. The search for the cause must center itself on the *changes* that have occurred. If no change had occurred we would not have a problem. To narrow our search for relevant changes, out search should limit itself to looking for changes within the *differences* we have identified.

The following question is designed to help us do this:

- What has changed about each of these differences?

Noting the date of each change is also helpful as we might be able to relate the start of a problem to a specific change that occurred.

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Hypotheses

From our *analysis* of the deviation we can now formulate some *hypotheses* as to the *possible causes* of the deviation. Hypotheses are a combination of:

Changes Identified + Experience + Expertise

This question is designed to help us develop *possible causes*:

- In studying the differences and/or changes, what hypotheses can be drawn which might be *possible causes* of the problem?

At this stage, we list *all* reasonable hypotheses. The emphasis is to be constructive and to make the best use of our experience and expertise.

Test

In the next step, it is important to *test* our *possible causes* to eliminate those that are not the real causes. We screen each possible cause through our *description*. If a possible cause cannot explain both sides of the description, then it is not likely to be the real cause. Some possible causes might do so if we add certain assumptions ("only if"). In such cases these assumptions should be noted.

The *testing* technique is as follows:

- Test each possible cause through the *test bed* (description), especially the sharp contrast areas.
- Note all assumptions ("only if") you have to construct to support your hypotheses.

The *most probable cause* will be the one that best explains the description or the one with the least number of assumptions. To be 100% certain we must now *verify* our assumptions — quickly and inexpensively. The question is simple:

- How can you quickly and cheaply verify your assumptions?

Should these assumptions prove to be true then we have the real cause of the problem and are ready to take *action*.

Action

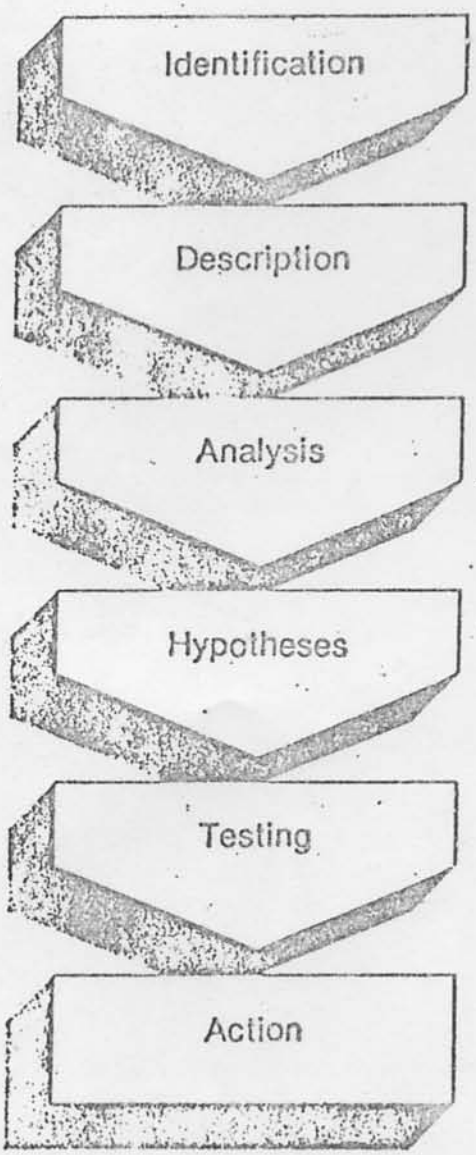
To address a problem, we can take three different types of action.

- Interim Action — To *buy us time* while we search out the cause of the problem. Interim action is aimed at the *effects* of the problem.
- Adaptive Action — We decide to live with the problem or *adapt* ourselves to the problem. It is also aimed at the *effects* of the problem.
- Corrective Action — This is the only action designed to eliminate the problem. It is aimed at the *cause* of the problem.

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Positive Deviations

Sometimes, we are faced with a situation that is going better then expected. This is called a *positive deviation.* Examining a positive deviation is as useful as explaining the causes of a negative deviation. We can learn from it. In terms of the *logic path*, the steps are exactly the same.



We identify the area that is going better than expected.

Describe and compare with area that we want to improve.

By analysing the description...

we can determine several hypotheses...

and test them.

So that we can arrive at action to either reinforce that behaviour or by analysis come up with action to improve another area.

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Summary

The questions of *PROBLEM ANALYSIS* are:

- What is the deviation?
- What/Where/When and How Much *is* the problem?
- What/Where/When and How Much *is not* the problem?
- What is different between the problem area and the non-problem area?
- What changes have occurred in those differences?
- What are the possible causes?
- How do they test against our description of the problem?
- Which is the most probable cause?
- How was it verified?
- What action is recommended?

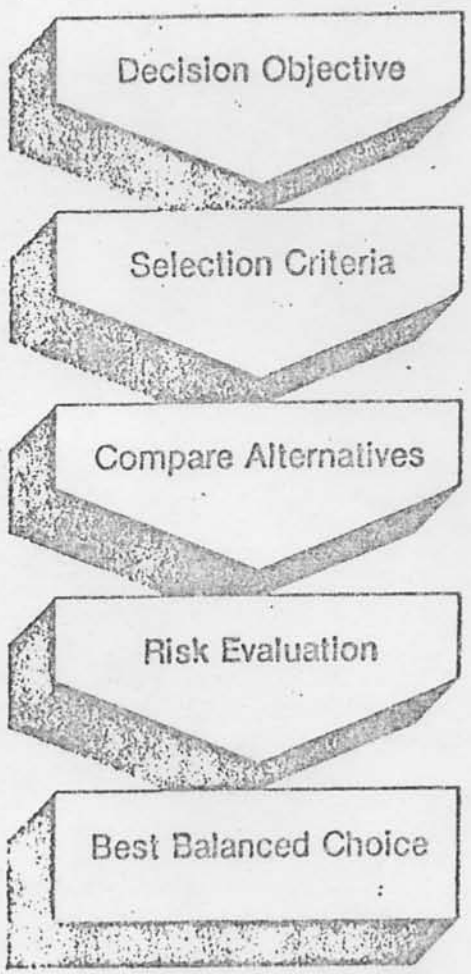
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DECISION ANALYSIS

Let us now situate ourselves mentally in the present.



After we have explored the past to identify the *cause* of the problem, it is then necessary to choose the appropriate course of action to address that problem. This next step in decision-making is known as *DECISION ANALYSIS*. The overall objective in this process is to take several alternatives and choose the best one. The following is the *logic path* of *DECISION ANALYSIS*.



The first step in the process is to establish a *decision objective* or a decision statement.

In order to evaluate alternatives, we need to compare against *something*. We need to formulate certain *selection criteria* against which we will test our alternatives.

The next step is to compare alternatives. We now want to *screen the alternatives* through our selection criteria and eliminate the alternatives that don't give us satisfactory performance. From this step we have reduced the number of alternatives.

It is important now to evaluate the *risks* that are attached to each of these remaining alternatives.

The final step of decision analysis is making the *best balanced choice*. This involves reviewing the degree of risk in each alternative and judging whether or not we are prepared to take that risk. The best balanced choice is the alternative that performs the best against our selection criteria, together with the amount of risk that we are willing to accept.

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Decision Objective

There are three elements of the decision objective or the decision statement that we should keep in mind. The first element is the *purpose*. A decision statement should be formulated in terms that represents the *purpose* of what the analysis is about. It should represent an *end result*.

From time to time we may insert in our decision statement a word which restricts the range of alternatives that will be available to us. These words are called *modifiers*. Without *modifiers* the range of alternatives would be broader. However, by adding a *modifier* we restrict our range of alternatives. It is important to make sure when we formulate decision statements to examine them for *modifiers* to ensure that we do in fact want to include them.

The third element to consider about the decision objective or decision statement is the *level* of the decision. Most decisions stem from prior decisions. The higher the *level* of our decision the greater the range of alternatives available to us. The lower the *level*, the more restricted is the range of alternatives. The *level* at which we start our decision dramatically changes the *class* of alternatives that we end up comparing. It enables us to compare similiar classes of alternatives so that we compare apples to apples and not apples to oranges.

