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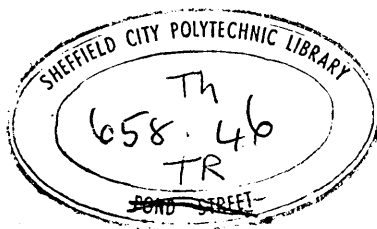SOME CHARACTERISTICS OF ORGANISATION DEVELOPMENT

CONSULTANTS

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This thesis is submitted to the Council for National
Academic Awards in fulfilment of the requirements for
the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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ABSTRACT

A population of organisation development consultants
is identified from the training function of the Chemical
industry and certain demographic features are reported.
These features are compared with other populations identified
at the same time. A sample of organisation development
consultants and training officers are interviewed in depth
regarding some personal and professional beliefs. Organisa-
tion development is analysed as a social movement, and some
major findings on the characteristics of those who join
various kinds of social movement are reported. Two hypotheses
(i and ii) relating the aetiology of the values of organisation
development consultants to those of their parents or sig-
nificant authorities in early childhood are taken from the
literature and tested in relation to organisation development
consultants. A third hypothesis (iii) concerning the
aetiology of values of organisation development consultants
is developed from object relations theory.

The organisation development consultants are compared
with a group of trainee social scientists and trainee general
managers regarding their perceptions on various dimensions of
their parents. As a result, negative findings are recorded
concerning hypotheses i) and ii), the dependency and counter-
dependency hypotheses. Hypothesis iii) is tested by
literature reanalysis, reanalysis of depth interviews with
organisation development consultants and by fieldwork using

the object relations technique both with a group of

organisation development consultants and a group of college

lecturers.   Further comparisons are made with clinical

groups on whom the object relations technique has been used.

The implications of the findings regarding hypothesis iii)

are discussed both in relation to organisation development

practice and the further research needed as a result of this

work.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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Secondly, there is a large and significant group who have provided support, criticism, confrontation and belief in both myself and the project. Foremost is John Gill, my supervisor, but also my colleagues Stuart Smith and Morris Foster, and all those in the Department of Management Studies at Sheffield City Polytechnic who have supported me throughout the work, not only in terms of the content of the research, but also in terms of contributing to my own development. Also allied to this group is Ian McGivering of Bradford University Management Centre who coped with my periodic appearances with considerable aplomb.

Lastly, I must thank my wife without whose help, support and belief the project would not have been possible.

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CHAPTER III: Interviews and Orientations

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(Appendices)

INTRODUCTION

General issues

The work for this thesis has been done, on and off, over the last seven years. The approach taken to the research has been aptly described by Pugh and Hinings (1976).

"After they have done their lectures, tutuorials and marking, seen individual students, participated in their profession's activities and (in some cases) carried out their consultancy (which are all more programmed activities and therefore, according to Simon's law, will come first) they will also do their research, perhaps on Thursday afternoons from 3.30 p.m. to 6.00 p.m. It is implicit in this approach that the research can be continually taken up and put down, with something to show for the period in between, so that this might be called the 'academic knitting' concept of research."

(xii-xiii.)

Such an approach produced a situation in which I became increasingly aware of myself as a major variable in the whole research process. The thesis can be seen not only in terms of investigating certain questions regarding the personal characteristics of organisation development consultants but at another level can be seen as paralleling my own professional beliefs within organisation development. The personal processes by which the link is forged between professional beliefs and personal emotional psychodynamics are somewhat obscure. Subjectively there is a rational relationship between these two via the thought processes, yet the genesis

of these processes themselves is open to debate. Suffice to say at this point that this issue is a major theme running through the thesis not only in terms of my own relationship to organisation development but also, I believe, in terms of the personal characteristics of organisation development consultants. Separating out my own from environmental questions has been both a major problem and a major opportunity in doing the research. It has been a major problem insofar as it has caused blocks to theory or doubts about theory when others may have been more certain. This has led me to self re-examination but has slowed the research. On the other hand it has provided the energy to keep at it, and the personal insights and an attitude of committed scepticism toward the view I was taking.

Doing the work

The actual work which was done can be divided into three major sections, two of which, in Popper's (1968) terms are concerned primarily in retrospect with the psychology of knowledge, and the latter primarily with the logic of knowledge. This is not to say that the first two sections were illogical, but it is to argue that the early work served the dual purposes not only of producing some findings regarding the characteristics of organisation development consultants but also contributing strategically to the hypothesis generation stage of the work.

The first section of the work was undertaken as part of a piece of contract research sponsored by the Chemical and Allied Products Industry Training Board (C.A.P.I.T.B.). This first section included the survey of full-time training personnel in the chemical industry in Great Britain reported in chapters I and II and the follow-up

focussed interviews included in chapter III. This was conducted during the period 1971-73.

The second section of the work is probably best described as a "latency period". It was undertaken during the period 1974-75, and was concerned with building on the findings of section one. This was done in two ways, firstly by analysing the literature in depth and with a limited perspective thereby narrowing the research and producing hypotheses for testing at a later date (chapter IV), and secondly by developing a new perspective on organisation development consultants. This involved two related activities because it was a psychodynamic perspective which was chosen. The two related activities were an in depth study of the literature and some personal growth work aimed at opening my own eyes to the issues involved. These latter activities occurred partly by chance, which led me to the area, and subsequently in a fairly planned manner (chapter V). This led to a further hypothesis.

The third section of the work involved the consideration of a method for the testing of the hypotheses developed and then the usual sequence of developing a design, doing the fieldwork, analysing the results and re-evaluating the hypotheses. This section of the work was performed during the period 1976-77 (chapters VII and VIII).

It is important to note the interrelatedness of these three sections of doing the work. Each one contained elements to be found more strongly in others yet the development of the whole was very dependent on the parts matching together.

Objectives of the research

Like many other pieces of research, and doctoral dissertations, the precise objectives of this thesis changed in their detail over time, although the overall objective of researching the characteristics

of organisation development consultants remained the same throughout the research.

The early part of the research (chapters I and II) were not concerned with hypothesis testing but with discovering some basic facts about organisation development consultants. Although part of the work did use a theoretical frame the aim of this was to enable the total population to be divided in order to produce a classification of trainers in the chemical industry and consequently a working definition of organisation development consultant. Certain facts were then obtained with regard to the classification produced.

The objective of the focussed interviews of organisation development consultants and maintenance trainers (chapter III) was to investigate the characteristics of the former group (by comparison with the latter where appropriate) in a more detailed and personal manner. The research was beginning to narrow onto the personal characteristics of organisation development consultants and their relationship to professional beliefs. In this section questions regarding both personal and professional issues were asked.

Finally the objectives of the research became focussed upon testing three major hypotheses produced regarding the aetiology of the values of organisation development consultants. These three hypotheses were:-

i)   A dependency hypothesis which stated that in general values were a simple assimilation of parental values

ii) A counterdependency hypothesis which stated that in general values were an opposite reaction to parental values

iii) A split ego hypothesis which stated that in general values were cognitive defences to basic psychodynamics involving a complex set of interrelated mechanisms. (See chapter VII for a fuller account of the hypotheses and their characteristics.)

This final set of objectives involved the testing of psychological variables only, which contrasted with the early part of the research.

Methodology

Because of the differing nature of the objectives outlined above, different methods were used throughout the thesis. Early research was predominantly descriptive and survey methods were used (chapters I and II). The focussed interviews produced extensive data which is reported verbatim in chapter III. At this point, certain findings were produced from the data, and these are presented in chapter III, but at this time the research was essentially atheoretical and it was not until later (chapter VI) that this data was reanalysed with a theoretical frame in mind. It is here that Popper's (1968) idea regarding the psychology of knowledge can be seen to be important. The analysis of literature in chapters IV and V can be seen to stem from the findings from the focussed interviews and some personal causes discussed at the beginning of chapter V.

Finally the three major hypotheses were tested using interview schedules over the telephone (hypotheses i) and ii), p.197/8) and a projective test designed with sympathies to the theoretical perspective adopted (hypothesis iii), p.197/8.

The first two hypotheses (i and ii) were tested at a general level in that they had been referenced in the literature as "probably inadequate" but were included as no systematic test had been performed in the context of organisation development consultants and they captured much of the discussion in the literature. Further, although a negative finding was expected, some support for these hypotheses would have necessitated further research or a recommendation for further research.

Hypothesis iii) was tested by looking for convergence on a number of the measures, literature and focussed interview reanalysis, and a projective test to investigate the psychodynamics of the organisation development consultants.

Organisation of the thesis

The early research concerned with the survey work for the C.A.P.I.T.B. and the initial focussed interview data is contained in chapters I, II and III. Chapters IV and V contain the main literature search of the thesis and chapter V contains a section on the personal issues which contributed so significantly to the work done. Chapter VII then sets out the methodological considerations necessary to test the three major hypotheses developed from the early fieldwork, literature search and personal development, and the findings are reported in chapter VIII. The conclusions, implications for organisation development, further research, and research in general are included in chapter IX.

Introduction, Survey Work and Exploratory Research

Preamble: Organisations in change and organisation development

The contingency theorists (notably Burns and Stalker, 1961; Rice, 1963; Perrow, 1970) have suggested that organisations can be conceptualised as open systems, influenced by and influencing the environments in which they exist. The extent to which the internal functioning is adapted to cope with external demands will decide the extent to which the organisation is able to survive and grow, the internal states of adaptation needing to match the variety inherent in the environment to produce adaptive, coping behaviours. Organisation is envisaged as existing in complex environments, which can be classified in overall terms to produce conceptualisations which might guide strategic responses. For example, Rice (1963) produced a fourfold taxonomy of causal texture of environment, placid randomized, placid clustered, disturbed reactive and turbulent fields, which Burns and Stalker (1961) produced a dual classification of mechanistic and organismic environments. Later, Perrow (1970) used the integrating concept of uncertainty as a means of classifying environments.

None of these theorists is involved in taking normative stances (at least not in their writings). They are concerned with producing a set of descriptive categories which leads to a heavy diagnostic bias before action is attempted. Other evidence regarding the environment suggests, however, that during the late 1950's, increasingly in the 1960's and continuing into the 1970's, environments are becoming increasingly "turbulent" which requires "organic" responses, particularly in terms of structure and culture,

in order to ensure survival. Toffler (1970) has produced a plethora of statistics and argument illustrating not only the complexity of environmental changes but also the fact that the rate of change (and he acknowledges difficulties of definition and hence argues loosely) is itself accelerating. Although most changes occur in the technical systems of the environment, many have important implications for the functioning of the social system. This avenue has been explored further by others such as McLuhan (1967, 1968) who has investigated the impact of changes in communications media on the user. Even the planners are considering arguments which may be termed anti-planning as outlined by Faludi (1973) who suggests approaches which can be summarised as rational-comprehensive approaches vis-a-vis disjointed-incremental approaches. The latter, as Faludi states, constitutes an almost complete anathema to the planners as it involves essentially localised decisions which may or may not result in overall integration but has the advantage of coping well with high levels of uncertainty and change within the environment.

These environmental changes have produced problems for the management of organisations and in particular problems for the management of the social system as it is often that the human resource, as the most flexible resource, is asked to change and adapt in order to optimise the working of the total system. Organisation Development, then, can be defined as a series of responses made by an organisation to cope in a more effective manner with changes in its external environment which impinge upon its internal working. "Effective" in this context may be defined as those actions which contribute to the utilisation of human resources resulting in the growth of the organisation and positive adaptation to the environment in the achievement of its objectives.

Following from the organisational objective of changing the speed of adaptation there is also a secondary objective concerned with the method by which this can be achieved and that is the changing of the internal behaviour patterns of employees. Two classic definitions of organisation development reflect the two major thrusts of the subject, the emphasis on change and the emphasis on the social system. Bennis (1970) suggests that

"organisation development is a response to change, a complex educational strategy intended to change beliefs, attitudes, values and structure of organisation so that they can better adapt to new technology, markets and challenges and the dizzying rate of change itself". (p.2.)

Beckhard (1969) suggests that

"organisation development is an effort:

i) planned

ii) organisation wide

iii) managed from the top to

iv) increase organisation effectiveness and health through

v) planned interventions in the organisation's processer using behavioural science knowledge". (p.9.)

These, by now, classic views of organisation development captured the main emphasis and methodology of the subject in 1970. In many ways organisation, not only work organisation but also many of the political and governmental institutions, were being called into question, and alternative forms of social organisation were being produced. (Pagés, undated.) The time was ripe for change of all kinds, change being defined as the questioning and re-structuring of existing systems, procedures and norms as opposed

to maintenance activities which could be described as the acceptance
and perpetuation of existing systems, procedures and norms.   Hence,
although small changes in work practice may result from maintenance
activities, these are administrative changes rather than changes
in basic norms and values.   Given this background it was not
surprising that organisation development as an activity began to
impact on work organisations in Britain during the late 1960's and
early 1970's.

Introduction

This section of the research was undertaken in the chemical
industry in Great Britain as part of an ongoing research project
sponsored by the Chemical and Allied Products Industry Training
Board (C.A.P.I.T.B.) entitled "The Role of the Training Manager
and Organisation Development".   The C.A.P.I.T.B. were interested
in discovering the nature and extent of organisation development
practice in Britain in order to fashion policy and so proved to be a
particularly receptive sponsor.   In general terms this part of
the research could be seen as attempting to fulfill the joint
objectives of action research by producing findings which
would both add to knowledge yet possess utility for clients.
(See Gill, H. S., 1975, p.10.)

This chapter begins by recounting the overall perspective
taken regarding the categorisation used to organise the data
collected from the training departments in the chemical industry.
It goes on to discuss the development and design of the instrument
used including its limitations.   Finally, the chapter concludes
with an analysis of the response data from this section of the
research.

The Training Function

A very early initial impact was made in the field of organisation development through the training function. A number of writers have suggested an enlarged role for the training specialist to include skills which would enable him to play an increasingly prominent role in helping initiate and manage the organisational changes necessary to ensure organisation survival and growth. Lippitt and This (1967) have enumerated a number of skills which they believe to be necessary for trainers in the field. Sworder (1970) also listed six areas of knowledge and skills in similar fashion, whilst Harrison (1972) identifies three areas of training need.

Other writers have concentrated more on the all round skills required by the training specialist, suggesting an addition to his existing roles rather than a substitution of the change roles for the more maintenance oriented roles. Nadler (1969) suggests three major roles for the training specialist; learning specialist, administrator and problem-solver. As a learning specialist firstly the trainer is expected

> "to manage the learning transaction, (to) coach, (to) teach and (to) exhibit many other kinds of behaviour associated with the teacher/learner interaction process". (p.34.)

Secondly, he may perform the role of curriculum builder and manager of the learning methods to be employed. His third sub-role is that of materials developer. The second major role, that of administrator, has four sub-roles. Firstly he is a developer of personnel, and secondly a manager of relations within and outside of his organisation. Thirdly, he may supervise ongoing programmes and finally he must arrange and administer facilites and finances. His third basic role is that of organisational problem-solver, and

here Nadler outlines five separate sub-roles arranged on a more directive - less directive continuum. They are advocate, expert, alternative identifier, catalyst and process specialist. In fact Nadler (1969) developed such a set of roles from earlier work done by Lippitt and This (undated).

A similar set of roles has been developed by Boydell (1970). He again suggests a threefold taxonomy of basic roles, practitioner which corresponds to Nadler's learning specialist, leader which corresponds to Nadler's administrator and agent of organisational change which corresponds to Nadler's problem-solver. Nadler's taxonomy of training roles seems to provide a good overview into which the ideas of others may be fitted. In his twelve sub-roles, seven have been accepted as the traditional territory of the training function, that is the sub-roles associated with the basic roles of learning specialist and administrator. These sub-roles revolve around a systematic and reactive view of training. They are concerned to respond to a defined environmental need with a view to maintaining the dominant norms and values of the organisation culture. Essentially these bring about administrative changes designed to maintain the existing systems and procedures of the organisation.

Other writers can be seen to be emphasising the problem solver role outlined by Nadler. This aspect of the role appears to demand much more of the training specialist in terms of his taking proactive steps to develop the organisation toward a particular end. Here the specialist is required to be involved in questioning the basic norms and values and ways of working which are inherent in existing systems and procedures with a view to changing them or helping others to change them into new and more effective ways of working. This is the change role of the training function with the specialist involved in more of a consulting than course running activity.

Concentrating on the two interventionist roles of the training specialist and ignoring the second basic role, that of administrator of the training function, there is not a great deal of difference between these and Foreman's (1956) suggestions for the organisation of the personnel function. He identifies two major activities, firstly the analytic (diagnostic and perhaps prescriptive function) and secondly the routine administration, following established policies and solving day-to-day problems. These are similar to ideas expressed by Anthony and Crighton (1969). With regard to the ideas expressed earlier, the training function would not only be concerned with the routine running of training courses providing new knowledge and skills to enable individuals to maintain existing methods and techniques, but also with the analytical and diagnostic skills of defining organisational problems and helping change the structure or processes, and hence norms and values, to those more appropriate for effective working.

Thus this variety of training roles, particularly the development of the additional change roles, can be seen as responses from the training function to cope with changes in the environment of the organisation requiring an internal response. In 1970 the extent and quality of activities such as those suggested in the problem-solving role were relatively unknown, and little was known concerning the characteristics of the role occupants or the organisations in which they worked.

It seemed that the most rational first step was to investigate further in the field the training roles discussed so far.

Objectives

The main objectives in this piece of work are:

a) To test out the distinctions between the change aspects of the training role concerned with questioning existing norms and

developing new and more effective methods of working, and

maintenance aspects concerned with making existing systems

and procedures work more efficiently, by responding to

environmental pressures on the training sub-system thereby

maintaining the larger system.   This would involve applying

the analytical distinctions of change and maintenance to the

training function, and observe some characteristics of the

populations in each group.

b)   To discover the extent of the change activities in the

training function of one major industry, namely the chemical

industry, hence defining a population for further research.

The group identified as working in the change area would be

defined as organisation development consultants.

Given the data which would be uncovered, further objectives

would be defined after analysis of these findings.

The choice of the chemical industry

The chemical industry was a highly appropriate industry in

which to undertake this early work for a number of reasons:-

a)   The high technological investment and fixed markets led to a

situation where firms were able to compete only in the way in

which they used human resources.   (Flanders, 1964)

b)   Extensive sophisticated technology and innovation were requiring

a questioning of existing work practices and methods of

management.

c)   Environmental pressures particularly concerning normative

changes in education meant that the organisation must adapt

internally.

d)   As a result of a), b) and c) a number of large chemical

companies had already started sponsoring their own organisation

development programmes usually using North American consulting resources. They were the early leaders in the field in this country and at this time much of the organisation development work in Britain was concentrated in the chemical industry.

Questionnaire Development*

The early stage of development of the research and lack of theory in the area of organisational change made it inappropriate to construct hypotheses relating the relationship between change or maintenance activities and other variables. I therefore decided to adopt an atheoretical approach and include both personal and organisational variables in the questionnaire. This would provide interesting research data and useful data for the research sponsor. All of these variables could be related to the change and maintenance groups. Although one main aim of the survey was to identify populations I felt that demographic data may show some interesting findings and the variables included were designed to build profiles of the groups involved. Obviously at this stage I had no hypotheses regarding the different groups of respondents and the included variables which were:-

(a) age

(b) numbers employed in the training department (departmental size)

(c) experience in the training function (length of time spent)

(d) numbers for whom the department is responsible for training

(e) size of firm

(f) representation of the training or personnel function at Board level

(g) level in hierarchy (organisational role).

* A copy of the complete questionnaire can be found in appendix 10. All question numbers referred to in this section correspond to those in the final questionnaire draft.

I decided to collect data from all the full-time training staff in the industry.   Not only would this produce representative data, and identify a population for further research, but it would meet, yet again, the requirements of the research sponsor.   In terms of methods this necessitated the use of a questionnaire.   The problem then became one of operationalising the ways in which the aspects of the training role differed.   Here I was searching for criteria which would be common to both change and maintenance activities but good predictors of those in each group.   After consulting the literature and holding discussions with other workers in related fields I decided on two criteria which would be useful operational measures of a change and maintenance role.   These were, the level of perceived knowledge of particular techniques known to be used in change activities, and the self-perception of actual change role performance.   These were chosen for several reasons:-

  (i) They had the advantage of being easily quantifiable .

 (ii) Whilst being an unsophisticated measure, it was felt

that "extreme" change agent personnel and "extreme"

maintenance personnel would be identified, thus

discovering populations on which to perform more

sophisticated research at a later date.   Because of

the nature of the field, its youth and originality, it

was felt that those involved would have made definite

choices to do organisation development work.   Hence

it was felt that self perceptions would be particularly

acceptable in identifying a population.

(iii) This data would point out immediate training needs in

terms of those not having either knowledge or role or

both which would be of use to C.A.P.I.T.B. hence

meeting the "utility" criterion.

Design and coding of questions

The questionnaire was split into two parts, that part concerned with the collection of demographic data, and that part concerned with the collection of experimental data which could be classified against the demographic data in order to produce profiles of the groups involved.

The Construction of Part I.

Personal information

Part I commenced with a listing of personal details (name, age, sex) and company details (address and telephone). The former (name) and latter (company address and telephone) were to be used to contact respondents for follow up interviews and future research. The personal data (age and sex) were intended to give data against which maintenance and change scores could be classified. In the event, the female full-time training population numbered only twenty-seven (4.5%) of the total population, of whom only twelve (2%) responded to the questionnaire. It was felt that conclusions drawn from such a small number of responses would not be sufficiently significant to be worthy of analysis. Although it was too late by this time to change the questionnaire format this data was ignored. Classifications of age were used in five-yearly intervals - ranging from under twenty to over sixty.

Role Information

Questions 1, 9, 10 and 11 were concerned with establishing the level of the respondent in the organisational hierarchy. I felt that I could use several indicators of this. Because there was no proven measure, I decided to look for congruency on several criteria rather than one definitive indicator. Thus initially included were

job title of respondent, job titles of his two immediate superiors and subordinates, an open question asking for a small organisation chart to be drawn, and a forced choice question concerned with decision making. This latter indicator was excluded after the second pilot sample for two reasons, firstly research evidence showed that decision making was not a proven measure of level in the hierarchy (Jaap and Watson, 1970), and secondly the pilot sample showed that the question was misperceived three times and its answers were incongruent with other indicators eight times out of a total of twenty-two in the sample. Congruency on the other question responses made it easy to classify responses according to the broad criteria decided by the researcher.

Further, it was felt that question 1 did not provide a great deal of information but it had a dual purpose, as, along with personal details and question 2, it meant that simple questions were included at the start of the questionnaire which it was hoped would reduce respondent anxieties and obtain meaningful data at a later stage. Question 11 was the one most used in discovering individual situation in the hierarchy, and, although the respondent was asked to asterisk his position, questions 9 and 10 were found to be useful in finding the respondent in his diagram should this be left in an ambiguous state. Three classifications were used to analyse this data, training manager, training officer and internal organisation development consultant (see appendix 1). The classification of the latter was only used when this was stated in question 1 and shown to exist in question 11. Classifications of training manager and training officer were judged by the researcher according to the accepted definitions.

Question 2 concerning specialism of the respondent was based on the Central Training Council recommended classifications and was

included to discover data concerning the specialisms of those involved and not involved in organisation development activities. Similarly question 3 was included and left open-ended to observe any strong tendencies for particularly qualified individuals to be performing particular activities. Because of the open-ended nature of question 3 a classification system was devised. This involved analysing qualifications by level and type (doctorate, masters, graduate, professional, other) and by discipline (chemistry, engineering, etc.). In all there were some five classifications of level and type (the classification "other" was mainly concerned with H.N.C., H.N.D., "A" level G.C.E. or City and Guilds' qualifications) whilst twelve classifications were made according to functional discipline. This gave a 5 x 12 matrix in which individual qualifications could be coded, stored and analysed. Individual records were given spaces for three types of qualification, with only the highest academic qualification being recorded providing the discipline was constant.

Question 4 was concerned with respondent experience of working in training departments. No distinction was made concerning where this experience had been obtained, or at what level in the organisation the individual had obtained it. This was finally classified into five groupings.

Organisational Information

Having obtained some information about the individual himself and his role within the organisation, I decided to obtain some data on the organisation concerned. Questions 5 through 8 sought to obtain this data. The major problems in this section occurred in questions 7 and 8 in the definition of "training department". I decided to limit the meaning of this term for those working in large

divisionalised organisations to their immediate environment. This was stated on the questionnaire. The classification of responses was immediately apparent from the questionnaire itself.