Selection Criteria

The second step in the *logic path* of *DECISION ANALYSIS* is to establish some criteria for selecting the best alternative. To generate effective *selection criteria*, we must ask four questions:

- What results do we want to achieve?
- What results do we want to avoid?
- What resources are available to spend?
- What resources do we want to preserve?

Once we have a list of selection criteria, we examine them to determine those criteria which are absolutely *mandatory* to the success of our decision. We *classify* our criteria into those that *must* absolutely be met and those that we *want* to achieve — that are desirable but not mandatory. The first criteria we list are the *musts* —those that are imperative and must be met by all available alternatives.

Then we take a look at the desirable criteria, or the *wants* and weigh them in order of importance. By looking at our desirable criteria, we identify the one that is the *most important* to us and give it a weight of 10. With that as the *benchmark* we weigh the others on a scale of 10 to 1, according to their relative importance.

Compare Alternatives

The next step in the process of *Decision Analysis* is the step of *comparing the alternatives*. We now filter the alternatives through the selection criteria and eliminate the alternatives that don't measure up. Because we have classified our criteria into *musts* and *wants*, the first filter is to screen the alternatives against the *musts*.

Since we have set specific limits on these *musts*, we need to gather information about each alternative to see how well it meets these. By comparing the information that's available about each alternative against each *musts*, we can then make a *go...no go* decision. "Go" meaning that the alternative meets the limits and *"no go"* meaning that the alternative does not meet the limits that we have determined to be non-negotiable. The purpose of *must* criteria is to quickly screen out those alternatives that violate limits which we consider to be non-negotiable...and to reduce our range of alternatives.

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The next step is then to compare the *remaining* alternatives against the *wants* or the desirable criteria. Again the technique is to get information about the alternative which tells us how well the alternative performs against each of our *wants*. We then use our judgment in assessing that information in order to *score* the performance of each alternative against each *want*. Using numbers to reflect our judgment we give top score to the alternative that performs the best and we give a relative score to the next best performing alternative and so forth. We then proceed to do that against each *want*. By then multiplying the *weight* of the *wants* by the *score* of the alternative we get a *weighted score*. We repeat the procedure for each *want*. Adding the total of these weighted scores gives us an *index of performance*. Thus the step of comparing alternatives involves comparing our alternatives first against our *musts*... then scoring their performance against our *wants* and eliminating those alternatives that give us poor performance. By now, we have narrowed our choice down to 1, 2 or possibly 3 alternatives that perform substantially better than the rest.

Risk Evaluation

The next step in the *Decision Analysis* process is the step called *risk evaluation*. Every alternative or every course of action considered, brings with it certain risks. Therefore in the analysis of the alternatives it is very important to evaluate the risks that are attached to each of these remaining alternatives. The technique is simple. We take each alternative and ask: "What risks do we face if we go with this alternative?" We list those risks. We do this for each of the remaining alternatives.

The risks will be different for each alternative, because different alternatives bring different risks. However, there are different *degrees of risks*. First we look at the *degree of probability* that any of these risks will come about. Using a scale of high, medium or low or a scale of 1 to 10 we examine each risk and assess the probability of it occurring. The next element in determining the degree of risk is to determine the *degree of seriousness* should it occur. If this risk occurs, what will be the impact on our particular decision? Using the same scale, we can then assess the *degree of seriousness* for each risk.

Best Balanced Choice

The last step of *Decision Analysis* is then making the *best balanced choice*. This means reviewing the risk that is represented by the *probability* and *seriousness*. If our comfort level is such that we are not willing to undertake high risk, we would then have to choose an alternative which has attached to it a degree of risk with which we are comfortable. The best balanced choice becomes the alternative that performs the best, or reasonably well against our selection criteria, together with the amount of risk that we are willing to accept.

Summary

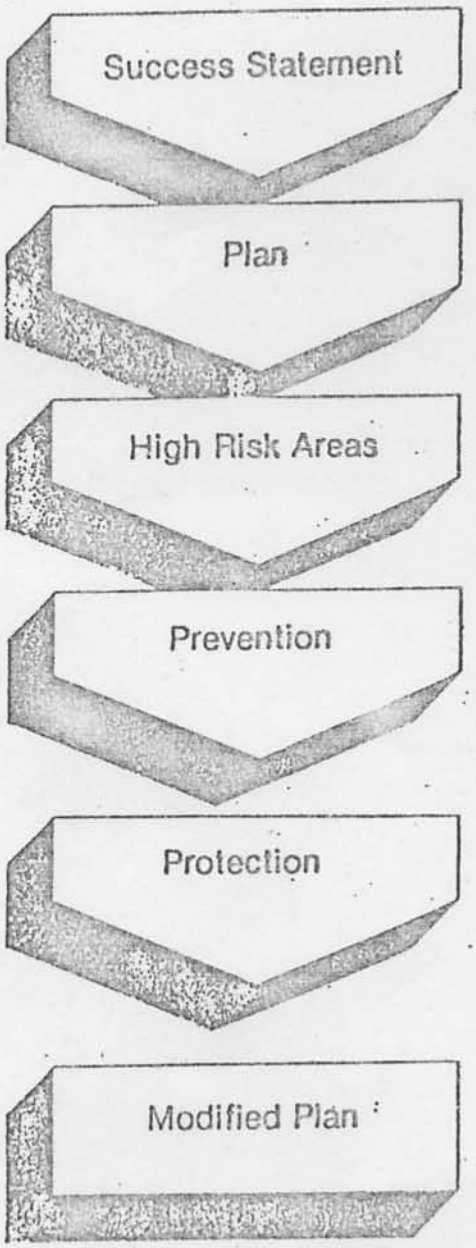
The questions of *DECISION ANALYSIS* are:

- What is the purpose of this decision?
- What are the *musts* and *wants*?
- What are the alternatives?
- How do the alternatives measure up to the *musts* and *wants*?
- What are the risks?
- What is the degree of risk?
- What is the best balanced choice?

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POTENTIAL PROBLEM ANALYSIS

Let us now situate ourselves mentally in the future. Obviously, we want the future to be successful for us and thus the need for *POTENTIAL PROBLEM ANALYSIS*. The *logic path* of Potential Problem Analysis is as follows:



The principle of PPA is to help us successfully implement a chosen course of action. We begin with a *success statement.*

Our next step is to develop a *plan* and list the steps of that plan in their chronological order. At this stage it's important to identify the steps that are of *critical* importance to its success.

We identify the *high risk areas* by examining the critical areas of the plan for potential problems. The amount of risk is then identified by looking at the *probability* and *seriousness* of each potential problem.

Prevention is next. We can take *preventive actions* that are directed at the *high probability causes.* We try to anticipate the likely causes of each potential problem together with the probability of each occurring. Preventive actions reduce the probability of a problem occurring and are taken in anticipation of the problem happening.

If our preventive actions fail and the potential problems materialize, then we need actions to protect us against the seriousness or *effects* of that problem. These are called *contingent* actions because they come into play *after* the problem has started. An important element of a contingent action is that it must contain a trigger to bring it into play.

The last step of Potential Problem Analysis is to take our *original plan* and to modify it by inserting, at the appropriate steps, the best selection of preventive and contingent actions. These should reduce the potential risk to a level that is acceptable. The *modified plan* is the one implemented because it has a higher probability of succeeding than the original one.

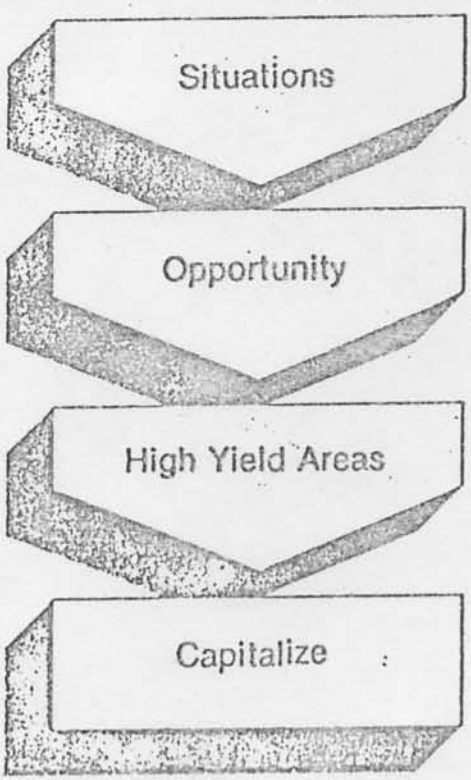
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In *POTENTIAL PROBLEM ANALYSIS*, these are the questions which we ask:

- What will be considered "success" in this situation?
- What are the steps of the plan?
- What are the high risks?
- What could cause these risks to occur?
- What preventive actions can we take?
- What contingent actions do we have?
- How will the plan be modified?