One further piece of organisational data which was available directly from C.A.P.I.T.B. and which, therefore, did not have to be included on the questionnaire was data regarding the size of the organisation. This was classified afterwards using the eight classifications used by C.A.P.I.T.B. (see p.34 for definition and analysis of size of firm.)

The Piloting of Part I.

Six drafts of the questionnaire were piloted before the instrument was distributed throughout the industry. The first two drafts were desk-checked by expert judges and used as discussion papers. The next draft was piloted on a group of twenty-two training officers attending a training officer course and it was here that one indicator concerning level in the hierarchy was removed (decision making). The resulting draft was piloted on a further group of training officers and found to be acceptable. The nature of these pilot samples was to administer the questionnaire and then to discuss apparent incongruities with the respondents themselves immediately afterwards. - Further drafts and pilots were concerned only with Part II.

The Construction of Part II.

As outlined in Section I, the major problem in the construction of the second part of the questionnaire was that of validity. Two aspects of this problem were considered, content validity and concurrent validity, the first being concerned with the relevance of included items, and the second with the ability of various questions to predict the orientation of the respondent. This

second problem had posed the difficulty of identifying criteria, but after reviewing the literature and discussing the problem with others in related fields, two criteria were chosen:--

(i) The level of self-perceived knowledge of organisation development techniques

(ii) The self-perceived role activities of the respondents.

In order to be classified organisation development consultant, the respondent would have to fulfill both criteria and be situated in the role organisationally (Part I).

The Level of Perceived Knowledge of Organisation
Development Techniques

Because organisation development is of recent origin, it was thought that the techniques used in the area would be sufficiently separate and identifiable from more traditional training techniques to be used in a questionnaire and thus provide data on one aspect of change agentry. In order to ensure content validity, I then gathered a list of organisation development techniques from three major sources:-

(i) Discussions with other academics*

(ii) The available literature. I was especially influenced by two unpublished works by Lippitt and This (undated) and by Hornstein et al (1970).

(iii) My own list of organisation development techniques.

* I am indebted to the Universities of Bradford and Leeds Management Centre and Department of Industrial Management respectively who discussed this and other aspects of the project.

The final list of organisation development techniques, each one of which at least two of the above sources agreed upon, went forward for piloting and can be found in appendix 2.

After much discussion, the format of the question was decided such that the techniques would be listed with three response boxes provided for each technique. These boxes would all follow the same pattern, giving the respondent an opportunity to say whether he had heard of the technique, thought that he had a working knowledge of it, or whether he actually used it or taught others to use it. Such questions were thought to be representative of discrete areas concerned with depth of knowledge, and would give useful data on perceived knowledge states and involvement in organisation development. If respondents had not heard of a particular technique, they were asked to leave a particular set of boxes blank.

The Piloting of Question 12

Question 12 was piloted on three separate occasions with four separate populations:-

(i) The first pilot sample was a group of fifteen training officers on a training officers' course. The concern was to discover those organisation development techniques which were good predictors of the level of knowledge of respondents. Consequently, a total list of organisation development techniques was included in the pilot. The total number of techniques piloted was twenty-one, sixteen of which were organisation development techniques, and five of which were more traditional training techniques which were added to reduce the anxieties of respondents unable to answer with regard to the organisation development techniques. I felt that

this would reduce what I felt would be random responses. A very limited number of positive responses to these particular techniques was expected from such a population who were relatively low status and believed to be performing a maintenance role. Thus, I expected that there would be many techniques of which the sample would not have heard at all or of which they would only have heard. Few respondents were expected to believe that they had a working knowledge, or used or taught others to use, the techniques listed.

Results were surprising as a large proportion of the respondents scored themselves as having a working knowledge of, and using and teaching others to use, many of the organisation development techniques. It seemed that the inclusion of only five techniques which could be classified as more traditional had proved to be a relative failure. Over two-thirds of the respondents had replied in a seemingly untruthful manner, because, when questioned afterwards, their stated level of knowledge of each method did not correspond with their scored response. This check was carried out immediately upon completing the questionnaire, and only the most gross discrepancy between stated and scored response was noted. Even with such broad criteria, it quickly became apparent that the question was evoking a highly emotive reaction which was interfering with the types of response given. It was decided to re-test on a separate population after adjusting the question to include thirteen change techniques and seven traditional techniques.

(ii) The second population was also low status personnel/training officers, and again, my expectations with regard to responses were similar to those outlined above. The group was comprised of twenty-two respondents, but similar problems were encountered

with some six respondents giving seemingly untruthful answers.
Again this was thought to be too high a percentage and consequently
it was decided to change the ratio of organisation development
to other techniques yet again, as, although the problems had been
similar, the number giving unexpected responses had dropped (from
68.7% to 27.3%).

In this pilot survey, I was concerned to examine the ambiguity
and predictive ability of the particular techniques included.
Such an analysis would also serve to decide which techniques
would be included in the next pilot survey. Predictive ability
at this stage was simply analysed by discounting techniques of
which everyone and no-one had heard and by checking that respondents
did possess their perceived level of knowledge, whereas ambiguity
involved specifically asking for comments concerning techniques
which were perceived to be ambiguous and then checking, with
regard to the stated responses, whether any unforseen ambiguity
had occurred. The results of these checks can be found in
appendix 3.

iii) The final pilot survey was carried out on two populations,
one of which was a set of known internal organisation development
consultants found by a reputational survey* conducted alongside
the original literature search, the other consisting of a group
of training officers on a training officer course. The numbers
of respondents in each group was six and seven respectively. The

* This survey took the form of approaching two known
organisation development consultants and asking them to name
others who were subsequently approached and asked to name yet
others. A small number of names was quickly compiled from
which the organisation development consultant group was selected
randomly.

objective of the pilot was to check the concurrent validity of the techniques posed by providing some scoring criteria for differentiating between the two groups. Each respondent was interviewed following the administration of the questionnaire (although in the case of the internal organisation development consultants it was not always possible to interview immediately upon completion). Following the two previous pilot surveys five change and nine maintenance techniques were chosen. The expectations were that, if the responses were scored by giving one point for each ticked box, this would give a maximum change score of fifteen (5 techniques x 3 levels of knowledge), and maintenance score of twenty-seven (9 techniques x 3 levels of knowledge), then the group of known internal organisation development consultants would score ten points or more, and the group of traditional training officers would score less than ten points. The ten point criterion was chosen on the basis of the organisation development consultant using one technique (three points), having a working knowledge of three others (3 x 2 = 6 points) and having heard of the other (one point). This gave ten points in all.

In fact, the training officers scored a maximum of five points (two respondents) on the change score whilst the rest were lower (three points - two respondents, two points - two respondents, no points - one respondent). On the other hand, the organisation development consultants scored much higher on the change techniques. Three respondents scored eleven points, and one each with twelve, thirteen and fourteen points respectively. The results were not tested for significance because the sample was too small and by inspection the results so completely different, but it was decided

to increase the criterion of organisation development consultant knowledge to eleven points and proceed on that basis.

The Perceived Role Activities of the Respondent

Initially it was felt that this criterion would be best measured by obtaining perceptions of time spent by respondents performing various activities. Such perceptions could be recorded as percentage estimates of what the respondent thought actually occurred on his job, and what he felt ought to occur. Any discrepancy here would highlight his perceived needs for a role change.

Content validity was examined after the activities to be tested had been based on Nadler's (1969) three major roles and twelve sub-roles. Each of the sub-roles was described using Nadler's own terminology where possible, but were amended where necessary in the light of the ideas of other writers and of the researcher. Thus, this question began by considering the total role of the training officer including the leadership role and not just focussing on the maintenance and change roles. The question went forward for piloting in this form.

The Piloting of Question 13

Question 13 was piloted on three separate occasions with four separate populations:-

(i) The initial pilot sample was a group of sixteen training officers on a training officer course. They were asked to complete the question as outlined above. My expectations were that they would score a majority of time spent performing maintenance activities with little time on change activities

(due to lack of knowledge and role) and little time on leadership

activities (due to their being low in the hierarchy or having

none or few subordinates).

Considerable difficulties were experienced by the respondents

in terms of scoring and complexity.   The method of scoring chosen

(perceived percentage time allocation) proved to produce a highly

problematic response from the respondents.   Seven respondents

refused to complete this question, the follow-up interview

revealing that they were suspicious of revealing such data to

anyone other than their I.T.B.   Furthermore the number of

activities (twelve) made the question too complex and unwieldy

when respondents had to work out percentages for two distinct

columns of responses.

Both of these pieces of information were invaluable.   With

regard to the former, if respondents on a training course, in a

highly artificial situation were not prepared to divulge data in

this form, it was likely that respondents working in-firm with no

verbal contact with the researcher would do the same.   This would

affect both the quality of the responses and the response rate.

Secondly, the complexity of this question and the consequent time

problems created would also affect quality and quantity of

response.

It was decided to deal with the first problem by introducing

rankings of activities rather than time percentage scores.   This

made the question appear less similar to standard I.T.B. returns

and provided data on role perception which was equally valid and

easy to analyse as did the perceived percentage time allocation

originally considered.   The second problem was approached by

reducing the number of activities included in the activity list

to nine.   This 25% reduction was made possible by incorporating
questions concerning the sub-roles rogether.   The final result
was to produce a question with three maintenance, change, and
leadership activities each, making nine activities in all, which
could be ranked by respondents.   This modified version was put
forward for further piloting.

(ii)   The second pilot was performed on a group of twenty-two
training officers on a training officer course.   Again these were
low status respondents, and my expectations concerning responses
were as outlined above for question 13 pilot (i).   Responses
(everyone responded) and subsequent interviewing showed that the
ranking method of role perception worked well in reducing
anxieties concerning disclosure of the required data.   It was
still found, however, that the question was rather long especially
taking into account the new ranking method.   Coupled with a
C.A.P.I.T.B. decision not to extend the research project to
examine the total role of the training officer, it was decided
to exclude the three leadership activities and provide three
maintenance and three change activities as six alternatives
which could be ranked by respondents.   The two sections of
responding to these six in terms of what the respondent actually
did and what he would like to do both remained.

The open-ended question 14 was introduced here to give
respondents an opportunity of specifying particular needs with
regard to what they actually did and what they thought that they
ought to be doing in terms of change and maintenance activities.
This revised question was allowed to proceed in this form to the
next pilot.

(iii)   This final pilot was carried out on two separate

populations, one of internal organisation development consultants

and one of training officers.   Each group was posted copies of

the questionnaire, and consequently it was not possible to interview

the respondents immediately upon completion.   The populations

were made up of seven respondents in each group.   The objective

of this pilot was to examine the concurrent validity of question

13, by observing responses to particular activities represented

in the question which had been previously content validated.   My

expectations were that the internal organisation development

consultants should rank at least two change activities in their

first three rankings with regard to what they were doing, and

should wish to stay that way, whilst the training officers should

rank at least two maintenance activities in their first three

rankings.   No expectations were held with regard to training

officer responses concerning what they felt that they ought to

be doing.   For the purposes of this pilot only, all calculations

were based on organisation development consultants ranking all

change activities in first priorities and vice-versa for the

training officers.   Furthermore, and again working on this

extreme basis, each question was correlated with each other

question in order to ascertain the extent to which each question

was concerned with measuring the change and maintenance concepts

personified in the two pilot populations.   The results, using

the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient, showed that

all listed activities correlated as expected, with change activities

and maintenance activities correlating positively with others in

the same group and negative with those in the other group (see

appendix 6).   Indeed, some of the correlations were exceptionally

high. Thus the six activities proved to be internally valid and the pilot was checking that the activities were good predictors given known populations.

The pilot was found to be successful in that the activities distinguished between the two given populations in the direction predicted (see appendix 4). Indeed, all but one of the activities had $p < .01$, the other $p < .05$ (see appendix 4). I decided to proceed on this basis.

Perceived Problems of the Training Function

The final question, question 14, was related to question 13 in that it sought to discover perceived reasons why individuals had ranked the six activities of question 13 differently according to the two criteria, what they felt actually occurred on their jobs, and what they felt ought to occur. This question had to be open-ended because of the nature of the data involved and consequently posed some problems with regard to analysis. This analysis was finally carried out by two expert judges selecting some fifty random responses, and classifying such responses into eleven categories of which category one had eight sub-categories. Each response was classified independently by each judge and differing classifications were examined in detail. By this method, the final list was agreed, under which all responses were classified. This question was included primarily to provide information for the sponsor. (see appendix 11.)

Questionnaire Assumptions and Limitations

Having produced the questionnaire and validated it in the above manner, it is necessary to state openly the main assumptions and limitations of the instrument in that such a statement will put any

findings in perspective and point out the limitations of the instrument. The assumptions and limitations were as follows:-

(i) Questions 12 and 13 were based on those aspects of the role of the training officer centred on what has been defined as maintenance and change activities. Thus the questionnaire did not look at the total role of the training officer and was not therefore a comprehensive analysis of his job.

(ii) Questions 12 and 13 used limited operational concepts to classify responses according to the two definitions of change and maintenance activities. It may be that such an operationalisation is too simple a device to use for such a complex role. The major problem here was a lack of underlying theoretical development of the area.

(iii) Question 13 assumed that all training officers perform to some extent a change role and were able to rank activities listed in this question.

(iv) Because the data collection method used was questionnaire, the usual assumptions concerning factors influencing completion were made. In fact, I accept that a proportion (probably small) of responses were affected by the norms and values inherent in the organisational hierarchy usually by checking procedures. The extent to which these factors influenced responses obviously cannot be measured. No expectations were held concerning the way in which this bias affected the data.

(v) There was no reliability measure of questions 12 and 13. The follow up interviews in pilot 3 were carried out three to six weeks after administration of the questionnaire.W When specifically

questioned, no respondent wished to change his original responses. It was felt that this quick check was sufficient and that no overall test-retest reliability coefficient for questions 12 and 13 would be calculated. A further contributory factor was time. There had just been a ten-week postal strike which had held up work on the project considerably. To begin reliability testing would have meant further delay.

Population, Distribution and Response Data

Having validated and piloted as outlined above, it was decided to distribute the questionnaire in the above form.

a) Population

After some discussions with C.A.P.I.T.B. it was decided to limit the population to which the questionnaire was to be sent to full-time training personnel only (the original intention had been to include all training personnel in the industry). The main reason for this was that, as the questionnaire was designed to look specifically at:-

(a) the extent of organisation development work in the industry and,

(b) to identify those performing internal organisation development roles,

then the full-time personnel would cover these criteria almost exclusively, as part-time training staff could hardly be expected to perform both such demanding work as that of organisation development and other activities.

The final population numbered six hundred and one possible respondents working at some one hundred and thirty-seven different firms.*

* The word 'firm' here is used meaning the particular organisation in which the respondent works which may be multi-divisional or just a single plant. The number of different establishments to which questionnaires were sent would be a good deal higher.

b) Distribution

The questionnaire was distributed along with a personally
addressed covering letter and stamped addressed envelope to the
respondents via the C.A.P.I.T.B. "contact" in each establishment.
Thus the questionnaires were placed in large packets with a
covering letter to the C.A.P.I.T.B. contact.   A further point
of note was that distribution took place immediately after a long
postal strike.   Thus it was felt that the response rate may be
affected by the backlog of work on which respondents had to catch
up.   Nevertheless it was decided to distribute the questionnaires
because the delay had been so long and it was felt that the risk
to the response rate was relatively low.   A response rate of
about 25-35% was envisaged at this stage, which would have compared
favourably with surveys on similar populations such as the Institute
of Personnel Management postal questionnaires (usually responses of
about 25-30%) and with a similar project carried out in the Liverpool
area with personnel officers as the population (28%). - (Savage, 1970.)

c) Response Data

Given the expectations based on the above data, the overall
response rate to the questionnaire was particularly surprising.
In all, some 61.9% (372 responses) replied, of which 55.9% (336
responses) were usable, the balance being made up of respondents
who had just left the organisation or moved to other jobs within
the organisation or who were temporarily incapacitated in some way.
Some twenty-five telephone calls were received, usually asking for
help concerning who was to complete the questionnaire or, in three
cases, asking for extra questionnaires.   In only two cases did the
researcher have to deal with disappointingly negative responses.

d) Validity of Response by Firm Size

    Firm size was felt to be one major variable to take into account when checking the representative nature of the responding sample. Firm size itself could be observed in two ways. Firstly, one could observe the numbers of firms grouped according to size from which training officers responded, or secondly, one could observe the distribution of training officers throughout the industry grouped according to size of firms in which they worked. The former case tends to be a measure of firms participating in the survey whilst the latter is a measure of the people within those firms who participated in the survey. Both measures were used.

    The results, shown in appendices 5 and 5a, which, using the X^2 test, show that the firms which participated in the survey were representative of the distribution of firms throughout the industry, although inspection showed that the distribution was skewed toward the larger firms (1000 personnel plus) i.e. more larger firms participated than one would have expected given the response rate. These larger firms contained a high proportion of the training officers and the second measure of the representative nature of the sample showed that the response rate of individual training officers within the firms was also representative of the distribution of these respondents within the industry according to firm size.

    I believe that the second measure is a more sophisticated measure of the representative nature of the response as it is weighted according to numbers within firms and does not accept the crude assumption of the first measure that all firms are of equal weighting.

Survey Findings and Data Interpretation

Introduction

I will consider the findings of the survey by looking at the responses to question 12 (perceived knowledge of organisation development techniques) separately and then combined together with question 13 (perceived role performance) in the form of a matrix, classifying each against the data collected in part I of the instrument. This analysis formed part of two reports to C.A.P.I.T.B. (Gill and Tranfield, 1972.)

The Perception of Knowledge of Organisation Development Techniques

The results of the survey concerning this knowledge can be seen in appendix 8. It can be seen from this table that over 50% of the responding population had only heard of three of the techniques listed (Blake's Grid - 57.2%; Coverdale training - 68.1%; T-groups - 55.2%) and a fourth, sensitivity training, which represented all aspects of group training, had a total of 48.5% of respondents who had only heard of it. This compared to an average of 12.3% of the responding population who had only heard of the non-change techniques which were listed. Because fewer respondents had heard of these techniques, then it was not surprising that fewer individuals were actually using or teaching others to use them (18.9% on average reported actually using or teaching others to use change techniques as compared to the average of 66.0% who reported using or teaching others to use the non-change techniques). Thus, in comparison to the list of non-change techniques, the change techniques were neither widely heard of nor used.

One exception to this general finding was the change technique job enrichment, which in contrast to other change techniques, had

some 24.5% saying that they had only heard of it, whilst 46.7% claimed to actually use or teach others to use it. This finding may be interpreted in several ways:-

(i)   This was the most structured of the change techniques in that it concentrated on job redesign rather than personal change in the first instance. This was in comparison to the other change techniques focussing directly on interpersonal (or even intra-personal) relating. Therefore, in Harrison's terms (1970) this is less likely to involve core aspects of the personality, and change in this area is likely to involve less perceived personal risk, which may have resulted in respondents having chosen to involve themselves more in job enrichment activities than others. One piece of evidence from the research which may help to support this idea is the placing of the change techniques on Harrison's (1970) continuum. In terms of depth of increasing emotional involvement in the change, one may suggest job enrichment, Coverdale training and Blake's Grid, Sensitivity training and T-groups. Although this classification is crude (sensitivity training obviously meant job enrichment to some), the numbers using or teaching others to use these techniques seemed to decrease as the techniques become increasingly emotionally involved (see appendix 9). Whether this is a causal or opportunistic relationship would need much more research. A further reason for the incongruent finding regarding job enrichment may have been the real need for it in Britain where low investment in plant and equipment was causing a real socio-technical mismatch in the light of social system changes. It may be that all of these came together to produce a situation in which this one new technique was high-lighted.

ii)   The highly automated chemical industry has used job enrichment interventions widely and the technique was probably well known to those in the industry.

iii)   Job enrichment probably has received considerably more

publicity than other of the change techniques and is consequently

known to more training personnel.

A matrix of perceived knowledge of organisation development techniques and perceived change role performance

It was decided that data should be analysed according to a

matrix derived from questions 12 and 13.   If the responses to these

questions were placed on a 2 x 2 matrix based on the given criteria

for change agentry, then I could compare classifiable data collected

in part I of the questionnaire in each of the boxes A, B, C, D.

This would enable me to analyse data with regard to categories

(a) - (g) (page 15).   The matrix used is shown below and again in

appendix 7 together with data from part I included.   Data was

analysed with the help of a computer.

	Self-perceived knowledge of O.D. techniques	No self-perceived knowledge of O.D. techniques
Perceived change role performance	A	B
No perceived change role performance	C	D

Fig. 1.
Matrix arising from mail-drop questionnaire to examine the
extent of organisation development activities in the chemical
industry.

Where A are the change agent group (organisation development group)

    C perceive themselves as having knowledge of techniques but

      no change role

    B perceive themselves as having a change role but no knowledge

      of skills

    D perceive themselves as having neither a change role nor a

      knowledge of skills.

<u>Total response</u>

The responses to these questions were analysed into these four categories by computer with the following results:-

(i)   Type A - 12.2% of responding population

(ii) Type B - 25.9% of responding population

(iii) Type C - 11.6% of responding population

(iv) Type D - 50.3% of responding population.

Thus given my criteria of change agentry, only 12.2% of the responding population could be classified as organisation development consultants. Groups B and D (76.2% of the responding population) both had no perceived knowledge of organisation development techniques, and, if they were to undertake the role of change agent, would need some theoretical input in this area. On the other hand, groups C and D (61.9% of the responding population) did not perceive themselves as performing the change activities. Indeed, some respondents saw no reason why they should be performing these activities, whilst many saw every reason but had no opportunity for personal training to acquire the necessary consulting skills* or to find organisation legitimacy and opportunity.

I will now go on and examine each of these boxes with regard to the organisational role, and personal data which was gathered in part I of the questionnaire. I felt that a-g (p.15) stated that none of these variables would be related to my classification of respondents, and hence only gross differences in the distribution of these factors between classifications could be a possible indication of causal relations requiring further research. I will examine each of these variables concentrating on their distributions

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*   I use the words "consulting skills" to indicate the behavioural and social skills needed by any specialist if he is to enter, contract with, diagnose, help change and review such changes in any social system. Thus such skills are just as vital for the O.R. specialist as they are for the training specialist, and help to solve problems of specialist isolation and non-utilisation by line managers.

within the four categories. Under each of these headings will be included broad overviews of the data with idiosyncratic variations discussed later under the section on group type profiles.

Organisational data

The organisational data collected in part I of the questionnaire and from C.A.P.I.T.B. records included size of firm, the representation of the training department or personnel departments at director level, the number of staff employed within the training department, and the number of personnel for whom the department was responsible for training.

(i) Size of firm* - the data concerning this variable can be found in appendices 5 and 5a and graph 5. The latter shows a series of curves all of similar shape. It is interesting to note that while the total distributions appear to show only minor variations, type A (organisation development consultants) appear to work in larger organisations than types B, C and D. This suggestion, whilst not wholly unexpected, is borne out by the data gathered concerning size of training department and the numbers that each training department is responsible for training which are reported below.

(ii) Representation of training or personnel at director level - data on this piece of organisational data may be seen in appendices 13 and 14. It was felt that such representation may be an indication of possible organisational opportunity for respondents. Thus, one expectation was that if any correlations could be seen, group types A and B (i.e. those who were performing a change role) would have greater representation than types C and D.

* Data from size of firm, numbers for which the department is responsible for training, age, experience, and firm size is given in graph form. Other analytical methods were considered (Chi square, Cumulative distribution function) but omitted as they were thought to overcomplicate findings searching for gross discrepancies.

In fact, the findings were not related to this, with types A and C (those with knowledge of organisation development techniques) scoring higher in terms of representation than types B and D. Such a finding would seem to suggest either that this is a chance occurrence (this possibility cannot be ruled out until further research has been performed) or that representation with higher management is related to the training personnel obtaining knowledge (going on courses, seminars, workshops, etc.) rather than doing anything with these skills back in the organisation. Thus high status training or personnel representation obtain resources legitimately but do not always obtain legitimacy to act on those knowledge and skills acquired. Such discussion is linked to the responses to the open-ended question 14 reported below and in appendix 11.

Overall then, these variables showed some possible variations according to the classification of types of respondents but such variations were not gross enough to rule out chance correlations.

(iii) <u>The numbers employed in the training department.</u> The details of the data collected are available in numerical form in appendix 7 and are displayed in graphical form in graph 1. The latter shows four similar curves depicting that this is not a variable which can be related to the typology of respondents.

The only interesting point to note is the tendency of type A (organisation development consultants) to be employed in larger training departments (upwards of ten). This is probably linked to the tendency of these people to be employed in the larger firms (see size of firm analysis).

(iv) <u>Number of personnel for which the department was responsible for training</u>

The data from this variable appears in appendix 7 and is displayed in graphical form in graph 2. This shows a series of curves each approximating to normality. Each curve showed idiosyncratic

variations, but again, none that was so obviously gross as to merit detailed statistical analysis and suggestions of further investigation of this variable. The major point of interest was the concentration of the type A respondents in departments having a training responsibility for more than one thousand personnel. This, again, would seem highly related to the size of the total organisation in which individuals worked.

Role Information

The information collected in part I of the questionnaire regarding the organisational role acted out by the respondent included the following data, the level in the hierarchy of the respondent, and the qualifications and experience in training. My original predictions stated that none of these variables would be strongly related to my classification of respondents. Thus I would not expect gross differences in the distribution of data according to these criteria with regard to the fourfold typology. Let us examine the findings concerning each of these variables in turn:-

(i) Level in hierarchy - the data appertaining to the classification of respondents into various levels in the hierarchy can be found in appendix 12. Such data suggests that there are some differences between group type A and types B, C and D (particularly group type D). Group type A was the only group in which the proportion of training managers exceeded that of training officers. As one would have expected, it contained the largest proportion of organisation development specialists. Thus, comparing groups type A and D, type A contained approximately equal proportions of training managers and training officers (40-45%) and approximately 12% organisation development specialists whereas group type D

contained approximately 80% training officers, 20% training managers and no organisation development specialists. I would conclude from this that those with knowledge and role tend to be training managers or organisation development specialists when compared to the extreme group who have no knowledge or skills.

This data would seem to suggest that the level in the organisational hierarchy may be related to the knowledge of organisation development techniques and role performance of the respondent. The intervening variable here may be the opportunity provided for individuals in certain areas. It is possible to hypothesise that organisation development was just being introduced, and consequently those higher in the hierarchy (training managers) who have greater status, perhaps knowledge and certainly control over resources, have greater opportunity of experiencing expensive training programmes mounted in the organisation development field (i.e. increasing their knowledge). They may also have more scope to devise a change role for themselves on returning to the sponsoring organisation.

A second possibility is that firms would see the change role as needing someone with high status and authority and therefore turn to training manager rather than training officer. The training officer is then seen as a course runner, meeting the needs of existing systems rather than seeking to change them. In this case, the opportunities for the training function would be constrained by outside systems rather than by themselves as above.

In either case, this would seem to highlight the interesting area of organisational opportunity and suggest that there is a divergence of opinion in those organisations employing type A, between those with training officers performing a change role, those with training managers, and those employing organisation development specialists. This is quite apart from the differences existing between group types A and D, and relates to the organisation of the organisation development effort

within firms, a problem which requires a good deal of further research.
(Some perspectives on this can be found in: Gill and Tranfield,
1972b; Tranfield, Smith, Gill and Shipton, 1975; Tranfield and
Gill, 1973a and 1973b.)

(ii)   Experience in training.   The data relevant to this variable can
be found in appendix 7 and graph 4.   The latter shows four curves again
of similar shape.   Only group type C would appear to deviate from the
general pattern and there would seem to be no obvious reason why this
should be.   Thus the ex post facto suggestion would be that this is a
chance deviation.   There was little difference between the extreme
group types A and D.

(iii)   Qualifications.   The data relevant to this variable can be found
in the earlier described classification in appendix 7, in totality in
raw form, and in appendix 15 in percentage form with emphasis on the
quality of formal academic qualifications.   I was interested in the
general level of academic attainment of the various group types
specifically to discover whether one group tended to be better qualified
than another.   Appendices 15 (a) and (b) show quite conclusively that
group type A (organisation development consultants) was the best
qualified group on the two criteria used (one negative and one positive).
This is particularly so when compared to the other extreme group type D
which was polarised from group type A in both cases.

With regard to particular subject disciplines all groups showed
similar trends with management, chemistry and engineering being the
most common.   This can be seen from the raw data in appendix 7 which
also shows the randomness of distribution of those with qualifications
in other disciplines.

Thus the major finding here would seem to be the quality of
academic qualifications attained by those in group type A especially
in comparison to those in group type D.   Such a finding may be a

result of graduates or above being attracted to the larger
organisations in which this group seemed to be employed and which
had established organisation development policies.   On the other
hand, this finding may be a function of the complexity and
originality of the subject demanding formally trained minds to
understand and apply the content.   In reality, the probability is
that both of these factors are important in explaining the data.
Qualification data was not related to any earlier hypothesis because
there can be no inference of causality, but was included as it
provides some useful data when completing profiles of the various
group types.

Personal data

The only variable included under this heading was age.   The
data pertaining to the age distributions of the various group types
may be seen in graph 3.   This shows a series of curves tending toward
normality.   Although each has idiosyncratic tendencies, the similarity
of the group types (especially the extreme types A and D) was most
striking.

Training profiles

Having evaluated the broad implications of the questionnaire I
may summarise the findings by considering each of the group types
briefly in turn.   This will also give an opportunity to detail some
idiosyncratic differences in some of the data distributions which
have been referred to from time to time.

A.   Change agent group (organisation development consultants)

This group contains two main age groups, a group of young
recently trained practitioners in the 25/35 age range who have been
in the training function between three and five years, and a smaller

group in the 40/45 age range who have been in training function for eleven to twenty years. Both sub groups are distinguished from the other profiles in that they are working in predominantly larger organisations with large development resources where the function is well represented at Board level. This group tended to be well qualified in terms of academic attainment and were situated relatively high in the hierarchy.

B. <u>Group without perceived knowledge but with perceived role</u>

This group has a high percentage of its members in two age groups, the 36-40 age range and the 46-50 age range. Although possessing the second highest proportion of training managers, this group still lacks the skills to perform adequately. A relatively large proportion of the group work in smaller organisations, and the group as a whole are not as well represented at Board level as either of the groups A or C.

C. <u>Group with perceived knowledge but no perceived role performance</u>

This group could be labelled "frustrated". Many of the reasons for the frustration can be found in the following section (the perceived problems of the training function with regard to organisation change). Inspection of this data shows some evidence that organisational constraints, and perhaps lack of consulting skills, are inhibiting role performance. This group has a large percentage of its total number in the 46-50 age group, and have as a total group been in training functions longer than those in the other profiles, over 50% having more than six years training experience. They are, therefore, a group that have been in training for a relatively long time, who have acquired some skills but where the readiness of the organisation for an organisation development activity seems to be in question. Perhaps significantly in this regard they are slightly less well represented at Board level than the change agent group.

D. Group with neither perceived knowledge nor role

In contrast with group A the age structure of this group is more uniformly distributed; there are large numbers in both the 26-30 age range and in the 56-60 age range with more than one third the total in the 36-45 age range. This pattern is presumably a reflection of the relatively long standing traditional training approaches. The group is similar to group B in that it is not well represented at Board level and a relatively large proportion of its members are working in smaller companies.

CHAPTER III.

Interviews and Orientations

Introduction

So far the research has concentrated upon defining a population and gathering data concerning some demographic differences. Most of these variables did not distinguish between the change and maintenance groups. The conclusion drawn from this was that more personal criteria may be one way of differentiating these groups, insofar as these criteria were affecting the choice of work role and intervention technology. It was felt to be important to produce a set of explanatory rather than descriptive categories regarding the characteristics of the organisation development consultants. Whilst little was known and description was useful, the aim was to relate variables causally if significant findings were to emerge. For the first time, the issue of personality differences was raised in terms of being an area which could throw some light on why one group of people chose to operate a change role, whilst others were more content to maintain existing systems.

This conclusion raised an immediate need for more data, as very little was known about the personality dynamics of organisation development consultants in England. Literature searches produced very little other than two unpublished masters' theses, Daccord (1967) and Prakash (1968). Both of these did not concentrate specifically on personality characteristics, the former concluding that consultants

> "tend to be younger, less certain of their decisions in interpersonal conflict situations, more concerned with their degree of intellectual competence, were more receptive to new information, and were more oriented toward people in problem-solving". (p.2.)

The latter gave more clues -

> "the effective (organisation development) agent generally
> has about five years of experience .... and tends to come
> to the organisation development job from a line job.   He
> has high needs for achievement (task accomplishment) and
> affiliation and a low need for power.   He is very good at
> inspiring trust in his clients and at forming effective
> interpersonal relationships.   He is also good at finding,
> defining and diagnosing problems.   He is open and
> perceptive.   He is good at teambuilding, process consulting,
> training organisation development skills to others, and at
> changing individual goals and values.   He is clear thinking,
> confident, sincere, independent, unorganised, unscientific,
> conventional and idealistic".   (p.2-3.)

Areas of Research

This work provided interesting background in terms of description
if not in terms of explanation.   It was decided to investigate in
the field some of the areas raised by these studies and some which
were felt to be relevant.   These were:-

(i) Ideology of the Organisation Development Consultant

There were two major reasons for including ideology in the
research, the first of which was the nature of the job.   Any change
involves a movement from an initial to a preferred position.   Thus
consideration of end states is vitally important in change work, and
it was felt that the major differences defining the organisation
development agent group could be an ideological consensus, a number
of individuals working to change organisations in a specific agreed
direction.   Secondly, this approach had some support from Prakash (1968)
who described one characteristic of the organisation development
group as "idealistic".   For these reasons it was decided to include
a section on ideology in the field study.

ii)   Personal issues in professional practice

Previous research (Prakash, 1968) hinted that differences in professional behaviour (finding, defining, diagnosing problems) differentiated effective organisation development consultants. Hence it was decided to investigate this area.   It was also felt that the distinction between personal and professional behaviour was of conceptual value to the academic but was probably not made by the organisation development agent in practice.   Hence data needed to be collected in the area of personal issues in professional practice too.

iii)   Self image

A third area concerning self image was also included. Daccord (1967) suggested that all the consultants in his survey

"have a significant discrepancy between the self image to which they aspire and their present perception of self". (p.2.)

Thus this appeared to be a significant dimension for consultants in general and may gave provided an interesting and fruitful area of research on organisation development consultants.

These constituted the three areas to be explored further. At this stage no hypotheses were constructed.   It was felt that research was still exploratory, albeit in a more specific area, and that all that could be accomplished at this stage was to continue to search the literature for signposts and investigate further in the field.

Type of Interview

In deciding upon a data collection technique I felt, for the following reasons, that the data was best collected by a relatively open-ended interview rather than questionnaire:-

a)   The data was personal and it was anticipated that an

impersonal instrument such as a questionnaire would have affected both the quantity and quality of data obtained.

b)   The data required was open ended.   Not only did the respondent have to generate quite long responses, but he may have needed help in clarifying his response.   The presence of an interview was invaluable here.

c)   The data was not required to fit into any previously thought-out scheme.   Hence, the presence of relatively unstructured data was not considered a drawback at this stage.

d)   The phase of the research was exploratory, with data being used for the guidance of theory and hypotheses to be developed. As Kerlinger (1969) puts it

> "an interview .... can be used as an exploratory device
> to help identify variables and relations, to suggest
> hypotheses, and to guide phases of other research".   (p.468.)

Interviews, like all forms of data collection, can be classifed along a continuum of directness.   I felt that although three areas of interest had been identified, considerable latitude should be given to both respondent and researcher in actually gathering the data.   Hence I felt that an interview schedule, covering the three sections and containing certain key questions should be prepared. This should provide a springboard for the respondent,

> "supply(ing) a frame of reference for the respondents'
> answers, but put(ting) a minimum of restraint on the answers
> and their expression" (Kerlinger, 1969, p.471.)

By providing a broad structure for the interaction, the researcher is then free to help the respondent explore the issues he raises using a non-directive style.   Such an approach, it was felt, would have two advantages:-

a)   There would be minimal interference in and distortion of the

data by the researcher which was necessary at this stage of the research.

b)   The provision of an overall structure, and the occasional movement of the topic under discussion by the researcher would reassure the respondent who may begin to feel pressured by a series of non-directive responses.   In essence this was a variation of the focussed interview (Merton, R.K. and Kendall, P.L., 1956)

> "where the interviewer has a list of questions or topics he wishes to cover, but the way in which he asks the questions is largely left to his discretion.   This kind of interview is particularly useful where experience, feelings, reasons and motives are involved" (Stacey, 1969, p.75).

Conducting the Interviews

In the end an interview schedule was devised and piloted on six students reading a postgraduate course in the social sciences. Minor changes were made in the phraseology of certain questions as a result of these pilot interviews.   A copy of the interview schedule can be found in appendix 16. Two researchers were used in carrying out the interviews, the writer and one other, a lecturer in personnel management with considerable experience of interviewing in the above manner.   In each section of the schedule, the technique used was to outline the objective of that section, e.g. in section 1, the researcher would begin by saying "this section is concerned with your concept of your ideal organisation". He would go on "Do you have such a concept and can you tell me about it?".   If the respondent then had difficulty in making his response, the researcher was instructed to directly ask the questions listed under section 1.   As soon as the respondent

began to respond, the researcher lapsed into a more non-directive style. This procedure was repeated for sections 2 and 3, and was followed in each case by both researchers.

The process of respondent-researcher interaction was aided by the use of a tape-recorder. In all cases the tape was used only with permission of the respondent, and in those cases where it was used a number of respondents reported an initial anxiety which quickly disappeared. Subjective feelings of researchers were that the use of the recorder did not appear to affect the quantity or quality of data obtained. The only problems experienced lay in the tape changing which necessitated some small gaps in the responses.

In all, nine respondents were interviewed, five from those who had both the perceived role and saw themselves as using organisation development techniques and four from the opposite end of the spectrum who saw themselves as having neither the role nor using the techniques. These latter four were included to provide a contrast to the former group. All interviews with the former group were recorded, but two of the latter group preferred not to use the recorder in their interviews. All recordings were subsequently transcribed and a copy returned to the respondent. In the two cases where the recorder was not used notes were taken by the researcher.

All interviews took place in the respondent's usual place of work. In each case he was asked to provide an office where there would be minimal disturbance, and in only one case, again a member of the latter group, was this request not fulfilled. Normally the interviews were conducted without interruption. A check was kept on the length of time each of the interviews took.

Results

The interviews were reviewed in terms of content and time. In terms of the latter the change agent group took considerably longer. All interviews were over ninety minutes with a mean of one hundred and five minutes. The maintenance group had a mean interview time of fifty minutes. Obviously many factors affected this difference, but one striking factor in relating this to the content of responses was how comprehensive were the answers of the change agent group. Discussion of issues such as ideology certainly tapped into areas in which they had spent some considerable time examining their position.

In terms of analysing the content of responses it is proposed to look at the three main areas outlined earlier in the chapter. These were:-

a) Ideology of the organisation development consultant

b) Personal and professional issues

c) Ideal self.

a) Ideology of the change agent

i) Abstract ideal

One of the major differences between the two groups was that the change agent group were so much more fluent in describing their ideal organisation in abstract terms and their existing organisation working in what they considered to be an ideal way. All respondents from the change agent group seemed able to make the leap into discussing organisational possibilities as opposed to describing organisational realities. Four of the five change agents were immediately able to discuss their abstract ideal (often using concepts from organisation theory such as the Harrison (1972) typology, Blake's 9,9 (1964a and 1964b, 1969), Burns and Stalker's (1961) mechanistic and organic structures

with no prompting from the researcher.   Of the maintenance group three out of four found the abstract ideal a virtually impossible question to answer without guidance.   Three found it very difficult to conceive of the total organisation (as opposed to the training function) and the one who was able to answer the question directly used the Weberianbureaucratic model.

With regard to the content expressed by the change agent group, the four who were able to answer directly all placed emphasis in their answers on issues relating to the "organic" end of the Burns and Stalker continuum.   One actually said,

> "One of the things I have been very impressed with is the
> Burns and Stalker model, and the fact that there are
> different sorts of organisation appropriate in different
> areas depending on the job of the organisation to be done,
> the sort of market it's living in, the rate of change of
> its technology".

However, he said shortly afterwards,

> "I have also seen that in fact there are not many organisations
> in Western society which conform to the Burns and Stalker sort
> or mechanistic environment, there aren't many industries where
> change is always non-existent".

Another change agent used the typology of organisational ideologies developed by Roger Harrison, (1972),

> "Well, I think one way of responding .... would be to use the
> Roger Harrison typology, in terms of the power-centred, role-
> centred, problem-centred and individual centred .... I don't
> think I could live in an anarchistic type of organisation.
> Another criterion should be that there should be enough freedom
> for people to do what they want to do provided that they don't
> do it at the expense of other people in that organisation.

"Really I would be happiest in the sort of organisation

where .... there is some sort of fairly clear reason for

existing, some sort of fairly clear purpose for being

there, but a lot of freedom for going about achieving that

in the way I want. .... I think using the Roger Harrison

typology it is a mixture between the sort of problem centred

type of organisation where you have got work organised to

meet problems that arise so we have got some sort of structure;

in that sense you have got a commitment to some sort of

problem solution; but with some element of personal freedom

in it as well."

This partial emphasis on personal variables was taken further

by another respondent who used Blake's managerial grid to illustrate

his response,

"I think the ideal that I would like would be a .... something

on the lines of the Blake style of 9, 9, where there is a high

level of task which is important to people; where there is

a high level of job satisfaction; and where people can

experience growth and enjoy their interpersonal relationships.

So that in my view work is a necessary thing, it is necessary

to have work, it is necessary to get satisfaction out of your

work so that the work would have to be meaningful.   The

organisation would have to be capable of supplying meaningful

work to people. .... Within my ideal I think that this is one

of the things we want, so that people could have their

satisfaction from the work.   Also there would be a high level

of social activity and social interaction.   People would get

social pleasure from this. .... I think essentially the concepts

I have picked up in this job all seem to tie together into one.

The concepts of us being able to fulfil ourselves in our work,

"in our lives, and to satisfy these needs we have got, of
growth need to contribute, to enjoy ourselves .... I think
that is a stage further, but to get real enjoyment from our
work, to have fun, to get a sense of real contribution and
to be proud of the organisation; that the organisation
itself, as a team, working together, and from this people
would get their satisfactions."

Another respondent emphasised through the people aspect of
organisational life a unitary frame and an implicit humanistic
value stance by using the Harrison typology yet again,

".... I suppose I would start from Roger Harrison's model
.... the ideology in terms of people and problem centred types
of organisation in which you try to remove the use of, or
reduce the use of power, reduce the use of highly defined
roles, and reduce all the bureaucratic behaviours that you
get in organisations. The values of the organisation would
revolve around using appropriate people for appropriate tasks
.... having very much more flexible, almost matrix type of
management system .... in which you don't have people pre-
occupied with status seeking, those sort of issues .... so
it is a high task achievement organisation, but geared in
order to achieve that high task effectiveness, geared toward
personal development, so that the way you get tasks achieved
around here is to develop people, that's really what it's all
about, and the concern for developing the individual so that
he feels free to exercise creativity, to be innovative, to be
proactive rather than what generally happens around here,
reactive. (Proactive) in response to what he sees rather
than waits for the system to tell him what he sees, those
sorts of things .... My ideal organisation is what I have said,

"it is problem centred ... which ... the way you get problems

solved around here is to develop people to solve those

problems, develop people, and that's where I really start."

In summary, the change agent responses were lengthy and tended

to emphasise a unitary frame following Argyris (1964a) ideas of

integrating social system needs and formal system goals.   They had

some consensus concerning the kind of organisational requirement

for the future which tended to visualise.   They drew on some of

the modern thinkers on organisations but with an implicit or explicit

normative component which some of the original writers did not intend

Overall the most striking aspect of their responses to this first

question was their ability to produce an ideology immediately.   Also

the unitary nature of the direction of the ideology was important and

the accompanying dystopia, the dislike of the formal structural

bureaucracy.   All of these points were in stark contrast to the

maintenance group.   Both in terms of ability to idealise and in terms

of direction of idealisation the above patterns were almost reversed.

In the notes taken by the researcher in the non-tape-recorded inter-

views mention is made of the

"difficulty experienced by the respondent in answering the

question"

and

"the considerable difficulty experienced in considering a

total organisation".

Another respondent, although sharing the above problem, described

his ideal as

"small, to keep the top in touch with the bottom, hierarchical

(but not necessarily so).   It would accept the humanistic

values which he saw as being in conflict with the profit motive".

A fourth respondent was much more certain of the direction of

his ideal.   The notes are explicit,

"the respondent was very definite in his view of his ideal

type, but conceived of this only in structural terms.   The

organisation would be essentially hierarchical.   There would

be no exceptions to the given hierarchical structure, all

departments would have identical organisation.   The structure

would cover <u>all</u> (his word) eventualities".

This group of responses had some similarities with the change

agent group, but overall respondents did not have the ability to

idealise so characteristic of the change agents.   Similarly, as a

group the direction of their idealisations were often in marked

contrast, some emphasising structure, others social system variables,

none emphasising complexity.   This section of the research had

started with an implicit assumption in my mind, that the main

distinguishing characteristic in this first question would be the

direction of the idealisation.   In fact, the major finding was the

importance in the change agents respondents of the <u>tendency and

ability to idealise</u>.   This was reinforced by the responses to other

parts of section a) of the schedule.

ii) <u>Management of conflict</u>

With regard to conflict management all change agent respondents

held a fairly clear ideal of open confrontation based on a unitary

view.   One reply reflected this view completely -

"Well, joint consultative activity tends to mean that a conflict

situation or differences of opinion have already arisen and that

joint solutions try to be reached, whereas I see it ideally as

an ongoing awareness of what is going on elsewhere, so that

before they reach a difference you can anticipate somebody else's

needs on how it can ideally fit in.   Ideally conflict should

be anticipated in this way ...."

This respondent went on to outline a traditional marketing/research and development intergroup conflict inside her organisation which she believed could be handled according to the principles outlined above.

"I think at the moment in most companies, to get people together to resolve conflict is so much an exceptional circumstance that it becomes a great big kerfuffel, a rapid shuffling around of people and getting people together in a seemingly important way, whereas it should just be a question of a routine matter of getting together."

This respondent emphasised the "flexibility" inherent in her ideal and again, the unitary nature of the ideal was paramount.

"It should be possible to get them together to try and effect some compromise to see what is best for the company as a whole."

Another change agent responded by reinforcing this view.

"As far as conflict is concerned, I think the conflict would have to be managed properly; that we would have to have .... an open organisation whereby conflict would certainly not be buried, where it could be openly expressed and worked through."

Yet another change agent responded along these same lines.

".... in actual practice ideally I suppose you could say that conflict resolution has to be worked through, enabling the people involved in the conflict to recognise the characteristics that make up the conflict. .... As I see it most conflicts are created because there is no clarity regarding the nature of the conflict, no attempt to classify the areas in which conflict can be placed .... is it a group conflict? or is it an individual building or propagating conflict for his own ends? or is it purely a technical conflict? - is it to do with task, getting the job done? So that in an ideal sense

"conflict can be managed by enabling people to understand the
areas .... You have got a conflict, do a critical analysis of
how it started looking at every single step, when did it
start? who started it? and what is it about? and analyse
why it was there and go through the whole process analysing
the whole path of the conflict.   Ideally that's the way you
can do it you know."

Although this respondent had not emphasised a conflict free
organisation, the emphasis on cognition and analysis suggested
implicitly that organisational conflicts are resolvable given a
complete diagnosis of their genesis.   This makes assumptions
concerning the rationality of human beings in the conflictual
process, which reflects the unitary position inherent in the first
respondent that if only one understood the position of the other,
the conflict would be resolved.   Structural causes and solutions
tended to be ignored.

A fourth change agent responded by using an analogy with his
family.   This also reflected a lack of distinction between personal
and professional values on behalf of the respondent.

"The way to cope with it (conflict), if you like, is the way
I would cope with it at home with my family.   If a conflict
exists it is recognised, and maybe it starts by taking polar
extremes in the argument and then coming to a point where you
recognise the differences and talk about it and discuss it,
and you arrive at some sort of mutual state where you don't
necessarily get rid of the conflict but at least you have come
to some sort of status quo where you have dealt with it and it
is recognised that you have differences in that area."