Potential Opportunity Analysis

The future, of course, not only presents us with potential problems, but also with potential opportunities. How can we position ourselves to capitalize on these opportunities? Through the process of *POTENTIAL OPPORTUNITY ANALYSIS*.



The first step of the *logic path* is the *situation* that presents itself.

The next step is to convert that situation into an *opportunity*.

Then we identify the *high yield areas*.

And the last step is to *capitalize* on those opportunities.

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The Chinese word for "crisis" is made up of two characters: one represents danger, and the other opportunity. We must be able to recognize these dangers, threats, obstacles or barriers facing us and turn them around into opportunities. The question to ask is: "How can we benefit from this situation?"

The difficulty in Potential Opportunity Analysis is not usually a lack of opportunities; rather the difficulty lies in choosing *which* opportunity to pursue. In order to do this, let's look at a simple tool: that of the *cost/benefit* ratio or, as it's sometimes called, the *risk/reward* ratio. By assigning a value to the cost versus the benefit of an opportunity, we can direct our attention towards the opportunities that will produce the highest yield for us. We use the scale of high, medium, low or 1 to 10 to assign values. High yield areas are those of low cost and high benefit.

To capitalize on these opportunities, we can now do two things:

First, we need to think of actions to trigger or *ignite* these opportunities. "What can *we* do to *make* it happen?"

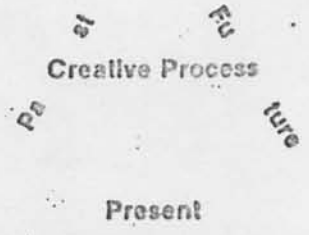
Second, once we have brought the opportunity about, how can we accelerate its benefits? Thus the need to think of *accelerator* actions in order to optimize the rewards.

In exploring *POTENTIAL OPPORTUNITY ANALYSIS*, we ask the following questions:

- What opportunities can we create from this situation?
- What is the *cost/benefit* ration of each?
- How can we ignite these to occur?
- How can we optimize the effects?

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CREATIVE PROCESS !



The CREATIVE PROCESS spans the whole of our *logic map* but usually follows Situation Analysis. We have already encountered two types of thinking processes — *CONVERGENT AND DIVERGENT.* The former is used to concentrate our thinking so that subsequent thoughts are the results of previous analysis. It has been used throughout PA, DA, and PPA. For example, the ANALYSIS step in PA leads directly from the DESCRIPTION step and requires convergent thinking. Divergent thinking is used to broaden the field of possibility and is not necessarily dependant on a previous thought. We have also used this type of thinking in PA, DA and PPA. For example, the HYPOTHESES and ACTION steps in PA.

Many writers on creativity have emphasized divergent thinking at the expense of convergent thinking. However recent studies show that the evidence of creative production throughout the ages points to a definite interplay between divergent and convergent thinking. It is necessary therefore to combine both types of thinking to increase the probability of success in a given situation.

The CREATIVE PROCESS uses both convergent and divergent thinking, but unlike the rational processes, divergent thinking forms the key element. Success using the CREATIVE PROCESS therefore is dependent on effective utilisation of divergent thinking, so let us spend some time looking more closely at divergent thinking, or CREATIVITY.

We can regard creativity as the ability to have and express ideas which are new, different, untried and directed at changing or improving a certain situation. Put simply, it is getting a new idea. Innovation, whilst often used as a synonym for creativity, is better regarded as not only getting a new idea but also making that idea a reality in a specific situation. Innovation is both getting an idea and making that idea work in the real world. This is the aim of the CREATIVE PROCESS.

The source of creativity is the human brain, particularly that aspect referred to as "the mind", but also including those parts of the brain system that are below the cortex and deal with some of our instincts and emotions. New understanding of brain function clearly establishes a differentiated role for the two hemispheres. The left brain is far better at performing logical, analytic and mathematical tasks, particularly those involving linear and sequential processing. The right brain, in distinct contrast, is much better at non-verbal ideation, intuition, holistic and synthesising activities and tasks, particularly those involving spatial, visual and simultaneous processing. In other words, the left brain is good at arithmetic, evaluating,

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planning, scheduling and organizing events, very precisely. The right brain is musical and artistic, sees the "forest" instead of the "trees", helps us drive cars and is very good at hunches and inspirational flashes. The evidence supporting this differentiation also points to a dominance of one hemisphere over the other. This dominance is largely heredity but influenced by environment. Unfortunately, in most societies, emphasis is placed through education on excellence in left brain operations through examination, systems etc. Only in very recent years has there been an attempt to promote right brain operations.

This emphasis on left brain operations is linked to the fact that verbalisation of thoughts (i.e. speech) is controlled by the left brain which means that for the majority of people their actual capacity for getting and verbalising new ideas is held below their real potential. A "good" idea generated in the right brain may often be evaluated by the left brain and rejected before verbalisation. Whilst getting a new idea is a vital element within the CREATIVE PROCESS it is, however essential that the idea becomes a reality, i.e. innovation results. Thus the overall process is a whole brain activity and only in one key step is the right brain used alone.

> Jules Henri Poincaré, the French mathematician recognized as the most brilliant at the turn of the century, was responsible for developing the celestial mechanics that we use today for directing the orbital motion of spacecraft and for docking satellites. When asked "what did he attribute his innovation to?" He replied "1% inspiration and 99% hard work".

That 1% is vital and we shall be examining ways to promote and develop our ability to use right brain thinking to become proficient in all aspects of information handling to become a rational and creative manager.

The CREATIVE PROCESS has five steps. The overall aim in this process is to take action to improve a situation. We could be looking at the past, present or future but the emphasis is normally towards the present and/or future. The situation being "subjected" to the CREATIVE PROCESS is normally expressed in the form: "What action can be taken to improve situation X?"

The most common application is in the present when facing a Decision Analysis when either no alternative is available or when the alternatives available are poor or do not meet the MUST criteria.

For example:

> "What action can I take to improve the market share of our new product?"
> "How can I change existing production procedures and practices to meet the new increased targets for next January?"
> "I am already understaffed in my department with the present workload. How can I take on extra workload without increasing headcount or spending more than my capital budget?"

Let us look at each step of the creative process.

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CREATIVE PATH

Preparation	The first part is gathering and organizing the information associated with the situation being addressed. The second part is the preparation of the environment to make it conducive to the generation of new ideas.
Generation	This is the step in which the ideas will be "created" - right brain step. It involves utilising a group of people.
Consolidation	The generation step will have created a large number of ideas. These ideas have to be harvested, converted or reduced to a smaller number of clear, viable, "super" alternatives.
Verification	In this step, the "super" alternatives are evaluated and verified against the criteria and standards set during the preparation step.
Exploitation	The implementation/action plan is formulated and "subjected" to POA and PPA to maximise the result.