Again the situation is confronted, but in this case not
necessarily resolved in a unitary sense.   The issue of structural

relationships between conflicting parts of the organisation is still
not tackled, the emphasis still being on an essentially psychological
approach to conflict resolution.

Another change agent reflected his confusion in the area of
confronting conflict. He acknowledged that there is very little
confrontation and said,

"The theory tells me confrontation is a good thing and it

works, but I have very little experience of it really working",

but later in describing his ideal he said,

"In terms of (my) theories, it would have to be a confronting

one, one where conflict was mainly about ideas where the

personal differences have been worked through".

This latter position reflects a similarity with previous
respondents and there is no doubt that this is the position the
respondent would have liked to accept emotionally as well as
intellectually. Several times he put this confusion down to his
own inadequacies.

"I have my own hang-ups about conflict because I am not

very good at it",

and again,

"I know the theories and have some intellectual respect for

them but I am not very convinced emotionally that they work",

and with examples from his work experience.

"The bit of confrontation I have been involved in has led in

fact to bad feeling, and a further souring of emotional

relationships. Now that is not supposed to happen I

have not experienced differences being worked through so it

sounds nice if they would".

Here is a situation of a respondent drawn to an ideal and
finding difficulty coping with inconsistent environmental data.

Overall this respondent was not as certain as previous respondents on this issue.

With regard to the maintenance group, one respondent did not respond to the question at all, whilst all the other three responded by advocating the use of formal authority. One respondent said,

"The problem with many organisations is that they allow conflict to drive the protagonists apart. Some authority is needed to bring the parties together. Each party would be allowed to put his own point of view and then they would be expected to explore the issues which had been raised. If this was not done people would wallow in their own prejudices".

Another emphasised the authoritative role in conflict management by itemising three types of conflict, on the shop floor, a policy clash or personality clash. Each one was to be resolved by using formal authority either by moving one of the parties involved or by browbeating the non-conformer in meetings. Only one respondent advocated using "the grapevine" to find the "real" cause of conflict. None of the maintenance respondents, either implicitly or explicitly, envisaged a unitary form of ideal organisation.

Overall the major pattern was maintained in answering this question. The change agent group had an emphasis on open confrontation with its assumptions of resolution lying in personality rather than role which was relatively ignored. Thus although conflict was seen by both groups as being something to be avoided or resolved, the change agent group had a very clear ideology, playing down the use of formal authority relations, and relying on personal confrontation to handle conflict management.

iii) Leadership, decision-making and power/authority relations

When these variables were introduced the change agent group were
in much agreement with an ideal type envisaged where power tended to
be equalised, traditional authority relations broken down, and
decision-making located in information centres.

One respondent exemplified this attitude.

"The decisions should be made where they are needed to be made
and not where they have traditionally been made.   Decisions
come from right at the top to right at the bottom giving a
different source of decision when the thing is running so as to
respond to reality and not to the various fantasies and illusions
and conventions and conservative views held by the people in
power ....   Therefore more decisions need to be made lower down,
and much better use made of a whole range of skills."

Another change agent responded by quoting a story whereby a
senior manager was involving operatives in the decision making process
to the extent of "breaking the rules".   He described this, and the
response of the operatives who began to ignore demarcation lines among
jobs as "super stuff".   He went on to discuss the issue of authority
and power,

"I think .... authority and power has to be clearly defined,
you can't get rid of it, you have to use it, and if necessary
you can use manipulation and high authoritarianism providing
it is in a defined role and providing that's what goes on
around here.   But using it indescriminately, and that's what
happens most of the time, that's pretty crummy.   At the moment
power gets distributed according to crazy variables .... some
of the most powerful people in this organisation are leaders
of the informal system".

A third change agent supported similar views,

"I think the other thing is to do with a system of who does
what, who has authority. One thing that I have found very
distasteful about organisations like this one is that you
still have areas of authority being vested in people because
they have got long service, or because they happen to come
up through the right career pattern, or because they happen
to have been extremely competent at the job they were doing
twelve or fifteen years ago. They suddently find themselves
in a position of quite a lot of power and authority but not
necessarily having the sort of competence that goes with the
role .... it means that the possibility of the bloke who is
lower down the organisation taking the sort of responsibility
in the area of the job that he is good at is taken away to
some extent, because this bloke takes it up with him and you
get the situation then where he (the boss) is trying to make
decisions about things that are going on further down the
organisation which he is not so competent to do as the bloke
who is down there".

This theme, which may be best understood theoretically using
Beer's (1972) ideas of system 5 operating system 3 operations was
reiterated within another of the change agent responses,

"And it tends to be at the moment a massive amount of, I
think that it is very general in companies, a massive amount
of toing and froing of information which is invariably passed
up a line and then comes down a line in a watered down version.
Often the person who has actually to make the decision hasn't
any real experience of the thing they are deciding about, they
are going on about ten people's views and can reach a decision
which just isn't acceptable or understandable to a lot of
people who are there".

This response concerning decision-making and the authority structure was reinforced by the following comments on the question of power and authority.

"I find the authority and power question a very difficult one. I am not sure that they are terribly real in terms of companies. I just never think of them in a company context. Because ultimately as far as power is concerned we are all so utterly dependent on each other, and accepting this dependence, I just don't see how you can say that one lot have terrific power, we all have power in each other. As we are at the same time subject to everyone else's power, it is an unreal term."

This was the most extreme denial of the problem of distributing power and authority relations inside the ideal organisation. A less extreme, but nevertheless questioning response came from a fourth change agent who started with a contingency view of decision-making but ended with a much more utopian picture tied up with his view of leadership,

"The way that decisions are made depends very much I think on the circumstances. We are talking about industrial organisation here, therefore, I would conceive that decisions would be made at the appropriate level. That is a general thing. What I am trying to say really is that I don't ... I am trying to steer a line between imposed decisions on one hand, and some sort of woolly concept of the total so called democratic system on the other, where everybody is involved in every decision which isn't so. But the decision-making process, I think, depends very much upon the decision itself; who is affected; who has got the knowledge; what the time constraints are and so on. But I think that people above all should have an

"element of trust, and that this trust should be satisfied, and provided that is met I think people are happy to have decisions made, if necessary, to have a decision made by the boss. I don't see anything wrong in this. I think it is quite necessary to have leadership; the most important thing in my organisation would I hope very much be that the organisational leadership would be the actual natural leadership. I think this is where a lot of people get hang-ups on decision-making so that the true boss of the group would be the boss and there wouldn't be any conflict; that people would be able to fulfil their roles; they would be well suited to their roles; and this would mean that as an efficient organisation we would have people with appropriate skills using those appropriate skills. Authority would be earned, tying up the natural leaders with the hierarchical organisation leaders and the question of power would not arise."

This response demonstrates the ease with which the change agent group could relate concepts into a clear vision of the future ideal they were trying to create which would be congruent, unitary and essentially conflict free. The implications of these responses of the change agent group to the issues under consideration in this section confirm the general impression created by the responses to the earlier question of the change agent group having a clear ideal to which they are prepared to work and which is essentially questioning the existing structure and processes of organisations.

The responses of the maintenance group were in stark contrast to those of the change agents. One responded by saying that authority and power should be vested in the hierarchy, the ideal management style heavily autocratic, decisions being made at the top by the supervisor or leader and enforced by his power and

authority.   This was agreed by a second respondent who concurred

that the final authority about any issue should be vested above as

no-one else has the full picture.   By contrast, a third respondent

saw

> "the shop floor having more say.   If you don't include them
>
> then trouble starts.   You must keep them happy."

He also saw a need for

> "authority and power to be well defined, to know where you
>
> stand".

This would be necessary to tell managers who is responsible for a

particular act, and tells managers just how far they can go.

> "A hierarchy of power and authority would be necessary to
>
> meet the needs of the environment pressing on organisations
>
> in our culture.   This would meet individual expectations
>
> and the expectations of other organisations.   It would also
>
> mean faster (but not, perhaps, better quality) decisions."

> This respondent also thought that generally speaking there

would be a movement toward a more participative style.   He felt

that this was right both in terms of human values and organisational

effectiveness.   Thus the maintenance group contained disparate

views on these issues but reflected a tendency to support the

status quo rather than question basic values as did the change

agent group.

iv) Communication patterns

> Most of the change agent group, in line with their views on

decision-making and the distribution of power/authority relations

responded by favouring more open methods of communicating and

information sharing.

> "Decisions being made on high should be communicated where
>
> there is plenty of room and opportunity for people to throw

"their ideas back and forth in the company as to how things

ought to be done; that they don't feel that decisions are

being made or action being taken by other members of the

community without reference or knowledge as to what is

happening in their section."

Another respondent related communications to decision-making.

"It is also about the use, the flow of information.   It is

not just where the decisions are made, although some of those

are made in the wrong place, but in the fact of them being

made on the basis of inadequate information because of the

barriers set up to the flow of information when people have

it and because of the barriers set up in bringing together

information held by quite different people.   All of these

need to be brought together to enable the problem to be seen

as a whole."

The theme of information sharing and an increased amount of

openness was raised by another respondent.

"One of the norms of this organisation is 'O.K., information

is power, so you hang on to bits of information and don't pass

it around to all the people who should have it, then you have

got a position that you can manipulate,' even to the extent of

having, deliberately and openly having, management information

meetings once a week and then deliberately not passing on

information, so that everybody knows that the information is

there in that group but it is not getting any further.   It's

not really anything to do with, although it is usually

disguised in that way, it is not really anything to do with

having a technical system to process the data, it is purely

to do with how much people are prepared to tell other people

in the end.   So it is based on the whole concept of trust and

"openness really, just how much are people prepared to let other people influence them, just how much are they prepared to tell them, and trust them with information. I think that we are going to move that way without choice, because there are a lot of pressures in society particularly in our area which are going to force them to do that, to share information whether they like it or not, which may not be an ideal way to do it but it is going to happen."

Another change agent respondent saw it less as a problem of openness and more a problem of distortion which could be rectified by

"analysing why the distortion takes place, and trying to cope with those reasons".

He gave examples of people at different levels, in different roles and with different professional backgrounds interpreting the same problem in different ways and concluded,

".... so you have got to have communications which are relative to the real-time needs of clients within the system".

This essentially structural approach to the problem was atypical of the responses of the change agents.

The responses of the maintenance group all emphasised the face-to-face nature of a good communication process with communications being passed down the line. Overall this group had very little to say concerning the organisation of the communication process in their ideal. This did not seem to be an exceptional issue in the responses perhaps because the acceptance of a hierarchical ideal leads to a situation where communication patterns are a relative non-issue. Only one respondent mentioned the informal system using "groups being organised at various levels for griping sessions".

v)   Ideal organisation values

The following comprise lists of values mentioned by both groups
of respondents in response to being asked what values would be held
by people in the ideal organisation.

Change agent group	Maintenance group
A feeling of individual worth	Humanistic
Career choice and personal development	Profit/financial
People perceived as whole people	Money
Effectiveness	Good human relations
Everyone's world rational to them	Good conditions
Acting appropriately	Individual integrity
Everyone to have their own values	
Autonomy and responsibility	

The lists reflect a number of similarities particularly
concerning individual worth.   The change agent list is heavily
biased in this direction with only one of the change agents
mentioning effectiveness by which he meant the organisation
fulfilling an objective of the wider society.   This heavy emphasis
on social system variables was not nearly so pronounced in the list
of the maintenance group.   Here a number of other values were
mentioned with equal regularity (money, financial/profit, conditions).
It seemed that the change agents had adopted a very clear value stance
with regard to their ideal organisation which valued the worth of
individuals and their development above all else.   This can be seen
quite clearly in the following.

".... what really matters to people is that they are perceived
as whole people, that is what really matters - that is no-one

"wants to be rewarded simply as a good technologist or a good
operator, he also wants to be rewarded as a good manager ....
(and) to be rewarded in his social context .... so I think
ideally people ought to be perceived as first of all valuable
in their own right as people, the self matters; the maintenance
and integrity and confidence in oneself, people want to be
trusted. Ideally people want to be valued as professionals
whatever they do whether they are pipefitters or accountants;
they ought to be valued for that, that is their trade, they
want to be rewarded for that. The next thing they want is to
be valued as managers .... Finally I think they want to be
valued as people with a social contribution to make to the
organisation."

Another respondent said,

"I think the main one (value) for me would be a feeling of,
first of all a feeling of individual worth, that I as an
individual exist and am worth something. I am valuable, useful,
and have got skills which can be used and I think I can contribute
while feeling that you are in an organisation in which you can
be allowed to develop your abilities as an individual in as far
as skills are concerned, and knowledge, and just as a person,
with some emphasis on the person growing, psychologically growing
rather than it being just a job".

Another typical response valued openness,

"I don't see it as being possible to have ideal values for
everybody in the company, in fact I think it could be very boring
if there were, but one should ensure at least they are, where
necessary, on a question like management style, articulated and
not just half talked about and half thought about and coming out
in the form of expectations which are bitterly disappointed when

"the expectations are never very clearly articulated .... if I
could have anything it would be a value of openness, a willing-
ness to exchange views, the belief in the value of changing and
exchanging views, a preparedness to listen to and combine ideas
and idealists into something worthwhile for everybody and you
won't get it when you get people sneaking around keeping their
little ideas close against them".

b) Personal and professional issues

(a) Organisational issues. Responses from the maintenance
group were non-existent as this question was inappropriate for this
group, all of whom saw themselves as not trying to make changes.
With regard to the change agents, the responses tended to be varied
but with certain similarities. Three respondents were using process
consultancy to bring about changes in group working inside the
organisation, but in no way was this a total organisational change.
Another respondent had been involved in job enrichment exercises.
Three of the five believed in starting at the top and working down-
wards but in doing so felt that this presented personal problems
for them. As one respondent put it,

> "I think that one of the strange things I have found is that
> it's as though people give you a couple of tickets and they
> say 'we know you are a bit of a strange animal in this job
> so here's a couple of tickets which will give you licence to
> deviate from the norm'; you can use those tickets every now
> and again by telling the managing director that he is a
> bloody idiot or what have you, but you have got to be careful
> once you have used up your tickets. You use up your tickets
> and then you have got to do something which will gain
> credibility again, like running a lecture programme or some-
> thing to show that you are quite a competent bloke really".

The role stress created by being part of a system yet attempting to change it was something that was mentioned by several change agents. One way of gaining credibility seemed to be to use educational interventions. Two respondents were involved in educational interventions giving extensive theory inputs. One respondent had developed an overall programme giving both theoretical inputs and experiential training to some one thousand four hundred managers. Another respondent was involved with his own department in team building themselves before trying it out with clients.

All of the change agent group answered the second question in very positive terms. Everyone felt that there were quite distinct organisational pay-offs in the work they were doing. These were mostly in the area of increased profitability sometimes through decreasing wastage or just increasing the chances of the organisation surviving.

"The organisation pay-off would be just that instead of wasting energy on just hacking about problems the company would be more united inside and able to get on with our main job of dealing with those outside."

"Well, one big one (pay-off) for me would be that it will survive for one thing .... so survival is the main thing, but if we carry on now with the amount of rigidity and hierarchy that we have got we will eventually, probably in the not too distant future, let's say ten or fifteen years, we are going to have serious problems. We will not be getting the sort of people we want to come into the organisation to be creative and innovative."

Another respondent saw the organisation becoming

"more resilient, beginning to get tougher and face some hairy issues".

This was reflected in a second issue which was to do with both

"creativity and economic rewards"

because

"the place is not really paying off economically, it is

keeping its head above water but it is probably competing

not too well, it is producing a lot of second rate stuff".

This respondent went on to argue that individuals needed to be

informed of the total picture (this was in line with his educational

interventions) and then you could expect proactive behaviour.

"Instead of having stocks run out, everybody knows stocks are

running out but nobody telling the manager, the bloke will go

and tell the manager that they are running low, that sort of

proactive behaviour."

Another respondent mentioned effectiveness but emphasised

individual feelings.

"I think pay-offs in terms of increased effectiveness, less

interpersonal irritation, less personal frustration by people,

less a feeling of blind anger and frustration at the failure

to do things they see as important. Managers are just not

able to get the people beneath them to work in the ways that

they want them; people beneath them just aren't able to get

the management to see what needs to be done. Less of that

would make the job experiences of these people less frustrating,

less wearing. The liberation of some creativity."

Finally, one respondent captured the two issues of the change

agent group in one sentence.

"In the short term, higher profits and more satisfied people,

in that order."

This comment, again based largely on a unitary idea seemed to

reflect the views of the change agent group in terms of issues,

although implicitly not all of them would agree with the order spelled out by this respondent. It is interesting to note these responses in relation to the ideals recounted earlier and particularly in relation to the value statements made by the change agents where the above order was certainly reversed and in many cases the organisational pay-off excluded. It seemed as though the change group had developed a professionally established rationale for working in the organisations they did and which were not perceived as sharing the change agents' own objectives. This rationale would seem to be reflected in the literature among some of the more modern management theorists based on a unitary perspective. (Argyris, 1964a; Likert, 1961; Blake, 1964a, 1964b; McGregor, 1960; Scanlon – see Krulee, 1955, and Lesieur, 1958.)

In terms of hindering and helping forces from the organisation the change agent group saw the following.

Change agent group

Organisational hindering forces	Organisational helping forces
The organisation chart – the old structure	The product – short life cycle
People who have been here a long time	Difficulty of talking to my boss – people come and talk to me
Concentration of authority at senior levels and the conservation theme	Influx of young new managers
Conservatism, authoritarianism, paternalism, slow to change	New expectations lower down
Local cultural tradition – fixed attitudes	
Cynicism among young graduates in the organisation	
Tradition v. modern technology	
Suspicion of behavioural sciences	
Size	
Working alone	

Many of the hindering forces can be seen to be represented by the traditional hierarchical view of organisations and it being seen as inappropriate for the new environmental demands. Change is seen as being required in a particular normative direction, and anything which contributes to facilitating that process is viewed as a helping force. This normative view of change activities as opposed to a scientific/diagnostic view was an important characteristic of the change agent group. Although much of the rhetoric reflected organisational concepts it seemed that the real objectives, i.e. those which motivated behaviour were to produce a particular social organisation with a value stance at odds with the existing dominant culture.

(b) Personal issues. The maintenance group reported getting considerable satisfaction from performing the trainer/lecturer role. One said the most important pay-offs were,

"That part of my courses where people come up to me and say 'we enjoyed doing that, thank you very much'".

Of the others, one reported seeing changes in behaviour as giving him most personal satisfaction, while another reported some difficulty in answering the question but later said,

"I suppose one gets the chance to shoot a line that you believe in, and you get some gratification out of doing so. In a sense I suppose you get a feeling of power in finding that you are changing attitudes a bit".

Two of the maintenance group reported not to have really thought about the issue. This was in contrast to the change agent group who all had considered the issue and produced some interesting responses. One emphasised the role itself and his problems in coping,

"I think the major one (pay-off) is the possibility of being in a role that can change something. There is quite a possibility

of being able to legitimately question the establishment.
One thing that concerns me about that is that I don't feel
particularly clear in my own mind as to what I would like
to change it into .... I think the personal satisfaction
is being in a situation where you can get people to really
challenge themselves as to what is wrong and what is right;
to ask themselves what they are really doing and why they
are doing it. The other personal issue for me is to some
extent a freedom from the normal sort of system in that in
many ways I can choose what I want to do in terms of my own
development".

Another respondent also emphasised the pay-offs from performing
the role in terms of outcomes,

"It is the increasing of understanding of one man of another,
and with understanding hopefully, a greater tolerance of, if
not actual affections, of caring for another .... We are
getting so crowded in upon ourselves, the world is getting so
small, that we have to devise ways of getting on better together
and of combining, and the whole dynamics of groups and of mixed
bags of people are absolutely fascinating, and out of the many
thousands of things that can go wrong, that the sense of
achievement in many ways is to set things up so that they
start going differently or better. Most people in organisation
development are a little bit megalomaniac in that sense".

The idea of analysing personal needs which are satisfied by the
role was taken up by two other respondents although one made only
passing reference to it. The other, however, went further,

"Well, I think the thing that got me on organisation development
originally was that it just seemed right. I have given this
some thought but it is really what I want out of life; going .

back to childhood I suppose, being brought up in a

Christian Socialist home where I had certain values, and

these values took a pretty good beating when I was a young

man. I remember a great sense of euphoria I had on 'Blake

one' to have it sort of 'socked to one'. These things are

important after all, people are important, job satisfaction

is important, it is important to have concern for people;

that you could get a common objective and do a good job for

the company and do it ethically and properly, and at the

same time do a good job for yourself and other people.....

The other thing out of this work that pleases me is the

number of resurrection jobs we have been able to do. This

is most pleasing to see these guys that have been written

off .... the silent bitter types .... we managed to get

these fellows really turned on..... So we can do a good

job and there is no division, we can see our way through it

without having to conflict between labour and capital or the

bosses and people and this sort of thing.... I had some mis-

givings about doing industrial engineering but I am very

proud of doing organisation development now".

This response was very representative of the change agent group.

They tended to identify closely with their profession, role behaviour

representing beliefs strongly held. The source of these beliefs was

not really explained nor why they were so important to the respondent.

Either the respondent did not want to share that data or the source

of the motivation was unconscious and not available to the respondent.

Often the respondents coped with this by just expressing a warm

feeling toward the job as did one who just responded by saying,

"I like it. It is exciting and interesting".

With regard to the values held in performing work, both groups had little to add to what had already been said in a number of questions. One or two comments from the change agent group gave extra insight into their thinking. One respondent gave his biggest value dilemma as the product itself.

"The biggest value hang-up I have is about the product, the end of the organisation. It's alright making the thing more effective, but more effective for what? The answer is selling plastic and I have long arguments with our people about whether that is a good thing or not, and whether that is the real end of the organisation .... a lot of people's time simply goes into beating competitors which I see as being an incredibly wasteful way of getting to improve products for consumers."

This theme of concern for meta-issues was taken up by a second respondent.

"I place a high value on profitability, not in a sense of financial profitability, but in the usefully combining of people's different contributions to a problem; so that the sum total is better than any one person could have thought up on their own. It is this combination of people into some sort of unity that I hold a high value for."

A third respondent also thought non-organisational criteria to be important.

"Essentially I think there are two things that are measured, by the results I get out, and the fun that I get out of doing it. .... I think it is important to be results oriented, it is important to achieve goals, but you know it is important to enjoy yourself as well and I think in a lot of things you can."

A final respondent was more concerned with the values implicit in his methodology.

"Another one .... goes back to sharing as much knowledge and skill as I have got with the person with whom I am working in the time available. In other words one of the things I tend to do now is say, 'Well O.K., I can give you something that will help and I have knowledge of certain techniques which will help, but where I want to be in the end is that you can do things yourself'. So in other words I find it useful to be honest and say that I don't want to be in an expert role in the end, because that's not going to help him very much. But at least he ought to know where I am headed. What I am trying to do is pass more and more of the responsibility back to him in the end .... I think one of the most important things to establish, then, is a relationship based on me and him rather than on manager and consultant."

The emphasis on a non-directive third party role is something which was raised on several occasions by the change agent group. This was usually combined, as it was in this response, with an emphasis on the valuation of the person as such and a relative denial of the role relationships involved. Again, this was very much in agreement with the dominant ideology of the change agent group.

The final section of the personal issues covering the major personal forces hindering and helping the job produced some of the most interesting data. The maintenance group found this a particularly difficult part of the schedule to answer. Some said that it was not relevant although one went into some considerable detail with regard to his self-perceptions describing himself as

"a bit of a muddler. I don't delegate enough, I delve into detail rather than looking at things in the round".

On the helping side he thought that he was good at listening or

"at least appearing to be a good listener".

The responses of the change agent group were extremely interesting.
All seemed to reflect an insight into personal characteristics and
a willingness to share that data immediately. With regard to
content, the detail was surprisingly consensed. All respondents
reported having a life history of finding relating interpersonally
a very difficult and for some extremely painful business. This was
highlighted for some in an over identification with others which led
to situations involving the telling of "bad news" being very painful.
Several reported an almost crippling shyness as a major feature of
their internal experience when relating to others.

"One thing I am aware of is shyness. I tend to be a shy

person with strangers that I don't know. I don't find it

easy always to go into strange situations. I tend to be

overly self-critical so they tell me."