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PROBLEM ANALYSIS WORKSHEET

RESOLUTION: SITUATION 3
PROBLEM No 1

DEVIATION: NORM/STANDARD NO BUBBLES ACTUAL BUBBLES UNDER LABELS

	DESCRIPTION IS	*	DESCRIPTION IS NOT	DIFFERENCES	CHANGES	DATE	POSSIBLE CAUSES
IDENTITY	WHAT -- -- OBJECT: "SOFTEE SMOOTH" LABELS		"SOFTEE SPECIAL" LABELS	• PRODUCTION LINE	• INCREASED THE SPEED	1 WK	• TOO QUICKLY BY THE GLUE SPRAY • NOT ENOUGH TIME IN WASH BASIN
	DEFECT: BUBBLES		HOLES TEARS OFF-CENTER				
LOCATION	WHERE OBJECT: LINE 1 Q.C.		LINE 2 Q.C.				
	DEFECT: VARIOUS PLACES		SPECIFIC AREA ENTIRE AREA				
TIMING	WHEN OBJECT: LAST FEW DAYS		BEFORE	• GLUE • EMPLOYEES.	• NEW GLUE • NEW EMPLOYEES	10 DAYS 3 WKS	• GLUE TOO WEAK • WORK WITHOUT GLOVES
	DEFECT: PERIODIC		CONTINUOUS INTERMITTENT				
EXTENT	HOW MUCH OBJECT: 9%		MORE THAN 9%				
	DEFECT: MANY		FEW				

MOST PROBABLE CAUSE	VERIFICATION	ACTION
• NOT ENOUGH TIME IN WASH BASIN	• CHECK LAST BOTTLES	• CHANGE SOLUTION MORE OFTEN
	BEFORE SOLUTION CHANGE	

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THE IMPORTANCE OF TIME

The Many Meanings of Time

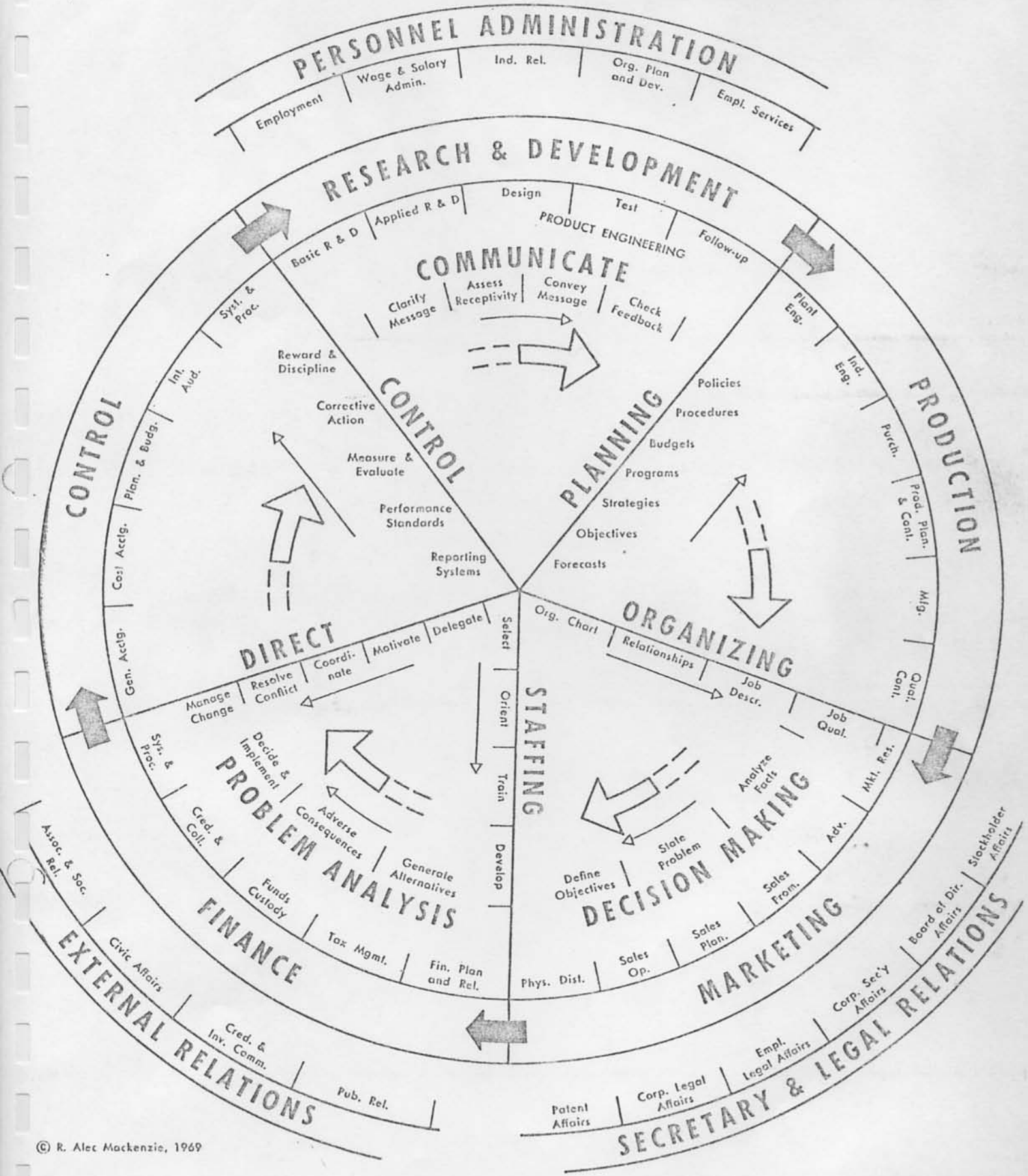
Misconceptions about Time

The Paradox of Time

Myths of Time Management

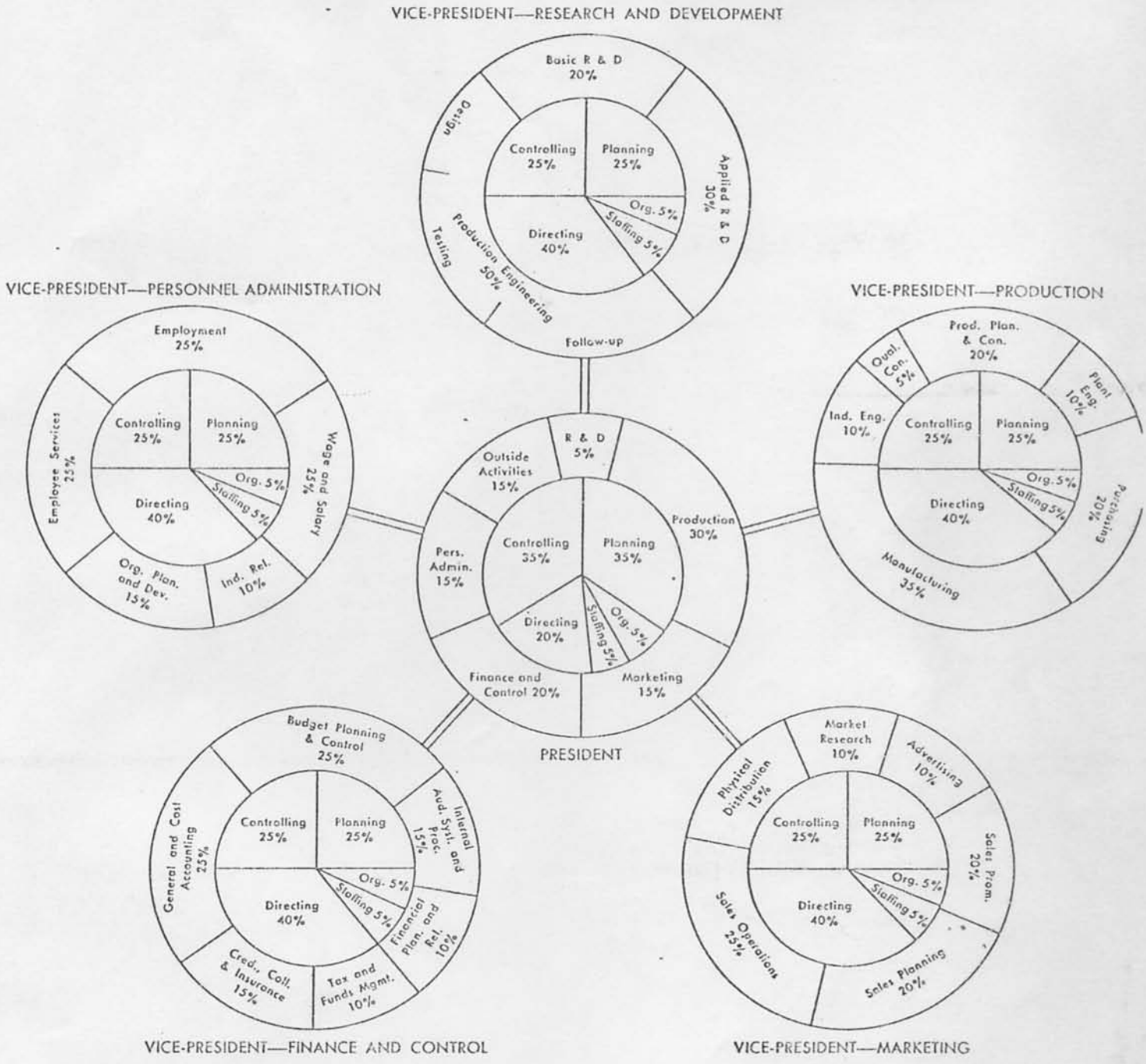
- The Myth of Activity
- The Myth of Decision Level
- The Myth of Delayed Decisions
- The Myth of Delegation
- The Myth of Efficiency
- The Myth of Hard Work
- The Myth of Omnipotence
- The Myth of the Overworked Executive
- The Myth of the "Open Door"
- The Myth of Problem Identification
- The Myth of Timesaving
- The Myth of Time Shortage
- The Myth that Time Flies
- The Myth that Time is Against Us