And again from another respondent,

"On the minus side probably my biggest hindering factor is

that I am too quiet, not particularly forceful, aggressive,

not a particularly good salesman in terms of selling myself.

I think that can be a tremendous advantage in a job like

this because you are selling yourself as much as the skills

you have got. I find that difficult".

One respondent mentioned conflictual situations specifically.

"I am not good at confronting, I am not good at telling

people or getting people to think that they are making

mistakes. I am not good at saying unpleasant things.

When I have done .... it hasn't seemed very threatening,

but I find it's a difficult thing for me to do personally.

I shy away from it. I withdraw, I avoid it rather than

"come out with the resentment, the hostility or criticism

or whatever."

This respondent went further in his personal analysis.

"Another thing is .... (that) I am no good at getting

involved; through school, through university, through my

research, it has been an independent thing with very strong

needs to win, strong needs to be independent, to do things

on my own, and to do things on my own better than anyone else.

Very strong forces and they still work, still well equipped

.... I have tended to be still independent in this job.

I don't find it easy to cope with the dynamics of being

involved, so I tend to stay just a wee bit aloof and

detached. That, I think, hinders my effectiveness but

that is a deep thing and though I have made some small

progress towards conquering that, I haven't worked it

through by any means."

This respondent asked for other dimensions on which other

respondents had spoken and was prompted by "shyness and aggressive-

ness". However, in response he returned to the two dimensions on

which he had just spoken which obviously possessed considerable

potency for him.

"I think these are the main things; confrontation, that is

to do with being aggressive and being strong and being able

to cope with my own hostility and with hostile actions from

other people. Anyway I am not good in that area (and) the

involvement - distance thing. Maybe these are the main two

I think, involvement and hostility."

The final respondent seemed to embody most of the issues

raised so far.

"I think the thing that hinders me from achieving my own ends,

I find that increasingly with time a tendency for things to

"fragment in my vision. There was a time, and I am sure there is with most children, where one could see things in very nice clear cut single issues. Nowadays my thoughts and thinking processes have got so difficult .... that at times it makes me very indecisive and that even if something happens which shows you the situation .... I lose the sense of purpose which was driving me particularly toward one end .... No sooner does something seem to crystallise into some little, almost certainty in my mind, than a whole lot of things .... it just sort of explodes and fragments into lots of things and I no longer see it as clearly. As for me I also find that I get very involved in a way a sociologist shouldn't .... But I always did find it very terrible in the personnel department to do the hard things of personnel work, the sacking of people and things of this kind. I find that I get very involved with the people I am dealing with .... I sometimes feel myself in an awful state of agony because I know that as a professional organisation development person I have got to take a particular line and I can see it hurting someone terribly .... I think one of my main difficulties is that I have always been and am still very shy. I find it hell to meet new people, just awful .... I really only come into my own when I know that I am loved and cherished and have got a warm nest from which to start action."

This was a surprisingly condensed set of issues from a group of professional practising social scientists and provided interesting and very useful data for further research as the issues were so common and seemed to possess such relevance for this group.

c) Ideal self

Most of the maintenance group tended to respond by concentrating on personal qualities to meet the more formal requirement of the role. Two mentioned that their ideal role occupant

would be a better organiser than they were. Two others were
concerned with the educational requirement necessary to run
training courses with particular emphasis on the value of the
generalist. In terms of skills and activities two respondents
mentioned an increased ability to take risks by going along to
line managers and defining areas for training. For one
respondent this was related to psychological qualities.

"He would have to be a better organiser than me. I think
he would have to be a bit tougher than me, tougher with
people. I think he would have to be more interested in
the economics of the situation because there is a question
of pay-off."

He reiterated the quality of tough mindedness at a later
point.

"I think he would spend more time going out and making
conscious contact with people not waiting for them to come
to him. I think he would be a lot tougher in brushing
people off."

This respondent also related his inability to sell his skills
to others who were more "cynical". He had a feeling that this was
"maybe to do with a feeling of insecurity or fear" but he felt that
he had "not been able to analyse that one".

This type of personalised response is reported because it was
an unusual response in a pattern which tended to avoid personal
detail and self-analysis. This was not true of the change agent
group. One respondent made a distinction between the personal
psychological characteristics and the formal requirements for
effective role performance. Most of the other respondents
followed this pattern either overtly or by inference. With regard
to the formal characteristics, all respondents who mentioned this

saw the ideal role occupant as a behavioural science specialist rather than a training generalist. However, in all cases, most of the responses emphasised the psychological characteristics. A number of personal qualities were mentioned. Everyone put a high price on acceptability to clients. As one respondent put it:

"He would have to be very non-threatening, in this division people are very sensitive to threat .... just have to be good at being friendly with people, and good at just chatting along a lot of non-work issues".

This was related to the emphasis placed on sensitivity.

"It seems to me that a body that is involved in organisation development must above all be sensitive. You have got to have a very strong feeling for people .... must be sensitive to people to be able to pick up the signals that people are giving out and must have a strong empathy toward people."

It was this sensitivity and ability to listen that was related several times to what can only be termed as "underdog" (Perls, 1969) feelings which were generated in the respondent.

"I think the ideal person should be more confident and have more self discipline qualities than I have. I have got such a short supply of self discipline and self push that I feel that I am easily downcast .... so the ideal person would be more of a get-up-and-go person, more confident than I am."

Another respondent said,

"I think he has got to be optimistic in the sense that he believes that things can be improved. He has to be someone who can put up with making a lot of enemies quickly. He has to be prepared to stick his neck out in the sense that

"he is not going to be liked by everybody all the time,

he is not going to be top of the popularity polls".

A third respondent talked about the same issue but couched

it in different terms when discussing activities and skills which

the ideal role occupant would perform.

".... I sometimes wonder if a woman would not be better in

this job .... A woman might be less of a threat. She might

not be seen as competing for their careers. Also because

some of the skills in consultancy tend to come from what you

might call the feminine end of the conventional continuum.

Most of the attributes which are conventionally masculine

are hopeless for this job, and some of the things which are

conventionally feminine are very good. I am sure that other

things being equal, probably women stand a slight edge over

men doing the job."

Yet another respondent highlighted the conflictual demands

of the job.

".... yes we have to deal with the organisation in the here

and now, and a chemical factory is no place at all for a tender

flower, so this is a hard thing to find, a person who is

very highly sensitive yet cannot be bruised by the, I wouldn't

use the word jungle, but you probably know what I mean ....

but a factory is not an academic growth and you have to be

reasonably practical and tough-minded to survive .... but

it's asking a hell of a lot for someone to be tough-minded

and yet be sensitive enough not to misread or ignore signals

and that demands quite something."

All of these responses suggested the existence of some

exceptional psychological characteristic or set of characteristics

of which the respondents were only partially aware. This seemed

to be centred on the ability to cope with underdog, submissive
or depressive feelings, conceptualised by one respondent as
conventionally feminine traits.

Summary and Conclusions

This section of the research has investigated some of the
major personal differences in the change agent group and the
maintenance group. The assumptions made concerned the ideals
to which both groups were trying to direct their organisation,
the content of the ideology being thought originally to be an
important motivating force in influencing action in organisations.
Whilst there were some important congruencies in the ideology of
the change agents, notably focussing on the "organic" end of the
Burns and Stalker (1961) continuum, a major difference between the
change and maintenance group was the ability of the former to express
strongly held ideals which appeared central in their work behaviour
and for some seemed to be central to their life in general. By
way of contrast the maintenance group appeared to have a much more
pragmatic view of organisational activities and tended not to share
the normative approach characteristic of the change group. This
insight into what may be termed a "tendency and ability to idealise",
which affects thinking and reported behaviours as opposed to some
common characteristic distinguishing the groups in terms of the
"content" of their ideals represents an important change in
direction in the study of this area. This was coupled with the
heavy emphasis on what may be broadly termed humanistic values
seemed to be an important factor motivating the behaviour of the
change agent group. The specific dimensions of conflict manage-
ment, leadership, decision-making and power/authority relations
as well as communication patterns tended to reflect a situation

where the needs of the social system were seen to be paramount in organisational life. Although some passing mention was paid to other organisational systems the responses reflected an emphasis on the satisfaction of the social system above all else.

Two other important generalisations may be summarised from the interviews. Firstly the responses concerning personal hindering forces produced some consensus within the change agent group. They were very open to their negative feelings regarding the formation of relationships and in some cases this reflected what was felt to be a lifelong pattern of relationship difficulties. Respondents tended to be unaware of the source of these problems which were manifest in new situations or conflictual situations both of which were reported to cause tension and/or anxiety and were often coped with by the respondent in terms of a "shyness". Secondly, data concerning self-image questions showed distinct similarities. Here it reflected an emphasis on "underdog" feelings or "conventionally feminine traits". This would seem to suggest essentially depressive personality characteristics.

These latter two points were important in suggesting possible fruitful areas of research but it seemed important at this stage to consolidate the earlier issues arising from interviews and their analysis. The normative emphasis, both in terms of form and content suggested the change agent group to be a pressure group inside organisations attempting to achieve certain goals which were sometimes disguised behind a mask of "acceptable" words (organisational effectiveness, increased profits, corporate excellence). In fact, although the researcher had begun by conceiving of the study as that concerned with the motivations of behavioural science practitioners, it was at this stage that the realisation was made (this being affected not only by the

professional aspects of the research but also by certain personal

experiences) that this group could be conceived of in the same

terms as priests, militants, radicals, revolutionaries, etc., and

perhaps organisation development as their activity could be viewed

as a social movement.   If this were true then the research on the

psychodynamics of those involved in social movements may help in

understanding the psychodynamics of organisation development

consultants.

Organisation Development as a Social Movement

Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to review briefly some definitions of the concept of social movement and produce a broad definition. Organisation development is related to this definition and the literature concerning the motivational characteristics of members of social movements is then reviewed. This latter section, in the light of the broad definition produced earlier, will take the form of discussing approaches to studies of radicalism and authoritarianism and field studies of radicals and change agents. It will end with a note on the major hypotheses stemming from this review.

Social movements

It is my intention to accept a broad definition of social movement as I am interested primarily in the motivations of individual members. These may contain similar clues to their characteristics no matter what the political belief of the group in question or the strength of activism. Thus, in this chapter I review literature and accept findings from groups as diverse as the international socialists, student radicals, nationalist and neo-fascist groups, pressure groups and ideological groups, millenial, utopian or religious groups. This is very much in line with Herberle's (1968) definition of social movement.

> "(social movement) .... is being used to denote a wide
> variety of collective attempts to bring about a change
> in certain social institutions or to create an entirely
> new order." (p.438.)

He goes on to suggest that although the term is used in distinction from religious or political movement, and from other groups in society such as women's movements or youth groups,

"As all of these movements occur in society and tend to affect, directly or indirectly, the social order, it would be permissible to apply the term social movement to all of them" (p.439).

This is in some slight contradiction to his earlier (1951) writings in which he is at pains to distinguish between trends, tendencies, pressure groups, parties and social movements. There does, however, seem to be a trend in the literature toward supporting his later position. Wilkinson (1971) recognises the diversity of views on the area and iterates five

"difficulties encountered in the social movement concept .... the problem of generality, dangers of ambiguity, problems of reification, problems of the 'type' concept, and problems of comparison". (p.15.)

In reviewing the literature, Wilkinson highlights the fact that

"Even within disciplines there is no consensus as to how these difficulties may be overcome. Sociologists, social anthropologists and political scientists have of necessity improvised their own attempt at conceptual definition, often disagreeing among themselves", (p.20).

Nevertheless, in spite of the difficulties, he does develop

"a general working concept which is of interdisciplinary applicability". (p.26.)

This concept contains three main characteristics all of which need to be present as a precondition of social movement. The three characteristics are as follows:-

i) "A deliberate collective endeavour to promote change
in any direction and by any means not excluding violence,
illegality, revolution or withdrawal into utopian community.
Social movements are thus clearly different from historical
movements.

ii) "A social movement must evince a minimal degree of
organisation though this may range from a loose, informal
or partial level of organisation to the highly institution-
alised and bureaucratized movement and the corporate group.

iii) "A social movement's commitment to change, and the
raison d'être of its organisation, are founded upon the
conscious volition, normative commitment to the movement's
aims or beliefs, and active participation of the followers
or members." (p.27.)

This particular characterisation of social movement in terms
of volition and normative commitment is endorsed by something
approaching a consensus among leading scholars in this field.
Herberle, for example, conceives of these belief systems as an
expression of the collective will of the people among whom they
are accepted. He is emphatic that it is this element of volition
that makes beliefs socially effective.

"It is the conscious volition of individuals acting collectively
that brings about the embodiment of ideologies in social
movements." (Herberle, 1968, p.441.)

This latter characterisation is an important aspect of social
movements. The shared normative goals of the true social movement
may serve to distinguish it from many political parties in which
agreement on values is accepted by participants sometimes at only
the most general of levels. In another way, the normative frame
distinguishes social movements from pressure groups which may exist

as a counterdependent force designed to achieve certain limited
objectives rather than replace the existing order with a new set
of norms. This latter point concerning the commitment to
changing the existing culture with a view to imposing a new set
of norms and standards is taken up by Wallace (1956) who produces
a new concept of "revitalization movement" which is designed as
an overview concept to cover such concepts as "nativistic movement",
"reform movement", "cargo cult", "religious revival", "messianic
movement", "social movement", "revolution", "charismatic movement",
all of which have been chosen, according to Wallace, by the

"discipline and theoretical orientation of the researcher".
He suggests that all of these phenomena have as a major central
theme that of "culture change" and are characterised by a uniform
process which he terms "revitalization". Thus a revitalization
movement is defined as a

> "deliberate, organised, conscious effort by members of a
> society to construct a more satisfying culture. Revitalisa-
> tion is thus, from a cultural standpoint, a special kind of
> culture change phenomenon: the persons involved in the
> process of revitalization must perceive their culture, or
> some areas of it, as a system; they must feel that this
> cultural system is unsatisfactory; and they must innovate
> not in discrete terms, but a new cultural system, specifying
> new relationships as well as, in some cases, new traits", (p.265).

He goes on to elucidate this final point that revitalization
constitutes a major and immediate change in cultures, "a new
gestalt", whereas the classic view of culture change is one of
gradual evolution over a long period of years. This sudden shift
is the aim of the revitalization movement and is brought about by
the "deliberate intent of members" in stark contrast to "the classic

process of culture change" (evolution, drift, diffusion, historical change, acculturation) which relies on a gradual chain reaction effect.

The writers reviewed so far seem to emphasise three major points concerning the characteristics of social movements:-

i) They comprise a group of individuals concerned to change the existing social order or social institutions.

ii) This change is in accord with a particular set of normative goals. It is a change based on a value choice, rather than on an empirical scientific diagnosis.

iii) The normative goals are common and shared among believers.

This constitutes the broad working definition of social movement which I intend to use in the next section which will go on to analyse organisation development in the light of these ideas.

Organisation development as a social movement

It is not my intention here to argue that organisation development can be considered a social movement of the same order as those described by writers such as Wallace (1956), Worsley (1957), Kohn (1945), Cohn (1957), or more recently Carmichael and Hamilton (1968). The arena of organisation development is much more limited than that of the studies reported above, being concerned with changing the organisations in which we live and work rather than the wider society as a whole. Nevertheless, there are similarities in that changes in work organisation will have impact upon the wider society just as the external environment affects work practice. Rather in this section it is my intention to examine the phenomenon of organisation development from a social movement perspective. In other words I am concerned with the question, to what extent does organisation development manifest the characteristics of a social movement?

I will thus examine the theories and research on the characteristics of those members of social movements in the belief that similar dynamics may be at work in the case of organisation development consultants.

A major problem at this stage is to define organisation development. It is not proposed to address this issue immediately but to explore the extent of normative approaches to organisation development, reviewing them against the characteristics of social movements outlined earlier. A discussion will follow concerning other approaches to organisation development.

1) A group concerned with changing the existing social order or social institutions

There is a great deal of agreement in the literature that this criterion is true in the case of organisation development. Thakur (1974) reviews fifteen definitions of organisation development, all of which mention either directly or by inference the changing, development, or growth, of the existing organisation. Other definitions contain similar references. Peter Friederich et al (1970) identified five characteristics of organisation development, two of which suggested improving organisational effectiveness by changing the total organisation. Bowers (1972) in defining development suggests that the use of the term

"seems to imply making something gradually larger or stronger" (p.4) and that this is the process of organisation development, to change the existing ways of working to make the organisation

"larger or stronger".

French and Bell (1973) also speak of

"a long range effort to improve an organisation's problem-solving and renewal processes .... with assistance of a change agent or catalyst". (p.15.)

Margulies and Raia (1972) can be seen also to emphasise the change aspect of organisation development when they suggest that

"practising managers and students of management are currently besieged with ideas and techniques for improving an organisations effectiveness and its ability to cope with change. The emerging body of concepts, tools and techniques is now commonly called organisation development". (p.2)

Ganesh (1976) also takes as working definitions those of Beckhard (1969) and French and Bell (1973). There would seem to be widespread agreement that organisation development is concerned with changing the existing social order and/or structure of organisations thereby bringing about changes to the total institution. It is probably true to say that in terms of orientations to organisation development, few are concerned to discuss notions of stability or organisational needs for maintenance and certainty.

ii) The change is based on a set of normative goals

Beckhard (1969) lists a number of values which are "changing dramatically as the human condition improves". He goes on

"let me list a few that I believe are relatively universal today and have great implications for managerial strategy". (p.6.)

Following this he lists a set of broadly humanistic values relating to the nature of the individual - organisational relationship. Each of these is overtly prescriptive (all are phrased using imperatives) and hence has implications for the ideal organisation. Tannenbaum and Davis (1967) go even further listing a series of values which they suggest reflect environmental changes but which nevertheless they want to -

"own (and) state them openly. They are not scientifically

derived, nor are they new, but they are compatible with

certain findings emerging in the behavioural sciences". (p.62.)

The writers do not go on to elucidate what these findings are

but go on to justify their view using examples of work practice

from certain selected organisations. The limitations of

contradictory evidence or experience are neither explored nor

quoted. Bennis (1970) does not speak of organisation development

as a social movement, but refers to Argyris' critique of bureau-

cratic organisation and ends by discussing a series of change

agent characteristics which suggest

"six normative goals .... derived from the social

philosophy outlined in the preceding section" (p.13).

Again these reflect the emphasis on certain humanistic aspects of

the social system. Margulies and Raia (1972) provide a similar

list of values which

"exerts a powerful influence on the process and technology

for developing more fully functioning organisations"

and which is

"extremely important ... (in) providing the guidelines

for what will be undertaken in an organisation development

effort and how the programme will evolve and be sustained" (p.73).

French and Bell (1973) devote a whole chapter to the discussion of

values and conclude that

"organisation development activities rest on a number of

assumptions about people as individuals, in groups and

in total systems .... and about values. (Moreover) these

assumptions and values held by change agents need to be

made explicit both for enhancing working relationships with

clients and for continuous testing". (p.73.)

The National Training Laboratories   (French & Hellreigel, 1971,

p.354) quotes a list of objectives of an organisation development

project which are little more than a set of value based prescriptions

for ideal end states.

All of this would suggest that the practice of organisation

development takes place from a base which is strongly influenced

by the normative positions of the practitioners and writers.   To

this end one may suggest that such an approach produces interven-

tions emphasising end states rather than diagnoses.   We may also

expect criteria of success to be based more in terms of how closely

the end approximates to the ideal values rather than on a more

objective evaluation.

iii) The normative goals are common and shared among believers

Bennis (1970) suggests that change agents share

"a social philosophy, a set of values about the world in

general and human organisation in particular which shape

their strategies, determine their interventions and

largely govern their responses to client systems". (p.13.)

He is not alone in suggesting that organisation development

practitioners share a common set of normative goals.   Porter,

Lawler and Hackman (1975) list seven values which

"appear to be some of the more typical and important values

that underlie the goals for organisation development". (p.486.)

They go on to list values which they claim are a

"distillation of the views of a number of the more

important and influential writers on organisation

development including Argyris, McGregor, Likert, Bennis,

Schein, Tannenbaum, Davis and others". (p.486.)

Jennings Partin (1973) also mentions the shared nature of the

values which he describes as -

"generally intended to humanize the organisation,

emphasising openness, collaboration, and seeing value

in constructive conflict" (p.14).

French and Bell (1973) devote a whole chapter to discussion of

underlying assumptions and values, and begin it by discussing

"some of the basic assumptions of organisation development

efforts .. (which) .. in general are congruent with the

theories of McGregor, Likert, Argyris, Bennis, Schein,

Maslow, and Herzberg" (p.65).

Whilst recognising certain idiosyncratic differences they conclude

that

"organisation development consultants tend to subscribe

to a comparable set of values" (p.71).

A summary similar to this has been produced by the author

(appendix 17) and the implications of the content and direction

of the shared value systems will be discussed later. Whilst

there are individual differences within each of the value

statements, the most striking feature is their similarity. All

emphasise similar aspects of organisational life, namely, the

social system. Within that area, the values expressed are

basically humanistic, valuing the worth of the individual as

opposed to the organisation. It is surprising that only two of

the authors referred to increasing organisational effectiveness

as a value of organisation development consultants. Shared values

(by three or more of the authors) were increased autonomy,

actualisation opportunities, expression of feeling and trust and

risk-taking. At an organisational level, a decrease in competi-

tion, power tactics and an increase in collaboration and meaningful

work were valued. One may summarise the statements involved as -

emphasising the	individual	as opposed to the	organisation
" "	social system	" " " "	other systems
"	authenticity/wholeness	" " " "	formal roles
"	collaboration	" " " "	competition
"	trust/risk-taking	" " " "	power politics
"	organic systems	" " " "	bureaucracy
"	participation	" " " "	autocracy

Thus, there is considerable evidence that values are shared
among writers on organisation development. Not only do common
value statements tend to arise but also the same writers are
referenced. When writers come together under a broadly common
approach such as this normative approach to organisation develop-
ment, then one can rightly refer to a school. The influence of
this school of writers on organisation development activities in
Britain is considerable. It is important, however, to recognise
other contributions and alternative approaches in order not to
overstate the case and assume undifferentiated approaches where
several exist.

The extent of normative approaches to organisation development

Whilst sociologists would no doubt argue the idiosyncratic
nature of the organisation development movement as opposed to social
movements in general, one may argue, nevertheless, that the three
criteria drawn from the discussion on social movements have been
broadly fulfilled. At least, this can be considered to be so with
regard to the purpose of this discussion which is to explore
similarities between organisation development in particular and
social movements in general with a view to considering membership
characteristics of the former in the light of theories and research
on membership characteristics of the latter. Before going on to

do this it is important to mention the limitations of the implicit definition of organisation development which has been developed.

The discussion has centred on those who have referred to themselves in their writings as practising organisation development. There are others, however, who, sometimes explicitly and sometimes implicitly, can be seen to be concerned with changing the internal functioning of organisations, with a view to increasing its effectiveness. In other words they can be seen to be developing organisations in the more general sense, but do not always see themselves as working in organisation development. The identification of this group or groups is important in terms of definition and as such has implications for the rest of the thesis. Moreover, for the purposes of this discussion, such para-organisation development groups will be included only if they emphasise social system change primarily. This excludes others concerned with technical or systems changes in organisations such as operations researchers, management services and computer specialists.

A different approach to the development of organisations from the normative approach described so far is that which emphasises intervention on the basis of a sound scientific diagnosis. As such the values of science are emphasised as opposed to the values containable in an end-state. This approach, which emphasises intervention developed idiosyncratically on the basis of diagnosis rather than emphasising intervention at the expense of diagnosis can be seen in the work of a number of writers. The contingency theorists, as a school, tend to adopt this methodology. This can be seen in the work of Perrow (1970), and Burns and Stalker (1961), each of whom have produced a diagnostic framework rather than a total set of values. Depending on the state of the system under discussion, particularly in relation to its environment, different

values will be appropriate for effective working. A second school which is noticeably different from the normative school above is the socio-technical systems theorists of the Tavistock Institute. Here the emphasis is again on idiosyncratic diagnosis and intervention designed later in the process, the aim being, as is amply demonstrated in Trist and Bamforth (1948), Rice (1963) and Trist (1963) to produce a "best-fit" between social and technical systems with their limiting conditions rather than some ideal end state reflecting a preconceived value system.

Certain other approaches also are important in relating organisation development to the wider field. Firstly the contribution of the management theorists has produced some ideas which have been incorporated into organisation development, particularly when allied to the predominant value system. For example, Drucker's (1964) ideas on management by objectives can be said to have been accepted as part of organisation development technology.

The contribution of the organisation psychologists is another important and related area. Again, certain ideas and theorists, notably those with a facility for fitting into the dominant value system, have been accepted into organisation development. Good examples of this are Maslow (1954, 1965, 1968) with his ideas on self-actualisation and eupsychia, Herzberg (1967, 1968) and his emphasis on job enrichment as an intervention and Argyris (1964 a and b) with his ideas on integrating the individual and the organisation. Usually, references to theories based on different models and assumptions concerning the nature of man find less ready acceptance. For example, it is rare to read accounts of Skinnerian conditioning in the organisation development literature, yet this level of analysis is as valid as any other. The value

base of organisation development can be seen to provide a screen filtering information from the behavioural sciences which has the effect of reducing negative feedback and adaption.   Goodge (1975) has developed the argument concerning this kind of system coding and its effect on the practice of organisation development.

Thus we can see from the above that the normative strategy outlined earlier is but one strategy designed to change organisations. Others have separate and distinct approaches yet they are related to organisation development and in some cases these relationships are hazy and ill-defined, the problem often being resolved by the implicit assumptions of the individual practitioner or writer. It is the assumption of this thesis that the extent of normative organisation development both in the literature and in practice is such to define the area from those related disciplines, some of which would not regard themselves as working in organisation development (management, theory, socio-technical theorists, contingency theorists) and others who would not be acceptable to those working in organisation development.   From this point organisation development will be used to denote a set of normative - re-educative methodologies designed to bring about certain changes primarily in the social system functioning of organisations.   Having outlined and defined organisation development in relation to social movements, it is now possible to go on and review some studies of those who join such movements.

The characteristics of members of social movements

The section will be divided into five sub-sections.   Firstly there will be a brief note on the problems of studying the motivational characteristics of individuals.   The intrinsic-extrinsic dimension is noted and related to psychological and sociological

approaches. All of these variables are important in the subsequent analysis. Secondly there is a review of membership characteristics, both structural and personal. Thirdly a review of some descriptive studies of those who join, and fourthly a review of some psycho-dynamic approaches. The penultimate section contains a review of several important studies of change agents. The aim of these four sections is to summarise work which has been done and has a direct bearing on the current research. The section is completed by a short discussion of direction for the research and a statement of the major hypotheses which can be culled from the above studies.

A) The motivational characteristics of members

The study of motivation is a complex problem and the motivation of those who join social movements is no less complex than the study of others. Motivation can be defined as "what induces a person to act" (Concise Oxford Dictionary) and broadly speaking, two quite distinct perspectives can be taken to the subject. The first is essentially a sociological view which can be termed the structural approach. Such a view of motivation suggests that the prime forces in inducing acts are essentially contained within the social environment in which the individual finds himself. Thus, in order to understand human action one must analyse and understand the broader structures of society (dominant norms, values, reference groups, significant others, social roles, etc.) which impact on the focal person. It is only by so doing that one is able fully to understand the significance of the individual act.

A second approach which is essentially a psychological approach, but which has distinct connections with the social action theorists such as Silverman (1970) and Goffman (1969, 1975), stresses the importance of the meaning and significance of each act to the

individual quite apart from environmental structures. Here, stress is laid on the personal satisfactions gained by action. Hence the forces which must be understood to comprehend individual motivation are contained within the individual rather than in his surrounding environment.

Whilst it is broadly possible to suggest the essentials of these two approaches as being sociological and psychological this is not, of course, entirely true. Already reference has been made to differences within sociology between the structuralist and interactionist schools. Within psychology one is able to see the same division which is summarised well by Allport (1955) when he speaks of Lockean and Liebnitzian approaches to the study of personality. My aim here is not to explore these theoretical notions in great depth, but to highlight this basic difference in approaches, one emphasising the importance of "outside the individual" variables and the other "inside the individual variables".

One final point is the conceptual rather than real division between these two approaches. Several of the studies to be reported make this point that both approaches can give insights, but a true understanding of the motivation of social movers (or anyone else for that matter) probably lies in the reinforcements and the interplay of one set of variables with another. For example, any individual is probably attracted to any particular profession because he knows, or believes, that he will satisfy some of his internal needs through the professional experiences offered. Nonetheless, as a recruit into that profession he will undergo certain socialisation processes in which he will substitute or add to his original set of needs and hence behaviours (actions). At this point, it becomes extremely difficult to understand his

motives or other manifest professional characteristics.   On the one

hand, one could say that he behaves the way he does because he is

satisfying personal needs and on the other because he has a role

in a professional sub-group with certain norms and expectations

which are an important reference group for him.   Both explanations

would probably have partial validity, and neither provides a complete

answer.   The way the individual uses and is used by society is an

important question in the social sciences particularly in relation

to the concept of change.   This dimension is an important one both

in terms of research on those who join social movements and also

as an important methodological consideration later in the thesis.

Whilst this thesis is concerned with the characteristics of

organisation development consultants and adopts an approach

emphasising internal variables their relationship to external

factors such as professional norms, organisational variables and

client expectations is readily accepted.

B) A review of some studies of membership characteristics

i) Structural characteristics

A number of writers have considered the individual in the

context of the social movement, but placing emphasis on the primary

importance of the structural effects on his behaviour.   Rosen (1967)

has amply outlined the relationship between changes in the

"social and moral framework"

of the wider society which cause

"periods extensively characterised by anxiety-periods

in which the consciousness of many people, and even more

so their sub-consciousness, is haunted in varying degree

by fear and worry, by loneliness and apathy, and by

frustration, resentment and aggression" (p.771).

He sees these external changes as solely responsible for certain
disturbing internal responses which lead the individuals involved
into the erection of relief giving social structures such as social
movements, particularly religious and millenial movements.
Cohn (1957) provides a similar historical analysis focussing mainly
on France and Germany in the mediaeval and reformation periods;
Worsley (1957) writes in similar vein about the "cargo cults" and
related millenial phenomena in Melanesia. Talmon (1962) reviews
a number of studies on social movements including Cohn (1957),
Worsley (1957, 1961) and Hobsbawm (1959), but focusses almost
exclusively on the wider implications of movements, particularly
the relationship between religious and political change. Hofstadter
(1969) also speaks of the relationship between the religious and
political spheres in discussing the paranoid style in American
politics.

> "The apocalypticism of the paranoid style runs dangerously
> near to hopeless pessimism but usually stops short of it.
> Apocalyptic warnings arouse passion and militancy, and
> strike at susceptibility to similar themes in Christianity.
> Properly expressed, such warnings serve somewhat the same
> function as a description of the horrible consequences of
> sin in a revivalist sermon: they portray that which impends
> but which may still be avoided" (p.110).

Whilst emphasising the personal characteristics of this style,
Hofstadter concludes with a similar view to that of Rosen,

> ".... the fact that movements employing the paranoid
> style are not constant but come in successive, episodic
> waves suggests that the paranoid disposition is mobilised
> into action chiefly by social conflicts that involve
> ultimate schemes of values and that bring fundamental

"fears and hatreds, rather than negotiable interests,

into political action" (p.117).

Lofland and Stark (1969) also recognise the importance of structural

variables in the conversion process, but suggest that an equally, if

not more, potent set of variables are what they describe as

"situational contingencies". These are factors which

"arise from confrontation and interaction between the

potential convert and the .... members. Many persons

who qualified on the basis of predisposing factors enter

inter-personal relations with members, but because the

proper situational conditions were not met, they did not

become converts" (p.162).

Thus in terms of environmental pressures, existential as well as

historical pressures can be seen to be important in defining the

individual act of joining.

Whilst the main focus of this thesis will concentrate on the

more personal characteristics of organisation development consult-

ants, and hence on their internal motives and characteristics, the

above work demonstrates the importance of seeing this in a wider

perspective. Generally speaking, movements of social change can

be seen as expressions of religious significance within the wider

society and are often forerunners of political change. Indeed,

Back (1973) has already applied this type of analysis to the

encounter group movement whilst Krausz (1975) has extended his

ideas to include organisation development and quotes Harvey's (1974)

amusing article in which he considers organisation development as

a religious movement. That the wider changes, pressures and

conflicts in society provide a background, rationale and legitimacy

for the existence of any particular movement at any particular time

does not seem in doubt. Indeed Schon (1971) uses the images of

insurgency and invasion to describe the kinds of intervention
processes involved in this essentially missionary approach to
change.   He recognises the

"shared common roots in religion" (p.58)

and outlines seven kinds of change roles commonly found in
different types of organisation.   Whilst he does not explore the
personal characteristics of those who adopt such roles he does
state that

"All of these roles put the individual at risk.   He

must engage an essentially alien culture and leave

himself vulnerable to punishment for disrupting

established power.   All of these roles make enormous

demands on the person.   They subject him to stresses

he is able to meet only through a missionary stance"

(p.58).

This aspect of cultural pressures and approaches to change is a
well developed and researched area, but as McCormick (1969) points
out, it is the motivation of those who participate in such movements
which is the most neglected.   In the next section I shall discuss
not only some approaches and studies of the characteristics of those
who join social movements, but also include discussion from approaches
and studies from other related fields.   Thus, although the major
argument in this chapter has been to relate organisation development
to social movements, it is accepted that other theoretical areas
may have contributions to make to the study of a group involved in
social change.

ii) Personal characteristics of those who join social movements
     and findings from related fields

The studies of personal characteristics will be divided into
a number of areas to reduce the size and complexity of the field.

Early research (see ii)a) concentrated on the taxonomy of radical and conservative temperaments but this gave way later to other empirically derived concepts centring on Adorno's (1950) concept of "authoritarianism". The following discussion will contain sections on both of these perspectives to give both background and to assess the contribution to the area of those involved in social movements. Following this is a discussion of some of the descriptive studies which have been carried out on the joiners of social movements and student radicals who, whilst having real differences as a population, can be seen to be attempting as groups to introduce social change following a particular set of normative goals which are common and shared within the group. It is not my intention to argue that student radicals can be seen as part of a wider social movement, but similarities of purpose suggest that there is enough commonality to seach this area for ideas on the characteristics of those who join. A further approach to the study of the characteristics of those who join has been through a study of their psychodynamics and this will be included as a separate section. Finally, a section will be included concerning research undertaken on change agents and organisation development consultants. Whilst not specifically in the area of social movements, findings in this area are sufficiently relevant and the groups studied so closely related to the original broad definition of social movement to be included here as a separate section.

ii)a. Early studies of radicalism and conservatism

Some of the early work in the area was done in the 1920's and was concerned with investigating the possibility of a generalised personality pattern which could be seen specifically in liberal economic attitudes. Allport (1929) in a survey of students found evidence of such generalisable patterns. Moore (1925) divided

two student populations into what he termed "radical" and "conservative" temperaments. However, although both of these studies have provided the theoretical basis for the study of radical personality types, some of the evidence is contradictory. Moore's study failed to be replicated by Washburn, et al, (1927), and Reed (1927) found that only 30% of a group of over two hundred and fifty trade unionists and students were consistent in their attitudes across a whole range of issues. He did find, however, that extreme radicals were more consistent than conservatives. These conflicting findings have never been resolved and whether radicalism is a trait or syndrome is still an open question in this field.

ii)b. Studies of authoritarianism

Another group of studies, some undertaken in the 1920's, have related the problem to what has been termed authoritarianism and radicalism, (Adorno, et al, 1950). Adorno, et al, related political and economic conservatism to neurotic authoritarianism as measured by the F-scale. This has since been widely criticised by those such as Shils (1954) who suggests a blindness of the authors to authoritarianism of both the right and left and Rokeach (1956, 1960) who suggested that there was something wrong with the F-scale itself insofar as it could only measure right-wing authoritarianism. He developed subsequently a dogmatism scale which he claimed was politically neutral. In actual fact, as Bay (1967) points out, Rokeach's real contribution was to show that the F-scale did not, whilst the dogmatism scale did, correlate with vehemence, be that of the right or the left. Leavitt, et al, (1955) has made slightly different criticisms and tested the positively worded F-scale by re-phrasing half the items negatively. They conclude   –

"that authoritarian people, as measured by the scale

agree more with authoritative statements, and that

therefore a portion of the discriminatory power of the

F-scale derives from its form rather than its content" (p.221).

A welter of other scales have been produced in the area. Apart

from Rokeach's dogmatism, Sullivan and Adelson (1954) suggested

misanthrope as the more basic concept, Campbell and McCandless (1951)

xenophobia, Guba and Getzels (1954) suggestibility, Cohn (1953)

acquiescence, and Bass (1955) the G-scale with which he showed that

response set to acquiesce was the factor accounting largely for the

positive relations between the other scales mentioned above rather

than the content factor of authoritarianism. All of these findings

from psychology suggest a movement away from focussing on the content

of the attitude and toward emphasising the importance of the form.

In terms of research on radicals this has been a long-standing area

of importance.

McCormack (1969) points out that as far back as 1925, long

before the debate on authoritarianism, Alport and Hartman (1925)

in studying student opinion concluded that there were more

similarities between "reactionaries" and "radicals" than there were

between either of these two groups and the "middle of the roaders"

in terms of their attitudes toward established conventions, parents

and sex. Neither Rinaldo (1921) nor Lasswell (1930) distinguish

between right or left in their studies of "reformers" and "agitators"

respectively. Both emphasise the deeper motivation behind the

more superficial characteristics. More recently Lange (1976)

compared two groups, one with an authoritarian and one with a

humanistic ideology. His early analysis suggested authoritarian

personalities would

"usually identify themselves more strongly with the groups

"to which they belong, whatever their nature or ideology"

(his marginality theory, p.259).

Later analysis showed, however, that content was important and

authoritarians would participate more in groups with an ideology

"that offers security" (p.261).

This finding again raises the question of the form of the ideology

being as significant a variable as the content.   On the other

hand, McClosky (1958) in a huge survey of 2,000 respondents found

that

> "In the four liberal-conservative classifications, the
>
> extreme conservatives are easily the most hostile,
>
> suspicious, rigid, compulsive, the quickest to condemn
>
> others for their imperfections and weaknesses, the most
>
> intolerant and the most inflexible and unyielding in
>
> their judgements" (p.35).

He does not go on to discuss possible causes but adopts a purely

descriptive approach.   Nevertheless, his findings are of some

importance to this general area in that they raise again the

question of content of belief in relation to personality

characteristics.

Researching the characteristics of those who join social

movements is an area of some difficulty.   Firstly, findings within

the area are unclear, particularly in the area of form and content

of ideological belief.   Secondly, there are a multitude of related

but unintegrated concepts which appear to be measuring some basic

phenomena which is as yet undefined.   This is related to the third

and more important criticism of this area if it is viewed as con-

tributing to personality theory.   The field is essentially

empirical and descriptive with underlying assumptions concerning

the nature of man and the nature of personality relatively

undeveloped. Essentially, then, these criticisms are concerned primarily with whether the measures are meaningful or not. Major criticisms focus on whether the scales are reliable, how stable they are under varying conditions, which other factors have high correlations and whether they are measuring other higher order factors. These criticisms can only mean severe limitations in using such theory for research on sub-groups such as organisation development consultants. If we are to have as the experimental variables the characteristics of the organisation development group and use theory from the behavioural sciences to help understand their characteristics then that theory of itself must be relatively clear and unambiguous and able to address the issue of causality, for in such a study the basic aim must be as stated earlier, to understand the motivations and characteristics of joiners rather than solely to describe them.

C) Descriptive studies of joiners of social movements and student radicals

A completely different perspective has come from a number of descriptive studies which have sought to identify general personal characteristics of radicals. One important study has been concerned with the so-called "deprivation hypothesis". This suggests that recruits are deprived in some way. Hoffer (1951) provides one of the most complete statements of this hypothesis. He cites seven categories of deprived people who he claims are "potential converts". These people he sees as frustrated by

"the consciousness of an irremediably blemished self". (p.58.) This promotes a feeling of a lack of confidence and produces a strong desire to feel a part of something which transcends the self and compensates for the inadequacy. Geschwender (1968) has

produced three temporal variables, rising expectations, relative

deprivation and downward mobility and one non-temporal variable,

status inconsistency, which he suggests predispose recruits in

joining social movements.   All of these variables involve

deprivation.   On the other hand, Gerlach and Hine (1970) suggest

that the most important factor was face-to-face contact with

members of the movement.   They found the deprivation hypothesis

to offer little relevance.   Laver (1972) supports Gerlach and

Hines' view when studying the L.S.D. movement where as many as

75-80% of recruits to one aspect of the movement were professional

middle-class people such as psychologists, businessmen, engineers,

teachers, artists, architects and theologians.   He goes on to

suggest that the meaning of a movement to those who join or are

potential recruits

> "is a function of three factors: the societal definition
>
> of the movement;   the movement's self-definition;   and the
>
> adherent's or potential adherent's own definition which is
>
> derived from his perception of the first two" (p.325).

Such an interactionist analysis ignores the unconscious variables

which have been argued to play an important role in the motivation

of recruits, but provides a more complex model of factors involved

than the simplistic assumptions of the deprivation hypothesis.

Flacks (1967) in quoting both anecdotal and systemmatic

findings regarding the class structure of student radicals suggests

that

> "the student movement represents the disaffection not of
>
> an underprivileged stratum of the student population but
>
> of the most advantaged sector of the students" (his
>
> emphasis), (p.55).

Not only were students found to be from higher status families,

but Flacks also reports that many activists -

"are academically superior, and that very few activists

are recruited from among low academic achievers" (p.56).

Indeed, as a group, the grades of student protesters averaged

higher than those of non-protesters.   Some of these findings are

in conflict with work done by Geller and Howard (1972) who

investigated the motives, values, attitudes, intelligence and

sociological background of signers of a pledge resisting induction

into the Armed Services.   They found the signers to be neither

significantly better students nor more privileged.   They suggest

that the signing was a manifestation of an

> "anti-institutional, yet non-fatalistic and non-authoritarian
>
> life style which is highlighted by a marked concern with
>
> developing helpful, protective, intimate relationships and
>
> a devaluation of achievement, deference to authority and
>
> self-restraint" (p.114).

Whilst the demographic and intelligence data are in conflict with

Flacks (1967), these latter findings are in general agreement

with the four value patterns which Flacks suggests are highly

correlated with activism, romanticism, intellectualism,

humanitarianism and moralism.   The first three have a strong

positive correlation and the latter a strong negative.   This

position is broadly supported by Bay (1967), Sampson (1967),

Soloman and Fishman (1964) and Keniston (1965, 1967, 1968, 1971)

who has introduced the idea of a "post modern style" among student

activists which emphasises openness and responsiveness to change,

an abhorrence of exploitative and artificial relationships, inter-

racialism, internationalism, an ambivalence toward technology and

a psychological commitment to non-violence.   All of these writers

and researchers seem to be suggesting that these radical activists

are attempting to find -

"a new form of personal existence for themselves and others"
(Schaull and Ogelsby, 1967, p.194).

Several criticisms may be made of this approach to the study
of recruits, particularly with a view to the present study of
organisation development consultants.   Firstly, one can criticise
the early deprivation hypothesis.   The weight of later findings
suggests a more complex motivation in need of a sound theoretical
formulation which appears to be lacking at the moment.   Hence,
the later studies tend to be descriptive rather than causative,
producing concepts derived from the field but with little
theoretical backup in terms of relationship with existing theory
or relationships between concepts and studies.   This is a similar
criticism made concerning studies of authoritarianism and stems
from a similar methodology.   An important criticism of many of
the later studies is the student population on which they were
performed.   One can suggest that it is hardly surprising that
the dimensions unravelled reflected attempts on the part of
activists to discover new forms of personal existence.   Perhaps
this could be interpreted as the major task of most students and
that radicalism provides a useful arena for that purpose, other
students using different mechanisms.   Although the findings at
the level of description are interesting, one must question
seriously the relevance of findings pertaining to this group for
the study of a professional subgroup.   The level of causality
of motivation, to be discussed in the next section, may produce,
however, some transferable insights into why some individuals
choose primarily anti-establishment methods of finding meaning
whilst others do not.

D) Psychodynamic studies of joiners and radicals

A further group of studies of joiners and radicals may be termed "psychodynamic studies", insofar as they are concerned with the psychical mechanisms which are postulated as being at work in motivating individual behaviour. Both theoretical and empirical work in this area tend to make a number of assumptions concerning the nature of motivations and personal characteristics. Firstly, present day motives and characteristics are seen as representing historical forces. Sometimes these forces produce a situation in which the individual adopts an overly dependent or counter-dependent posture as he seeks to move along the dependence – inter-dependence – independence continuum. Thus political postures originate in childhood. Secondly, and as a result of the above, public attitudes can be seen to be projections of private needs.

Some of the early work in this field was done by Lasswell (1930) who took the position of regarding all political behaviour as unadjusted and open to the interpretation that it constitutes a displacement of unresolved infantile conflicts. Hence all political attitudes become non-rational. Further work has been continued in this area. Fueur (1969) suggests that all student revolts contain the elements of unresolved Oedipal conflicts, a view which would be substantiated by Farnsworth (1969), who sees particularly

> "the most radical of the protesters (as being) obsessed, rigid, lacking in a sense of humour and perspective, intolerant, and often overly suspicious in their modes of thinking" (p.6).

Flugel (1945) compares the political "left" and "right", hypothesising that the left represents the healthier state of ego control over superego domination. He concludes tentatively

that this may be the case, but points out that destruction may

lead to subsequent guilt and efforts at restitution sometimes by

the reinstatement of a distator as father figure.   Liebert (1971)

investigates this theme further using a framework derived by

Erikson and concentrating on the idealistic/nihilistic dimension.

Allport (1929) found that the best single indicator of political

attitudes was whether the individual rejected the voting intentions

of his father.   Krout and Stagner (1939) however, found no evidence

of neurosis in a sample of radicals, the suggestion being that

radicalism does not represent a symptom of emotional disorder.

All of these studies take the view that the motives of the

radical can be seen as a protest against establishment, originally

parental, values.   Thus radicalism is seen as a rebellion against

archaic authority, dominated by unconscious drives in which society

takes the place of the family or specific members of the family.

An opposite view is taken by other theorists (Soloman and Fishman,

1964;   Flacks, 1967;   Keniston, 1968).   They suggest that whilst

the individual is motivated by parental values, the content of these

is essentially in line with those held by the radical.   Evidence

for this view is cited in Flacks (1967) who found that

> "activists are more radical than their parents;   but activists'
>
> parents are decidedly more liberal than others of their
>
> status" (p.66).

Hence, far from rebelling against parental authority, i.e. the

counterdependent hypothesis, this view would suggest that the

radical are acting out expressed but unimplemented parental values,

a dependency hypothesis.   Keniston (1968) speculates on this theme

even further, suggesting that the source of this "nurturent

identification" which can be seen in many radicals is internalised

by identification with -

"an active mother whose own work embodies nurturent

concern for others" (p.120).

Newcomb (1942) produced earlier evidence of positive identification

in studying the way in which students adopted liberal staff values

in spite of conservative values learned earlier at home.

Thus, studies in this area seem to produce two alternative

hypotheses regarding the values of those involved in social change

activities. These two hypotheses have been summarised by

Keniston (1968). They are essentially two sides of the same

coin and may be regarded therefore as interdependent. Firstly,

there is the dependency hypothesis ("red diaper baby hypothesis" -

Keniston, 1968, p.46) in which values are seen as the individual

acting out parental values. Secondly, there is the counter-

dependent hypothesis ("radical-rebel hypothesis" - Keniston, 1968,

p.46) which suggests a rebellion against authority figures in the

family, the resulting conflict being displaced and projected onto

the wider society. This would predict a polar opposite value

position to parental values. It is interesting to note that both

of these hypotheses are essentially concerned with environmental

objects and the way in which they are taken in or introjected.

Traditionally, in Freudian theory the mechanism for such intro-

jection has been the superego, but more recently other mechanisms

have been suggested. Keniston regards both hypotheses as

"inadequate", and it could be that the application of a different

framework would result in the framing of a more adequate hypothesis

which would take less account of the content of the belief, and

more account of the need to believe which is common to both the

above hypotheses. This would reintroduce the line of research

suggested originally by Lasswell in observing causal mechanisms

which are seen to be at the root of content beliefs.