Time – the Critical Resource



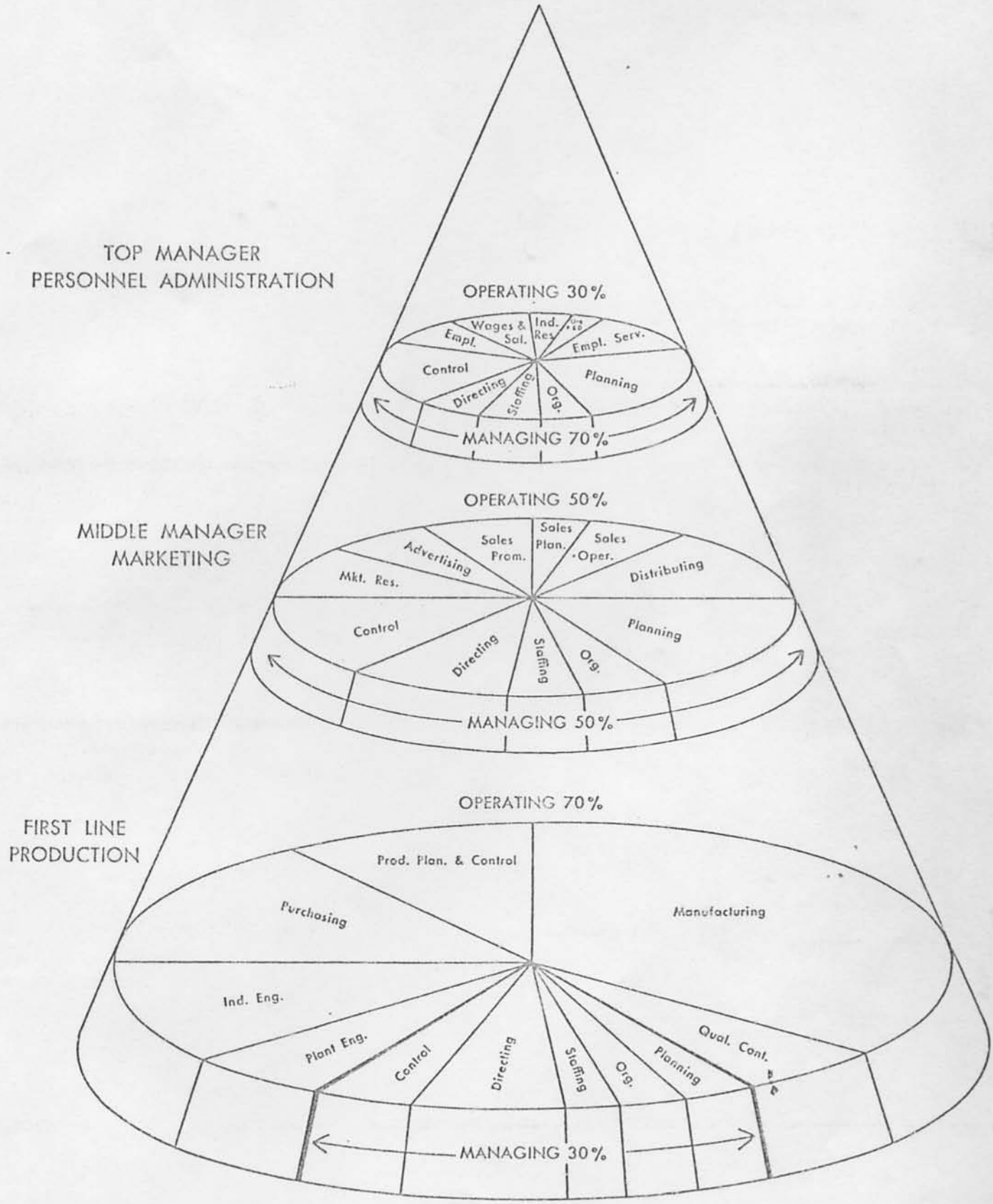
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TIME PROFILE OF A PRESIDENT'S TEAM



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RELATING MANAGERIAL AND OPERATIONAL FUNCTIONS WITH MANAGEMENT LEVEL



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EXHIBIT 7

DAILY TIME LOG

Date: _____

Name: _____

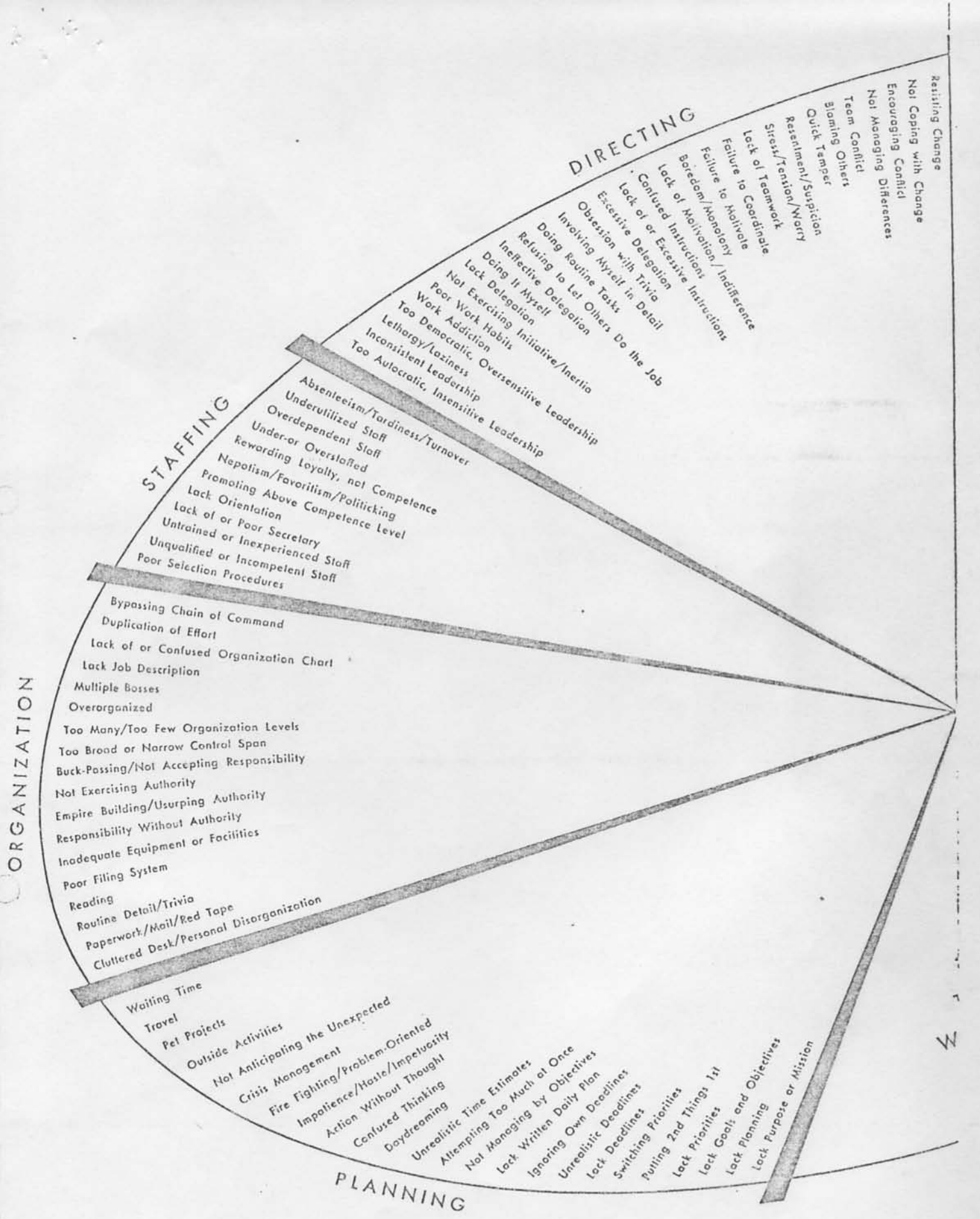
Goals: (1) _____ (2) _____ (3) _____

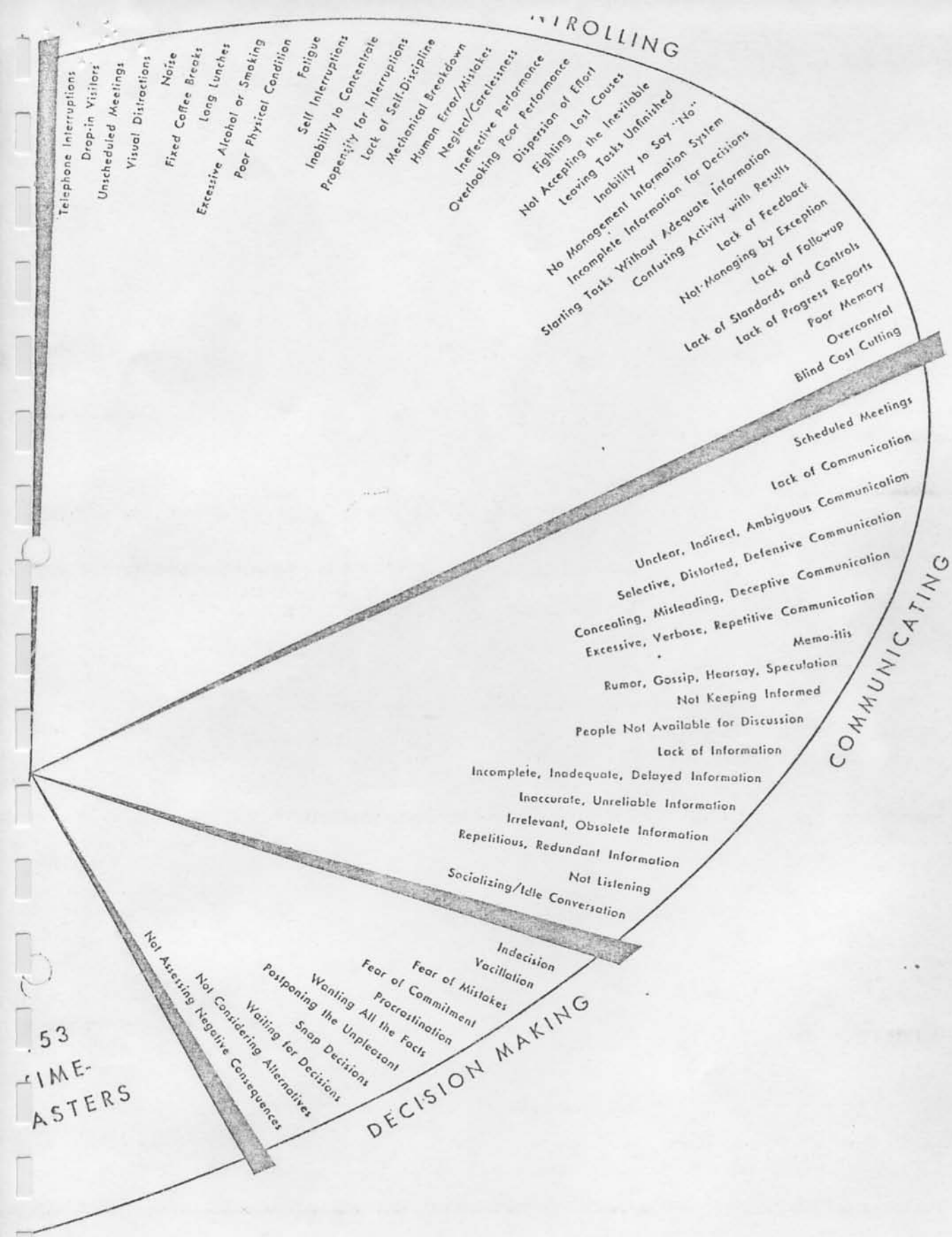
(4) _____ (5) _____ (6) _____

TIME	ACTION	PRIORITY 1=Imp & Urg 2=Imp – NOT Urg 3=Urg – NOT Imp 4=Routine	COMMENT/DISPOSITION/RESULTS Delegate to _____ Train _____ to handle. Next time ask his recommendation. Next time say "No." Consolidate/Eliminate/Cut Time Other
8:00			
8:30			
9:00			
9:30			
10:00			
10:30			
11:00			
11:30			
12:00			
12:30			

TIME	ACTION	PRIORITY 1=Imp & Urg 2=Imp – NOT Urg 3=Urg – NOT Imp 4=Routine	COMMENT/DISPOSITION/RESULTS Delegate to _____ Train _____ to handle. Next time ask his recommendation. Next time say "No." Consolidate/Eliminate/Cut Time Other
1:00			
1:30			
2:00			
2:30			
3:00			
3:30			
4:00			
4:30			
5:00			
5:30			
Evening			