E) <u>Studies of change agents</u>

Several studies of change agents have been undertaken
sometimes implicitly and sometimes explicitly stating the wider
associations and aims of the group to which the change agent
belongs.   Prakash (1968) and Daccord (1967) mentioned earlier,
both investigated the personality characteristics of organisational
consultants, and produced descriptive data.   Vaill (1971) studied
internal organisation development consultants but was much more
concerned with the work of the practitioner than his personal
characteristics.   Ganesh (1971a, 1971b, 1972, 1976) developed
a two-fold taxonomy of consulting styles in a comparative study
of Indian and American consultants, and attempted to analyse their
self-perceptions, roles and relationships.   His final dichotomy
of human relations oriented, and systems oriented, consultants
together with their related technologies can be seen as an
important piece of work for consumer education.

Probably the most comprehensive survey of change agents so
far has been carried out by Tichy (1974, 1976), Tichy and
Hornstein (1976).   He discusses a fourfold taxonomy of change
agents with regard to a general change model and compares the
four types, outside pressure, advice for the top, people change
technology and organisation development, in terms of the congruence
between cognitions and actions and values and actions.   He found
the outside pressure group to be the most congruent of the four,
the advice for the top and people change technology groups being
moderately congruent on the two dimensions and the organisation
development group being the most incongruent on the values/action
dimension.   Unfortunately he does not go on to investigate this
interesting finding further except to say that the organisation
development group seem to pay -

"inadequate attention to the larger social context within

which the organisation development changes are occuring".

(Tichy, 1974, p.179.)

This finding seems to raise some interesting problems concerning

the characteristics of those who are attracted to the area and

those who remain within it, professing to value one set of aims

whilst working toward the attainment of another.

Summary and a direction for the research

This chapter has argued the relevance of viewing organisation

development from the perspective of social movements, and has

reviewed some of the approaches taken and some of the completed

studies concerning the characteristics of members from both the

point of view of emphasis placed on variables external and internal

to the individual actor.   Other approaches which were thought may

contain findings relevant to the study of organisation development

consultants were included, notably studies of radical/conservative

temperament and authoritarianism and studies of change agents and

organisation development consultants.

From all of these studies two major theoretical approaches

may be distilled.   Firstly the inductive/descriptive approach

which seems to possess relevance to questions concerning the

general attributes of populations.   This kind of approach, which

distills dimensions from the field can be seen in many of the

descriptive studies on joiners of social movements (Flacks, 1967;

Geller and Howard, 1972).   A second approach, the hypothetico-

deductive approach, is concerned more with questions of why

individuals behave as they do, that is, with issues of causality,

relating internal experiencing with external behaviour.   This

approach can be seen in some of the psychodynamic explanations

of motivations of joiners, where a barrage of theory concerning

individual behaviour is used to explain individual acts, beliefs or motivations. Generally speaking, the latter faces considerably more theoretical difficulties in terms of justification, but has the potential of providing more detailed explanatory frameworks. The former approach lends itself to the more rigorous methodology but the insight produced may often tend to lack the penetration and quality of the hypothetico-deductive model.

With regard to the study of organisation development consultants, it is my intention to adopt a hypothetico-deductive approach for a number of reasons. Firstly, and most importantly, the major research question has narrowed to investigate the personality characteristics of organisation development consultants in relation to one of their belief systems, their values. This involves designing research which deals with explanations of experiencing. Secondly, and related to the above, it is the normative position taken by the organisation development literature which seems to characterise the group, and this coupled with the personal data obtained from the focussed interviews is now data in search of a theory. To indulge in more description at this stage of the project would not seem appropriate. Thirdly, it would seem wrong to exclude the biases and research interests of the researcher and to suggest that choice of approach is a wholly objective phenomenon. Research is often an excellent way of answering questions regarding personal motivation, one that has become increasingly important and into awareness in this case. Finally, one important variable in accepting this approach rather than deciding on a more atheoretical approach is the resources available for the project given its part-time nature. An approach which emphasises theory development as a major part of the project coupled with the possibility of more limited needs for data collection (as opposed to large surveys

which seem to rightly characterise inductive approaches) is not to be declined if it is theoretically acceptable. Thus for methodological, personal and practical reasons, a hypothetico-deductive approach was accepted. This meant considering theory in the content area of personal characteristics.

As stated earlier, approaches to the study of this area can be seen as having generated two major hypotheses, the dependency and counterdependency hypotheses. It is proposed to accept and test these hypotheses for organisation development consultants even though Keniston believed them to be inadequate for student radicals. It is also my intention to apply an alternative theoretical approach to these two hypotheses which are essentially hypotheses regarding the superego as a vital mechanism in relating personality characteristics with statements of valuation. This alternative theoretical approach will utilise some of the concepts of object relations theory and specifically Melanie Klein's approach which would seem to have considerable relevance to the area with its emphasis on idealisation, denial and splitting, all of which can be hypothesised to be at work in any value oriented position. This argument will be developed in the next chapter with a view to producing a third and alternative major hypothesis to add to those outlined from Keniston (1968) above (see p.120). This chapter will begin, however, with a note regarding some of the personal forces which were important in generating the subsequent theory. This is included as it is felt to be important in terms of the psycho-dynamic nature of the selected theory.

Object Relations Theory

Introduction

This chapter outlines the major tenets of object relations theory, particularly the mechanisms which are postulated to be at work, and the relationship of these mechanisms to normal development. This provides the introduction whereby certain aspects of organisation development and related activities can be analysed from an object relations viewpoint (see chapter VI). Firstly, however, a note will be made regarding what Popper (1968) would call the psychology of knowledge. This is concerned with the importance of personal learning in the selection of approach to this particular study, and the relationship between knowing about oneself and knowing about the world. It recounts certain events of personal significance which occurred throughout the research.

Self knowledge: the psychology of the research

Generally speaking I do not like confessionals. It seems to me that if something of personal significance has been learned then this will be with the individual in all of his thoughts and actions, and will be freely available and noticeable in his relations with others. Nevertheless, in such a piece of work as this, it would seem relevant to discuss not only the cognitive forces reflected in chapters I, II, III and IV which were pushing toward a particular view of organisation development consultants. It seems vital to discuss also some of the personal emotional dynamics which interfered with the direction of the research at the time, and with hindsight were extremely potent in framing the view adopted. Not only does it seem important to include this personal learning in terms of its impact on the genesis of the theory, but in the particular area chosen it is relevant also in

terms of objectivity to include the biases, prejudices and, where possible, the potential blind spots of the researcher.

I had always thought of myself as a tough guy, more at home in conflict, than intimate situations, happier with the sports arena than the dinner party. I was independent, a loner, an opening bat for whom, in true Boycott style, dismissal was a personal insult. I was competitive, aggressive, and above all a winner.

Such a self concept is not greatly out of place in my society and it had served me well through school, college and in a variety of relations. So what if some social situations caused me to withdraw and feel a little uncomfortable, I had never been a good mixer ("only children rarely are", was my rationalisation) and there were plenty of other opportunities to compensate.

In 1970 when this research started I began doing considerable group work (T-groups and their derivatives) with my colleagues at Sheffield. The work went well and although it was draining (I never could understand why at the time) I recall putting a large personal investment into it. The feedback I received was largely positive although that was not always that which was sent. I can recall now dismissing the remarks of one co-trainer who said, "You're good, but I always feel that for you it is something of an ego trip," and another who said, "People like you are good at getting others to learn but not so good at learning about them- selves". I felt I was growing in some undefined way, although subsequently I feel that whilst some insights were gained thanks to some behavioural feedback, I was far too anxious and lacking in theory to understand the larger dynamics of my situation. During the period 1970-73 the first part of the research was completed comprising the survey of the training function of the

chemical industry and the interviews with practitioners. It was moderately interesting but hardly compelling.

In the 1973-75 years several things happened to change both myself and the research project in very fundamental ways. It is impossible to recount the traumas of marriage, house purchase, children and first job which interspersed this period and undoubtedly played their part. Overall I was still concerned with winning although, in retrospect, this identity was being chipped away in a number of directions. A number of significant events occurred toward the end of this period. I will recount one which was probably the most significant of all.

I had been involved in some three one-week T-groups for part-time students on residential courses within a short period. This culminated in my attending a Blake's Grid phase I seminar, and during the following week being invited to co-train an influencing skills workshop with a well-known firm of consultants. This final programme seemed fine until the Tuesday afternoon on which I recall feeling somewhat unrelated to the events. 'Tiredness' I remember thinking at the time, but during the evening session, which was designed as a deeply emotional session I felt an inability to get involved. Although I was drawn to the situation in which a trainer and participant were involved in some argument I just could not break in. With the trainers afterwards I was unable to come to terms with my inability to support them, and when one started to re-evaluate the situation using a gestalt technique which took him into his relations with his father, I retired to bed.

I slept fitfully (an unusual event) and the next day arose in a state of considerable anxiety and fear. The feeling of unrelated-ness was considerable and the thought of going mad very immediate. The major physiological signs were a shaking, a feeling of distance

from the situation and a desire to be supported and cry, and an occasional panic and desire to run away. These symptoms persisted with varying force throughout the week. It was a week of almost total preoccupation with a host of images and memories concerning my early and middle childhood. It was a time for being with myself, particularly that part which had been inaccessible for so many painful reasons for so long. Many insights and ideas struck me as the week went by which provided the basis for dream and gestalt work later.

Of course, different writers would explain this phenomena in different ways, but I was very impressed afterwards by Perls' (1969) notions of the top-dog underdog struggle and the mechanisms of denial, splitting, projection and idealisation which had been present during this struggle. I was particularly surprised by the force of regression. This time I was aware of it as it burst into consciousness. In my less anxious moments I wondered how many times I had been unaware of it and how it had distorted my relations with others. I began to understand how my conscious self was a cover-up for other parts of me. Later there was also a glimmer of hope, that I could encounter these bits of me and survive.

Afterwards I was struck by the feelings of guilt at how I had distorted many of my relationships in the past and the desire to repair these as best I could. It was in the light of this experience that I just happened to "come across" the work of Melanie Klein. The work I recall reading first (Notes on Some Schizoid Mechanisms) I thought to be very relevant in helping me understand the experience I had undergone and on further examination seemed to have considerable possibilities in relation to the adoption of value orientations to change. This was true in my

own case where the personal growth work was showing a clearer and clearer link between my professional attitudes and beliefs and the underlying emotional dynamics. Through working on my own data I was able to establish clear links between my own needs to idealise and the professional attitudes I held regarding change in terms of an integrated, conflict free organisational model toward which we could all aspire.

Although in my own case the insight had come via my getting back in touch with my "underdog feelings" contained in the "not O.K. child" I was unconvinced that this specific situation was true for others working in the social change area. In other words, I believed that splitting had occurred but not necessarily over the same issues as myself. However, this belief was tested time and again by my peers and others working in the area. I believe that the motivation for doing this was not always based on the best scientific assumptions and in a true spirit of enquiry. Never-theless each encounter forced me to doubt and reconsider the stance I was taking. I am uncertain that this would have happened had I been operating according to the accepted norms of the culture in which I was working. I recall some support for my ideas from other sources such as Isobel Menzies and one or two others at the Tavistock Institute. It was a period of integration and theory generation. Resulting from this I felt that an exploration of the emotional dynamics of organisation development consultants could provide interesting data as I became increasingly sure that this was not just my issue but similar dynamics could be seen to be operating in others. The major cognitive arguments for this are contained in the next part of this chapter and chapter VI, and produced a question culminating in the most interesting and personally rewarding aspects of the research.

Object relations theory

The theory of unconscious object relations is based on the results of the work of a number of writers, but notably Melanie Klein (1932) who analysed children using the play technique and her subsequent theoretical writings (1952, 1963, 1967). Alongside her contribution is that of Fairbairn (1966) who sets out the basic tenets of object relations theory in some detail. Fairbairn's work on basic assumptions and theoretical stances complements the work of analysts such as Klein, Riviere and Isaacs whose major concern has been the identification and understanding of the mental mechanisms involved.

Although accepting the notion of unconscious motivation the theory quickly departs from traditional Freudian views. The main point of departure concerns the functioning of libido. Whereas in Freudian theory a start is made

> "from stimulation of the nervous system proceeding from excitation of various erotogenous zones and internal tension arising from gonadic activity, Fairbairn (1966) starts at the centre of the personality, the ego, and depicts its strivings and difficulties in its endeavour to reach an object where it may find support". (Ernest Jones in preface to Fairbairn, 1966.)

In other words, object relations theory sees libido as essentially "object-seeking" rather than "pleasure seeking". (Fairbairn, 1966, p.255.) This point is emphasised by Guntrip (1952) when considering Fairbairn's (1966) theory of schizoid reactions.

> "The fundamental fact about human nature is our libidinal drive toward good object relationships. The key biological formula is the adaptation of the organism to the physical

"environment. The key psychological formula is the

relation of the person to the human environment. The

significance of human living lies in object relations

and only in such terms can our lives be said to have

meaning, our needs, fears, frustrations, resentments

and anxieties in our inevitable quest for good objects

are the real problem of psychopathology because they are

the real problem in everyday life." (p.87.)

There was always a suggestion of the importance of object

relations even in Freudian theory, "libido" being used originally

to denote the energy of the "object-instincts". Indeed the very

formulation of the superego suggested an internalisation of

external objects. However, object relations theory focusses

directly upon this function of the ego, the result being that the

ego is seen as an independent inherent structure possessing its

own energy source. Hence, according to Fairbairn (1966) the

original Freudian personality structure with the id providing

basic energy becomes irrelevant.

"We seek persons not pleasures. Impulses are not psychic

entities but reactions of an ego to objects." (Guntrip, p.88.)

Klein differs from Fairbairn on this point, the former

accepting the original Freudian tripartite structure of personality.

In this way then, object relations theory seeks to revolutionise

classical Freudian psychoanalytic thinking emphasising the environ-

mental relations made by the individual as he seeks support and

alleviation from his aloneness and dependence on the environment.

This is not true of the relationship between object relations theory

and all psychoanalytic theories. For example the interpersonal

theory of personality formulated by Sullivan (1945) has distinct

parallels in the notion of the importance of relationships (objects) in the development and maintenance of personality. When Guntrip (1952) wrote regarding Fairbairn's (1966) theory

"The real loss of all objects would be equivalent to

psychic death" (p.88)

he could equally have been writing about Sullivan's ideas. Object relations theory is essentially a theory about the dynamics of relationship formation and the unconscious forces inside the individual which impact upon these relationships. This raises the question of the mechanisms involved in this process.

The mechanisms of object relations theory

Like all psychoanalytic theories of personality, object relations theory emphasises the importance of early childhood relationships basing this view on the fact that if experience was not retained we would live only from moment to moment. As Guntrip says,

"in some sense everything is mentally internalised,

retained and inwardly possessed; that is our only defence

against complete discontinuity in living...". (p.88.)

These then are our internal objects which correspond to some external object relation from the past and have considerable importance in the formation of our present relations. In fact, objects are internalised via memory and are stored as good and bad internal objects. Memory is used initially in the internalisation of "good objects" which are experienced and enjoyed and then stored away to be recalled if required. These relations cause no problems and do not interfere with meaningful encounter in later relations. The problems are caused by the internalisation of bad objects when painful external relations are experienced which is unacceptable to the individual. In these cases -

"An inner psychic world (see Riviere 1952) has been set
up duplicating the original situation, but it is an unhappy
world in which one is tied to bad objects and feeling there-
fore always frustrated, hungry, angry, guilty and profoundly
anxious." (his emphasis, Guntrip, 1952, p.88.)

It is this inner psychic world comprising internalised bad
objects from original bad object situations which is at the root
of our relationship difficulties.   Again Guntrip expresses this
outcome concisely,

"the real heart of the matter is a repressed world of inter-
nalised psychic objects, bad objects and bad object situations -
it is bad objects which are internalised because we cannot
accept their badness and yet cannot give them up, cannot leave
them alone, cannot master or control them in outer reality,
and so keep on struggling to possess them, to alter and change
them into good objects in our inner reality". (pp.88-89.)

It is important to understand that such bad internal objects
are not just phantasies but possess for the individual an emotional
involvement identified with the original bad object relation.   One
is reminded here of the transactional analytic ideas of Berne (1964;
1974) allied to Penfield (1952) who suggests that childhood
experiences are laid down in certain areas of the cortex together
with their associated affect.   In later life, environmental
situations can stimulate unconscious "tapes" to be replayed and
the parent and child can be "hooked" into "games" which are used
as a defensive function protecting the individual but distorting
meaningful encounter.   Again it is interesting to note Guntrip,

"The phantasies in which internal objects reveal their
existence to consciousness are activities of the structures
which constitute the internal objects..... In adult life,

"situations in outer reality are unconsciously interpreted in the light of these situations persisting in unconscious, inner and purely psychic reality. We live in the outer world with emotions generated by the inner one. The fundamental psychopathological problem is; how do people deal with their internalised bad objects, to what extent do they feel identified with them and how do they complicate relations with external objects". (p.89.)

Quite where original bad objects and bad object situations are experienced and internalised is best described by Klein (1952). Her basic argument is that these processes occur in early childhood (the first half year of life) and are primarily the result of defensive manoeuvres designed to protect the newborn against an overwhelming sense of anxiety which is postulated to be the product of three major sources, the birth trauma, the death instinct which is felt as a fear of annihilation and takes the form of a fear of persecution and the frustration of bodily needs. Thus the psychological reality of the newborn infant is seen to be quite terrifying with high levels of paranoid anxiety stemming from both external (environmental) and internal persecutors. From time to time this situation is felt to be quite intolerable and the major need of the infant is to find some defensive method of alleviating it. Klein (1952) argues that several mechanisms are involved in the dissolution process, the result being that anxiety is maintained at a level with which the child is able to cope. This process is aided by a complementary set of gratifying experiences which are important to the child and which play their part in coping with anxiety by providing an internal haven to which the child may retreat psychologically.

Klein (1952) argues that what happens is that the child relates to its first external object which is the mother's breast. Sometimes the breast is gratifying and other times frustrating. The young ego divides to cope with these environmental experiences. This in itself is an anxiety reducing mechanism insofar as it replicates environmental variety and makes the infant's world more predictable.

However, the high levels of paranoid anxiety often well up and the mechanism of splitting becomes associated with those of denial, projection, identification, and the consequential introjection and idealisation of the good breast. Idealisation (which is conceived as the corollary of persecution fear) of the good breast, and fear of the bad frustrating breast, are kept widely apart in the infantile mind until,

> "the bad object is not only kept apart from the good one,
> but its very existence is denied as is the whole situation
> of frustration and bad feelings. .... This is bound up
> with a denial of psychic reality (which) only becomes
> possible through strong feelings of omnipotence, an
> essential characteristic of early mentality. Omnipotent
> denial of the existence of the bad object and of the
> painful situation is, in the unconscious, equivalent to
> annihilation by the destructive impulse. It is, however,
> not only a situation and an object which are denied and
> annihilated, it is an object relation (her emphasis), and
> therefore a part of the ego from which feelings toward that
> object emanate is denied and annihilated as well". (p.299.)

Thus in dealing with persecutory anxiety, two interrelated processes take place, omnipotent idealisation and omnipotent

annihilation both based on splitting the object and the ego and
using certain denial mechanisms.   The process, however, does not
stop here.   The denied bad parts of the self are projected into
the object,

> "split off parts of the ego are also projected onto the
> mother or, and I would rather call it, into (her emphasis)
> the mother.   These .... bad parts of the self are meant
> not only to injure but also to control and to take possession
> of the object.   Insofar as the mother comes to contain the
> bad parts of the self, she is not felt to be a separate
> individual but is felt to be the (her emphasis) bad self".
> (p.300.)

This situation establishes the basic pattern for childhood
relationships and also conditions which, as was outlined earlier,
set up object relations which will be important in the formation
of relationships for the rest of the life of that individual.
Obviously this will have significance for individual reactions to
paranoid anxiety, dependency (authority relations) and the handling
of aggression.   To cope with the complexity of this process Klein
coins a new term,

> "Much of the hatred against parts of the self is now directed
> towards the mother.   This leads to a particular form of
> identification which establishes a prototype of an aggressive
> object-relation.   I suggest for these processes the term
> projective identification.   When projection is mainly
> derived from the infant's impulse to harm or to control the
> mother, he feels her to be a persecutor.   In psychotic
> disorders this identification of an object with the hated
> parts of the self contributes to the intensity of the hatred
> directed against other people.   As far as the ego is

"concerned the excessive splitting off and expelling into the
outer world of parts of itself considerably weaken it. For
the aggressive component of feelings and of the personality
is intimately bound up in the mind with power, potency,
strength, knowledge and many other desired qualities".
(p.301.)

Coupled with this process are the related processes of
introjection and idealisation.

"One characteristic feature of the earliest relation to the
good object - internal and external - is the tendency to
idealise it. In states of frustration or increased anxiety
the infant is driven to take flight to his internal idealised
object as a means of escaping persecutors. From this
mechanism, various serious disturbances may result: when
persecutory fear is too strong the flight to the idealised
object becomes excessive and this severely hampers ego
development and disturbs object relations."   (p.302.)

In this way, the defensive posture is now complete. The pain
is split off, denied and projected into an environmental object
whilst at the same time, the polar opposite of the painful experience
is introjected and idealised to provide a peaceful haven of retreat.
It should be mentioned that it is also possible to project good parts
of the self into the mother as a result of gratifying experiences.
This forms the basis for good relationships in childhood and helps
to offset persecutory feelings and the onset of the defensive
projective identification. It should be noted, however, that even
this can cause problems in that excessive projection of the good
parts of the self also weaken the ego. In this case, the mother
would become the ego ideal.

So far, what has been discussed is Klein's concept of what was
termed the paranoid-schizoid position. She goes on to discuss her

views on what happens in the second quarter of the first year and
the role of guilt in making reparation.

"The loved and hated aspects of the mother are no longer
felt to be so widely separated and the result is an
increased fear of loss, states akin to mourning, and a
strong feeling of guilt because the aggressive impulses
are felt to be directed against the loved object." (p.308.)

This situation leads to feelings of acute depression as the
infant begins to integrate the ego and is a marked step in the
psychological growth of the child for whom experiences become
less idealised and also less terrifying. The child begins to
make more realistic responses to feelings of grief, guilt and
fear of loss of object and hence starts to possess greater insight
into the psychic reality of his/her situation. It is at this
stage that the infant experiences a new quality of relation with
the mother. Klein (1967) again makes this point,

" .... when in the baby's mind the conflicts between love
and hate arise and the fears of losing the loved one become
active, a very important step is made in the development.
These feelings of guilt and distress now enter as a new
element into the emotion of love. They become an inherent
part of love, and influence it profoundly both in quality
and quantity.... Side by side with the destructive
impulses in the unconscious mind both of the child and of
the adult there exists a profound urge to make sacrifices,
in order to help and put right loved people who, in phantasy,
have been harmed or destroyed." (p.165.)

Thus the depressive position is the second major position
taken by the infant in relation to objects and represents a major
development in his/her development. Klein suggests that major

problems manifesting themselves later in schizophrenia and
schizoid conditions and in depression and manic-depressive
psychoses are laid down in these early phases.

Object relations theory, mental illness and normal development

The theory is very clear concerning the importance of the two
early positions (paranoid-schizoid and depressive) in mental
illness. Fairbairn (1966) sees these two positions as the basic
psychological catastrophies which can happen to any individual
and it is against these that he must defend. He conceives other
states as coping mechanisms, not prime-movers,

"the paranoid, obsessional and hysterical states - to
which may be added the phobic state - essentially represent,
not the product of fixations at specific libidinal phases,
but simply a variety of techniques employed to defend the
ego against the effects of conflicts of an oral origin". (p.30.)

In object relations theory, all fixation points for illness
are laid down during the first quarter of the first year of life
when the infant is concerned with oral issues. The logic of this
argument is as Fairbairn (1966) states, that

"the classic libido theory would have to be transformed
into a theory of development based essentially upon object
relationships.... The ultimate goal of libido is the
object". (his emphasis, p.31.)

From this view, the object relations school are able to
adopt new positions regarding the aetiology of schizophrenia and
the depressive psychoses. It is not this which I intend to
pursue, but to discuss the use of object relations theory for
"normal" development.