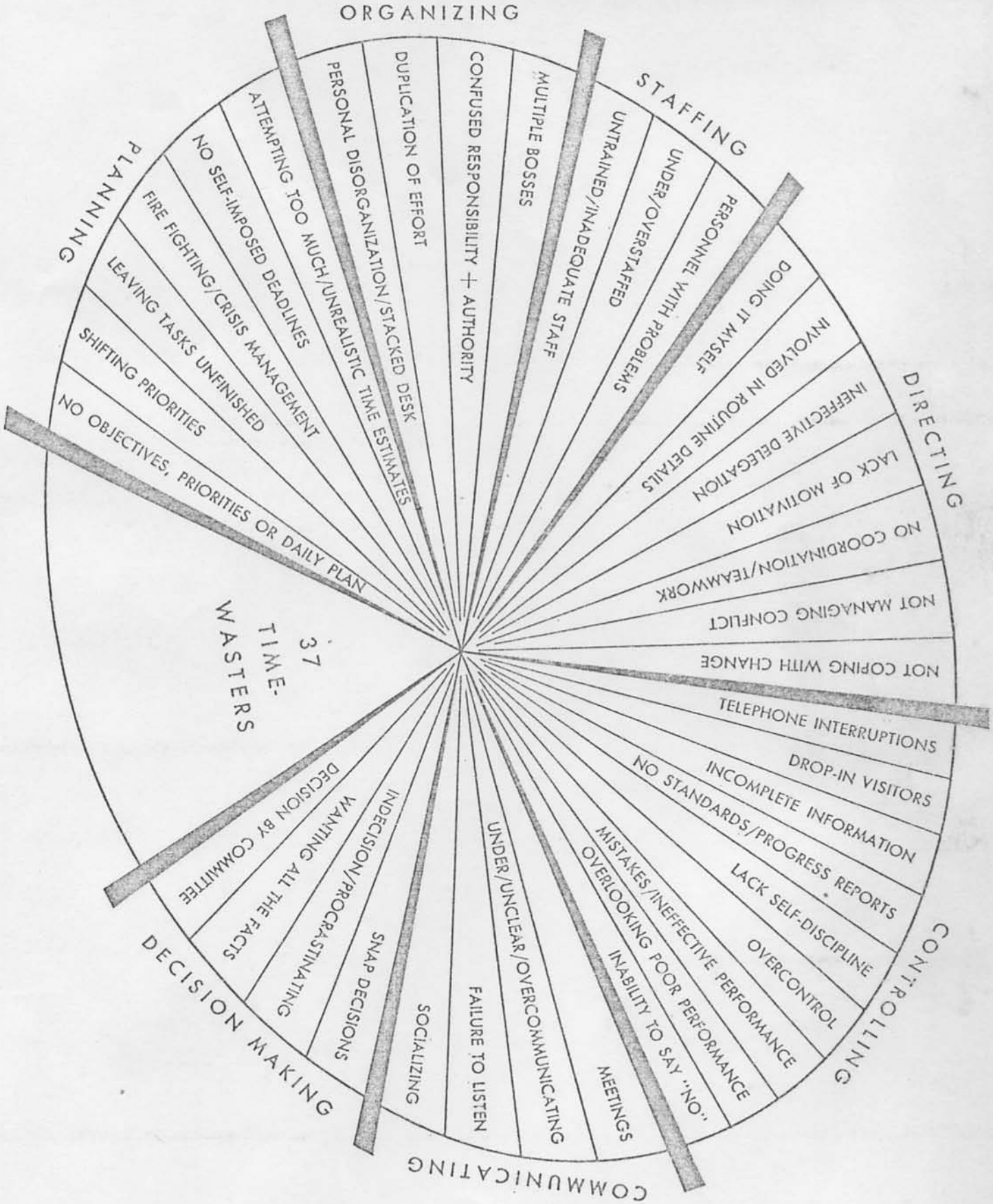
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DIRECTING
Resisting Change
Not Coping with Change
Encouraging Conflict
Not Managing Differences
Team Conflict
Blaming Others
Quick Temper
Resentment/Suspicion
Stress/Tension/Worry
Lack of Teamwork
Failure to Coordinate
Failure to Motivate
Boredom/Monotony
Lack of Motivation/Indifference
Confused Instructions
Lack of or Excessive Instructions
Excessive Delegation
Obsession with Trivia
Involving Myself in Detail
Doing Routine Tasks
Refusing to Let Others Do the Job
Ineffective Delegation
Doing It Myself
Lack Delegation
Not Exercising Initiative/Inertia
Poor Work Habits
Work Addiction
Too Democratic, Oversensitive Leadership
Lethargy/Laziness
Inconsistent Leadership
Too Autocratic, Insensitive Leadership
STAFFING
Absenteeism/Tardiness/Turnover
Underutilized Staff
Overdependent Staff
Under-or Overstaffed
Rewarding Loyalty, not Competence
Nepotism/Favoritism/Politicking
Promoting Above Competence Level
Lack Orientation
Lack of or Poor Secretary
Untrained or Inexperienced Staff
Unqualified or Incompetent Staff
Poor Selection Procedures
ORGANIZATION
Bypassing Chain of Command
Duplication of Effort
Lack of or Confused Organization Chart
Lack Job Description
Multiple Bosses
Overorganized
Too Many/Too Few Organization Levels
Too Broad or Narrow Control Span
Buck-Passing/Not Accepting Responsibility
Not Exercising Authority
Empire Building/Usurping Authority
Responsibility Without Authority
Inadequate Equipment or Facilities
Poor Filing System
Reading
Routine Detail/Trivia
Paperwork/Mail/Red Tape
Cluttered Desk/Personal Disorganization
Waiting Time
Travel
Pet Projects
Outside Activities
Not Anticipating the Unexpected
Crisis Management
Fire Fighting/Problem-Oriented
Impatience/Haste/Impulsivity
Action Without Thought
Confused Thinking
Daydreaming
Unrealistic Time Estimates
Attempting Too Much at Once
Not Managing by Objectives
Lack Written Daily Plan
Ignoring Own Deadlines
Unrealistic Deadlines
Lack Deadlines
Switching Priorities
Putting 2nd Things 1st
Lack Priorities
Lack Goals and Objectives
Lack Planning
Lack Purpose or Mission
PLANNING
W



53
IME-
ASTERS

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From a sampling of managers in 14 countries:

1. Telephone Interruptions
2. Drop-in Visitors
3. Meetings (both scheduled and unscheduled)
4. Crises
5. Lack of Objectives, Priorities and Deadlines

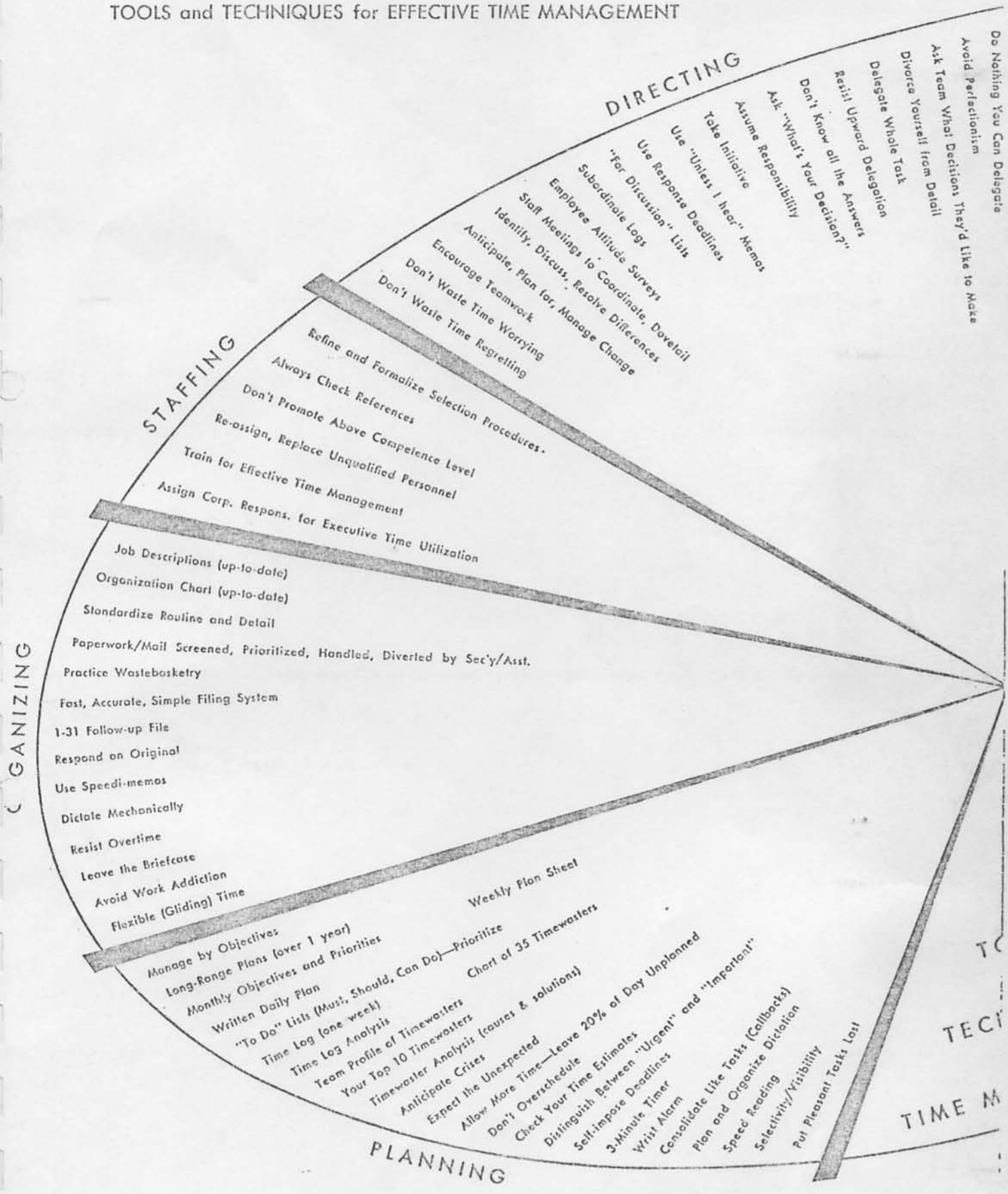
– closely followed by another group of five time-thieves:

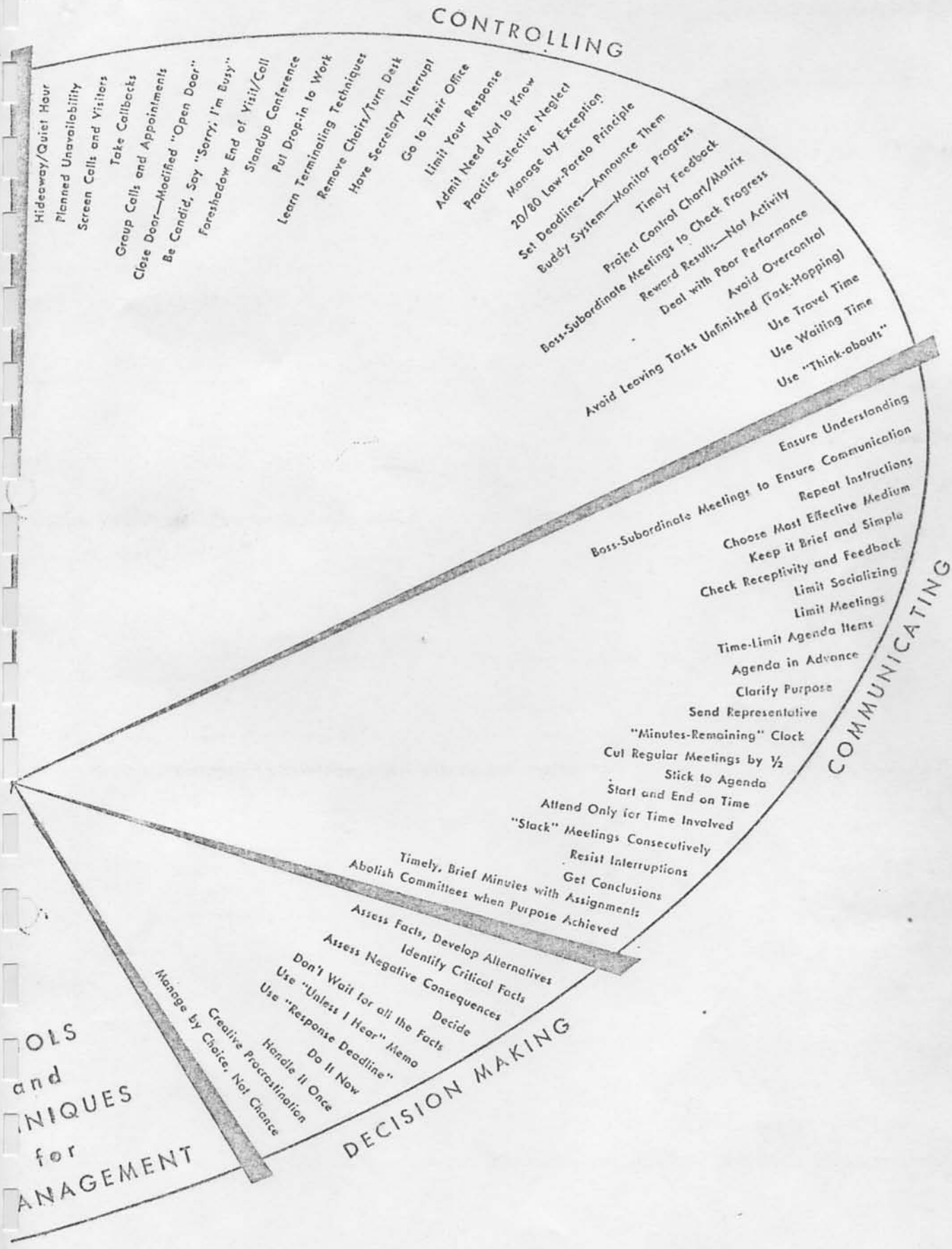
6. Cluttered Desk and Personal Disorganization
7. Ineffective Delegation and Involvement in Routine and Detail
8. Attempting too Much at Once and Unrealistic Time Estimates
9. Lack of or Unclear Communication or Instruction
10. Inadequate, Inaccurate and Delayed Information

– depending upon the group, particular leadership styles and organization characteristics, other timewasters often include:

11. Indecision and Procrastination
12. Confused Responsibility and Authority
13. Inability to Say "No"
14. Leaving Tasks Unfinished
15. Lack of Self-Discipline

TOOLS and TECHNIQUES for EFFECTIVE TIME MANAGEMENT





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TECHNIQUES FOR ANALYZING YOUR TIME LOG

The Sales Manager's Own Analysis

Let us examine the sales manager's own analysis of his time log. His answers to the 10 questions (A through J) follow:

		Answer
A.	Did setting daily goals and deadlines improve your effectiveness?	Yes.
	(1) Why?	Helped me focus on essentials.
	(2) Were goals and deadlines demanding yet realistic?	Yes.
	(3) Which daily goals contributed directly to long-range objectives?	All.
	(4) Which could have been delegated?	None, really.
B.	What time did you start on your No. 1 goal?	4:30
	(1) Could you have started earlier?	Yes
	(2) Did anything distract you from completing it?	Yes, interrupted by TM, but late start real cause.
	(3) Did you recover immediately (return at once to the task)?	No. Too late.

C. To what extent did you achieve each objective?

	Goal	% Completed	Reason for Noncompletion
(1)	Finish management review	20	Late start. Interrupted. Too little time.
(2)	Sales summary to boss	100	Had to get it done (boss).
(3)	Service report to boss	0	Boss ok'd delay.
(4)	Staff meeting	100	Routine.
(5)	Catch up on mail	0	Only able to stay even. Too much to do.
(6)	Resolve Brown matter	0	Other things more important.

D. What was your longest period of totally uninterrupted time excluding meetings and lunch?

	(1) Which period of the day was most productive?	About 30 min.
	(2) Which was least productive?	Early morning and late afternoon.
	(3) Is this likely a normal pattern?	Fewer interruptions.
	(4) If yes, how could you program or pace your activities to take advantage of it?	9:30 to 10:30 and 2:30 to 3:15
		Yes. More or less.
		Question not clear.

(5) How could you make other periods of the day more productive? Don't know.

E. Who/what was your most frequent interruptor? Boss and associates and team. But all necessary.
(1) What are the causes? Emergencies and other necessary communications.

(2) How can these be controlled, minimized, eliminated? They are my job, so why eliminate?

F. In order of importance list all types of interruptions with which you must contend, e.g., telephone, drop-in visitors, unscheduled meetings, unexpected crises, mail, self-interruptions, visual distractions, noise, etc. List two or three solutions for top three or four interruptions:

Interruptions	Steps to Control
(1) Unexpected crises	(1) No real solution. Hazard of the business.
(2) Unscheduled meetings	(2) When boss calls 'em, you go.
(3) Telephone interruptions	(3) Have secretary screen.
(4) Drop-in visitors	(4) We have an "Open door" policy.

G. List the four most time-consuming activities which could have been handled by someone else or not done at all. How will you handle these next time?

Activity	How to Handle Next Time
(1) Distributor meetings (3:30-4:15)	(1) Delegate to assistant.
(2) Staff meeting (10:45-11:45)	(2) Limit items on agenda and set time limit on meeting.
(3) Unscheduled meeting (1:45-2:30)	(3) Give boss written summary. Let him review first and either return with questions or discuss more briefly.
(4) Interruptions throughout day, both drop-ins & phone.	(4) Better screening by secretary: "quiet hour;" close door; visitors by apptmt; regular meeting times weekly with individual staff.

H. Did you tend to record "activities" or "results"? Activities.

I. Did a self-correcting tendency appear as you recorded your actions? Yes.

J. Of the solutions you have suggested on preceding page, which three will you implement immediately?

(1) Save meeting time by delegating attendance, limiting agenda, setting time limits, using memos instead.
(2) Control interruptions by coaching secretary in better screening of visitors and telephone interruptions.
(3) Implement "quiet hour" to concentrate on my own priority goals for the day.