Fairbairn (1966) makes the point very forcibly that his ideas are equally appropriate for those whom one would call "normal" as for those with illness,

" .... it must be recognised that no individual born into this world is so fortunate as to enjoy a perfect object relationship during the impressionable period of infantile dependence, or for that matter during the transitional period which succeeds it. Consequently no-one ever becomes completely emancipated from the state of infantile dependence or from some proportionate degree of oral fixation". (p.56.)

Thus for everyone the early and inevitable environmental pressures which are inherent in the psychic reality of being a dependent newborn are bound to result in the instigation to a greater or lesser extent of the internal dynamics specified by Klein. These then leave traces which may affect the individual for the rest of his/her life, their importance being that they affect the ability of the individual successfully to differentiate himself from his object. According to Fairbairn this process

"in turn depends upon the issue of a conflict over separation from the object - a situation which is both desired and feared". (p.46.)

For Klein (1952) the development of the "normal" personality does not receive great emphasis, but is said to depend on the relative strengths of the mechanisms involved.

"As regards normal personality it may be said that the course of ego development and object relations depends on the degree to which an optimal balance between intro-jection and projection in the early stages of development can be achieved." (p.303.)

Thus Klein (1952) sees these early "primary identification processes" (Fairbairn, 1966) as being,

"part of normal development, and at the same time form(ing) the basis for later schizophrenic illness". (p.297.)

In this sense, then, everyone, when viewed from an object relations viewpoint has some schizoid trait which is probably deeply repressed yet affects his thinking and relationships. This is certainly the view taken by Money Kyrle (1951) in which he relates repressed object relations to the "beliefs and expectancies" determining behaviour in the adult life of politicians. The beliefs serve a defensive function for the individual and are not tested systematically in reality. Thus, a set of cognitive structures are built which, although experienced by the individual as the psychological reality, can be interpreted as defences against underlying systems of anxiety.

The example of Money-Kyrle's work provides a good illustration of the way in which object relations theory can help understand the usual everyday activities involved in the operation of belief systems. Extending these ideas, I would argue that fundamental forms of mental activity such as value systems ideals or belief systems provide defences against underlying emotional conflicts in each of us.

Values and ideals may be conceived as inseparable concepts psychologically speaking in that it is only against an ideological background that utopian values can be actualised. As Kluckholn (1951) points out in comparing values and ideology.

"In general, ideology has today a somewhat perjorative sense which does not apply to value. Ideology is also distinguished by explicitness, by a systematic quality and by overt emphasis on cognition (though there is clearly

"an indication of commitment to these ideals). It might
legitimately be argued that ideologies determine the choice
between alternative paths of action which are equally
compatible with underlying values." (p.432/3.)

Thus values and ideologies are inextricably linked, values
relating directly to goals and outcomes, whereas ideology relates
to action. Values identify preferences implying a choice of
what an individual would desire, ideologies specify more directly
how to actualise that desire. Importantly valuation always
contains an element of cathexion. As Kluckholm states,

"Value, conveniently and in accordance with received
usage, places things, acts, ways of behaving, goals of
action on the approval/disapproval continuum". (p.395.)

He defines value as

"conception, explicit or implicit, distinctive of an
individual or characteristic of a group of the desirable
which influences the selection from available means,
modes and ends of action". (p.395.)

In this sense, values can be seen as a set of concepts or
cognitive frameworks which can be used as rationalisations for
cathexes. These cathexes may be related to a valued or a disvalued
activity, the approval/disapproval continuum providing the direction
of the cathexis. In joining the underlying concepts of value with
that of ideology, the individual can erect powerful frameworks for
defending against potential painful emotional experiences.
Psychologically therefore they can be said to perform the same or
similar function as far as the individual is concerned, namely
that of defending him against those aspects of reality with which
he is emotionally unable to cope or with which he would find
difficulty in coping. They can be seen as a protective device

mediating between a complex external reality and the consequential internal functioning, and serve to help the individual in a number of ways.

Firstly, the holding of such "ideological beliefs" acts as a mechanism of simplification, or variety reduction. The phenomenon of selective perception is well known and documented and is affected both by innate physiological characteristics such as the limitations imposed by occipital movements, and also by the psychological variables under discussion. Postman, Bruner and McGinnies (1948) showed the relationship between personal values and perceptual processes and Bruner and Goodman (1947) investigated the relationship between value and need as organising factors in perception. It is interesting to note the findings of Postman, Bruner and McGinnies who suggest the use of

"perceptual sensitization to valued stimuli and perceptual defence against inimical stimuli which gives rise to a value resonance which keeps the person responding in terms of objects valuable to him even when such objects are absent from his immediate environment". (p.154.)

This reduction of variety in the environment decreases complexity together with attendant anxiety with regard to action. The world becomes a much safer place if it is predictable.

Secondly the holding of ideological beliefs helps the individual cope with painful internal objects by providing a cognitive rationale for the primitive mechanism of projective identification. By this I mean that the importance of holding an ideological belief is that the evaluative component not only gives a position which can be idealised and introjected but gives, more importantly, a negative position which is not incorporated into the self but can be denied, split off and projected into those who hold the polar extreme value.

In situations where extremes do not exist, it may be projected into those with a predisposition toward the unwanted value. The individual is now in a position to dislike the other not only because of the real value difference between them, but because the other comes to represent a piece of the self with which the individual cannot cope. This dislike usually takes the form of an "overreaction" to a "particular type of person" without the individual being able to offer an explanation, i.e. it is an unconscious phenomenon affecting object relations.

Thirdly, the holding of ideological views aids the individual in taking action and hence working within the society in order to gain acceptance from significant others and to put meaning into life. Seeing the world in such clear terms, the problem of action facing one who adopts a more pragmatic/scientific approach is not experienced. Often action becomes focussed around various environmental problems requiring change. Wherever the existing status quo can be legitimately questioned, from the point of view of object relations one can suggest that those who are attracted to and remain within the ranks of a normative/re-educative or coercive movement have difficulties in reconciling their internal objects. The preferred (idealised) position in relation to the existential position provides the perfect area for projective identification and associated mechanisms. Thus the individual can find acceptance and meaning inside the society by using ideological beliefs and play his part in the total society with a minimum of personal distress.

Such a view of the holding of ideological beliefs would provide an explanatory framework to extend some of the research on fanatics, radicals, change agents, ideologues, eccentrics, etc. Indeed, Fairbairn (1966) notes the importance of schizoid

mechanisms in a number of professional and other groups in society. (p.6.) For example, Keniston (1968) suggests the "two inadequate hypotheses", essentially dependency and counter dependency hypotheses mentioned earlier. These, when viewed from a traditional Freudian position could be said to be superego hypotheses in that they reflect how the individual has adjusted to internalised parental controls. In terms of traditional libido theory this would come much later in development probably in the anal stage, but Keniston notes that these hypotheses are inadequate to explain the psycho dynamics of the student radical. An object relations view of the same phenomenon would suggest that fixation points would occur earlier. This view would also offer an explanatory framework for Hoffers (1951) account of the true believer.

> "He who, like Pascal, finds precise reasons for the
> effectiveness of Christian doctrine has also found the
> reasons for the effectiveness of Communist, Nazi and
> nationalist doctrine. However different the holy
> causes people die for, they perhaps die basically for
> the same thing." (Preface.)

Given, then, that it is my intention to test some of the concepts of object relations theory in terms of the personal characteristics of organisation development practitioners it is possible to examine the literature of organisation development and to go back and reanalyse the non-directive interviews conducted earlier and reported in Chapter III. Before doing so it is necessary to mention certain points regarding each of these sources of data. The analysis of both the literature of organisation development and the reanalysis of the interviews would in no way provide conclusive evidence supporting the views

of object relations theory in analysing the motives of organisation
development consultants.   Analysis of the literature is an
important and necessary step but does not necessarily reflect the
actual practice of organisation development in the field.   Hence
there are distinct limitations.   With regard to analysing the
interviews it is important to note that this has been done retro-
spectively and hence can be said also to have limitations.   It
does not represent controlled data collection which was related
to testing the theory under consideration.   Nevertheless the
analysis is included as I feel it is of value for several
reasons:-

i)   It reflects the views of practitioners not just writers
     on organisation development and hence is complementary to
     the analysis of literature.

ii) The nature of the interviews was such that much data was
     generated which was relatively "unpolluted" by the researcher
     and consequently may contain useful data for analysis
     particularly in the area of content of values.

iii) Although the researcher did not know that this kind of
     analysis would be carried out, neither did the respondents
     and hence, no-one was guarding against revealing data in
     this area.

iv) There were a small number of interviews thus allowing
     verbatim accounts and examples to be reproduced.   Hence
     the data is not being extensively interpreted (although
     it is obviously selected) in the light of the theory.

More will be said regarding the methodology of the research
later (see chapter VII), particularly that aspect of the research
dealing with psychoanalytic variables which poses particular
problems.   Suffice to say at the moment that both of the above

types of analysis are being undertaken basically because of the inferential nature of knowledge in this area, and data must be taken from a number of sources if such variables are being investigated.

From a study of normative statements made in the organisation development literature, certain predictions can be made in the light of object relations theory regarding the contents of the accepted and rejected object. I would expect the normative statements to idealise certain good objects in the sense that these would provide the fundamental goals which give reason to the activities. The content of these objects would be essentially positive emphasising and overemphasising the positive nature of life in organisations, the opportunities for individual growth and the attendant facilitative mechanisms such as a desire to increase autonomy, participation and individual expression, etc. On the other hand, following the mechanisms outlined by Klein (1952) the corollary of such internal idealisation is to deny and split off the associated negative value. This rejected value can be expected to be projected outwards, that is, to be rejected or externalised from the self and to contain negative emphasis. In this particular case one would expect this to be some of the conflictual, and hence complex, formal, constraining aspects of organisation and the associated mechanisms which facilitate these such as an emphasis on formal role, structure, authority, the taking of responsibility, etc. Such expectations may also be held for a reanalysis of the non-directive interviews in terms of the content of the accepted and rejected objects. However, these interviews may also provide additional data in areas specified by Klein (1952).

"One need hardly elaborate the fact that some other

features of schizoid object relations .... can also

be found in minor degrees and in less striking form in

normal people - for instance shyness, lack of sponteneity

or, on the other hand, a particular intense interest in

people." (p.307.)

In other words, a history of disturbed object relations.

If the data is supportive of good internalised accepted

object and bad externalised reject object, then according to

Fairbairn (1966) we would be dealing essentially with paranoid

techniques of defence.

"If paranoid and hysterical states are now compared we

are confronted with a significant contrast.   Whereas the

hysteric overvalues objects in the outer world the paranoid

individual regards them as persecutors: and whereas the

hysterical dissociation is a form of self-depreciation,

the attitude of the paranoid individual is one of extra-

vagant grandiosity.   The paranoid state must, accordingly,

be regarded as representing rejection of the externalised

object and acceptance of the internalised object - or

alternatively externalisation of the rejected object and

internalisation of the accepted object." (p.45.)

Applying Object Relations Concepts

Introduction

This chapter will apply the object relations concepts outlined in the previous chapter to a number of areas. Firstly it will analyse the value statements of some writers on organisation development from an object relations viewpoint, and then reanalyse the focussed interview data recorded in chapter III. In this way, a distinct pattern is put on the data collected earlier. Thirdly, this chapter will view some of the theories of radicals and change agents reported in chapter IV from an object relations view as supporting evidence for this line of thinking. Finally a conclusion is reached regarding a third major hypothesis for the research.

An analysis of the organisation development literature from an object relations viewpoint

In analysing the literature of organisation development from the point of view of object relations theory previously discussed, it is important to note that not all writers of the present day adopt a normative standpoint which is to form an essential part of this analysis. Notably the contingency theorists (Woodward, 1965; Burns and Stalker, 1961; Perrow, 1970) and the socio-technical approach developed by the Tavistock institute (Emery, Trist and Bamforth, 1951; Herbst, 1974; etc.), as mentioned earlier, would differ on this issue. Thus, the present analysis concentrates on those writers who state that they are working in the field of organisation development. This includes those who adopt the approach of the National Training Laboratores and who are therefore inextricably related to that branch of organisation

development to come from experiential group work with its roots in humanistic psychology and small group theory (Beckhard, 1969; Bennis, 1970; Argyris, 1957, 1964a and 1964b) those who seek to enrich jobs (Herzberg, 1966) those who seek to change cultures (Blake and Mouton, 1964a and 1964b; Lippitt, 1970 and undated).

It is not the intention here to criticise the value of any of those approaches per se, only that the adoption of those approaches based on a value stance rather than a diagnosis of the idiosyncratic characteristics of each situation results in a normative-reeducative change which in itself contains characteristics which lend themselves to an object relations analysis. Sometimes a theoretical rationale accompanies the normative orientation and is held to provide justification for such panacea like approaches. A good example of such phenomena can be seen in the British organisation development network news-letter September, 1976, under the heading, "What is Organisation Development?",

> "Organisation Development, or O.D., concerns itself with people, technology and change. It recognises that an organisation is a social as well as a technical and economic system. As such it involves planned, systematic and long term strategies to improve the integration and utilisation of resources and the redesign of structure or work situations in order to help the organisation bring about desired change or adapt better to the changing environ-ment. O.D. may use educational, behavioural science and structural techniques to bring about increased organisational effectiveness and at the same time respecting human dignity and worth. The goal of O.D. is to release human creativity and potential, to contribute to self-fulfilment and improve

"openness between individuals and groups making
organisations and thus society as a whole a more socially
desirable place in which to live."   (p.9.)   (my emphasis)

Thus we have a statement mixing an essentially pragmatic
scientific approach to diagnostic based intervention with certain
expected outcomes which will occur anyway irrespective of the
result of the diagnosis.   This issue has been taken up by Bowers
(1972) when discussing organisation development as an art or
science.

> "Yet some change agents frequently confuse the advisability
> of being democratic, participative and not given to status
> pretentiousness with being permissive, non-directive and
> non-committal.   All too often the result for these persons
> is a passive-aggressive stance;   interactions are carefully
> and unobtrusively manipulated in the direction desired by
> the change agent himself;   individuals or their positions
> are attacked not directly but under the guise of "process
> comments." (p.6.)

All of the latter approaches above have been included, as
the emphasis is on ends rather than diagnosis of the existing
situation and the development of means based on the outcome of
this diagnosis.   Such a proposition is not out of step with
Tichy's (1976) finding that change agents (including organisation
development consultants) in America used different sets of
diagnostic categories which were found to relate

> "to their value orientation and to the change techniques
> which they employ". (not paginated).

These "partial diagnoses" lead Tichy to conclude that clients
should beware at least until -

"eventually it may be possible to develop a general

model for organisational diagnosis, one not so wedded

to the biases of different types of change agents". (not paginated).

It is now possible to go on and examine these biases firstly

through the value statements of writers on organisation

development, and secondly by reviewing the views of commentators

on organisation development and organisation development inter-

ventions in the light of object relations theory.

The value statements of writers on organisation development

A list of the value statements made by some organisation

development writers has been included in appendix 17, rather

than reproduce each list by authorship in the text.   The arch-

type list of organisation development values is presented by

Tannenbaum and Davis (1967) and this will provide the basis of

the argument.   Other writers will be included at relevant

points but the line of argument to be pursued is that the value

orientations presented by Tannenbaum and Davis can be seen to

run implicitly as well as explicitly through the organisation

development literature.

In the table below (fig. ii) the statements have been

classified into two categories, those which are valued (i.e.

accepted object) and those which are disvalued (i.e. rejected

object).   No inferences have been made regarding any denied

object which would occur when for example statements of certain

positive values are made without mention of the corresponding

negative value.   This section then deals with the value

statements as they are written without any interpretations by

the researcher other than to apply object relations concepts to

the data.   Within each category the value statements have been

classified according to whether they represent values based on assumptions regarding the nature of man or the nature of organisation. This gives a 2 x 2 matrix. Sometimes the boxes will be related although as a general approach I will try to keep the analysis of the boxes separate.

	Valued Areas (accepted object)	Disvalued Areas (rejected object)
Nature of man	**A** autonomy and self-actualisation expression of feelings wholeness confirmation as a human being processual nature of human beings	**B** individual fixity avoiding feelings negative evaluations view of man as bad
Nature of organisation	**C** trust and risk taking meaningful work collaboration power equalisation organic systems	**D** power tactics maskmanship mistrust and avoidance of risk mechanistic systems competition bureaucracy

Fig. ii. A matrix of the value statements of some writers on organisation development.

It is now possible to analyse each of these boxes in turn.

Box A

Beckhard (1969) states that there "should be increased autonomy" whilst Tannenbaum and Davis (1967) suggest that there is a move -

"away from using human behaviour toward the requirements of

the job description and toward using him as a whole person". (p.16.)

The N.T.L. (undated) suggest that there should be

"an increase in self-control and self-direction for people

within the organisation", (p.356)

whilst French and Bell (1973) state that

"most people want to become more of what they are capable of". (p.66.)

Margulies and Raia (1972) make a number of statements relevant to

the area of increased personal autonomy and self-actualisation.

They state that there should be

"opportunities for people to function as human beings",

"opportunities for potential fulfilment",

"opportunities for people to influence work, organisation

and environment", (p.3)

as well as an emphasis on

"treating each one as a person with complex needs, ALL (their

emphasis) of which need satisfying". (p.3.)

These are all essentially humanistic values, placing the

individual above "the system". They are reinforced by value

statements in the accepted object category. For example, Tannenbaum

and Davis (1967) suggest a movement

"away from walling of expression of feeling and toward

making possible expression and use" (p.17)

as well as a move

"away from maskmanship and toward authentic behaviour". (p.18.)

Bennis (1970) suggests that

"human factors and feelings should be made legitimate" (p.15.)

French and Bell (1973) suggest that

> "most people desire to and can make a greater contribution
>
> to the organisation than they are doing,"   (p.66)

and that

> "most people wish to be accepted and interact co-operatively". (p.67)

Later they speak of the importance of needs and aspirations in

bringing about change and state that

> "work life can be richer, more meaningful, if we express
>
> feelings".   (p.71.)

All these statements appear to reflect an essentially optimistic,

idealised picture of the nature of man which is essentially very

partial in its selection from the literature in what is an extensive

and complicated field.   Often the justification for holding these

views is stated to be based in the behavioural sciences, but many

of the assumptions appear to stem from a limited number of authors

namely a cluster stemming from White's (1959) work on competence

(Maslow, 1954, 1965, 1968;. Herzberg, 1966; Argyris, 1957) and from

some of the existential/phenomenological school (Rogers, 1961, 1965).

In terms of the assumptions made by the writers on organisation

development regarding the nature of man these seem to represent a

partial and idealised picture.

Box B

With regard to the rejected object a number of writers mention

this specifically with regard to assumptions concerning the nature

of man.   Tannenbaum and Davis (1967) speak of a movement

> "away from viewing the individual as fixed toward him being
>
> in process"   (p.14)

and

> "away from process work being seen as unproductive and toward
>
> seeing it as an essential task".   (p.23)

This process work focusses essentially on the affective dynamics of the small group situation. The point is taken up by French and Bell (1973) who suggest that

"suppressed feelings adversely affect problem solving, personal growth and job satisfaction". (p.67)

This emphasis on working through conflictual areas, particularly in the area of feelings, is based on a number of foundations. One of these is the assumption concerning the nature of organisations (to be discussed in the next section), but another is the rejection of the negative aspect of the nature of man which results in an optimistic view of potential ends as all conflicts can be seen as resolvable using interpersonal interventions. Tannenbaum and Davis (1967) in their classic article make the most open statement of these views when they suggest a movement

"away from a view of man as essentially bad, toward a view of him as basically good". (p.12)

They say that

"at his core, man is not inherently evil, lazy, destructive, hurtful, irresponsible, narrowly self-centred and the like". (p.12)

These views lead to a further proposition that there should be a movement

"away from avoidance, or negative evaluation of individuals toward confirming them as human beings". (p.13)

The major tool for operationally carrying out these assumptions regarding the nature of man seems to be the small group. Two writers (Bennis, 1970; French and Bell, 1973) mention specifically an increase in the amount of group working to be done inside the organisation together with an emphasis on process work. Other writers (Beckhard, 1969; Margulies and Raia, (1972) reflect their optimism regarding the nature of man by emphasising the relevance

of producing meaningful tasks inside the organisation, the assumption being that individuals have the capacity to respond accordingly.

Generally speaking, therefore, the literature of organisation development invites readers to reject the negative view of the nature of man, particularly those views which see him as fixed, avoiding feelings which invite negative evaluations. From the point of view of object relations theory one may interpret the denial of the negative aspects of the nature of man, as evidence of the existence of schizoid processes. Such a conclusion can be related also to the valued areas (accepted objects) which constitute an idealised view of the nature of man, self actualised, expressing feelings openly whole and authentic, "in process", and receiving confirmation as a human being from his environment. Thus the content of boxes A and B can be seen as interdependent in terms of object relations concepts, the valued areas (accepted objects) being overemphasised and this process being aided by the splitting of the total complexity and the denial of the negative aspects. This cognitive system is divided into two, a schizoid defence, but the internalisation of the accepted object and the externalisation (through disvaluation) of the rejected object can be seen as a paranoid phenomenon. Hence, one is able to see a cognitive pattern in these writings in which assumptions are clearly made regarding the aims of organisation development with regard to the nature of man. One may conjecture that those who are non-believers to such a clear statement may be immediate targets of projective identification of the rejected object.

Box C

With regard to the nature of organisations, a number of points are emphasised. Firstly, as mentioned above, two writers suggest

"meaningful work" as important.   This can be achieved in an

organic system which is quoted by one writer (Bennis, 1970) as

being preferable to mechanistic systems.   A number of other

writers do not mention organic systems as such, but dwell on the

issue of power.   Beckhard (1969) states that there

>"should be a decrease in the bosses' power". (p.6)

Tannenbaum and Davis (1967) state that there should be a

>"movement away from the use of status for maintaining
>
>power and personal prestige"   (p.19)

and Bennis (1970) states clearly his belief that there should be

a decrease in

>"suppression, compromise and power in conflict resolution". (p.15)

French and Bell (1973) state what they believe an organisation

development consultant's position to be regarding power equalisation

when they say

>"..... most probably he would place value on a democratic-
>
>participative way of life". (p.72)

They do not envisage themselves as power equalisers but as believing

that

>"most organisations can profitably learn to be more responsive
>
>to organisational members ..... this may mean that managers
>
>will need to augment the authority of their positions with
>
>additional skills in being more responsive to the human-social
>
>system". (p.72)

One may argue that this statement reflects a power equalisation

philosophy, even if the original formal authority relationship

remains the same.   Tannenbaum and Davis, in line with their

earlier statement want to see an increase in trust, risk-taking

and collaborative behaviour.   N.T.L. (undated) state their wish

to create an open problem solving climate, build trust, make

make competition more relvant and increase collaboration. They

argue that this would increase a sense of ownership of objectives

throughout the work force and help managers aim for more relevant

objectives.   French and Bell (1973) suggest that

"solutions to most attitudinal problems are transactional" (p.68)

implying an emphasis on collaborative working.

J. Jennings Partin (1973), in reviewing a number of organisation

development projects, concludes that they attempted to

"redistribute power and influence throughout the client

organisation".

In terms of organisation development theory he says that this

emphasises

"openness, trust, collaboration, confronting conflict and

self-realisation (in making) an organisation healthy". (p.273.)

He concludes however that

"much more needs to be done if general systems change is

to become a reality". (p.274.)

The set of responses inside box C suggest an idealised picture

of organisational life.   There is little emphasis on role and the

conflictual possibilities resulting, both between roles, between

senders, and between the person and the role.   Valued areas

(accepted objects) with regard to the nature of organisation

emphasise high trust, high risk, collaborative relations with

the individual involved in meaningful work inside an organic

structure with relatively minor use of and emphasis on formal

power.   Again, one can see the acceptance of the "good" object.

Here the organisation can be seen as representing all that is

satisfying to the individual in terms of his work relations.   It

is a place of low external control and high creativity, it is

essentially a bounteous organisation primarily meeting the needs

of its members rather than using its members as resources in the furtherance of some other goal.

Box D

The final box contains those disvalued areas (rejected objects) concerned with the nature of organisation.   Several writers were concerned to decrease the use of power tactics. Beckhard (1969), Bennis (1970) and Tannenbaum and Davis (1967) have already been quoted in this context.   This seemed to be a powerful negative evaluation which pervaded. much of the writing.   Related to this view is the decline of bureaucracy (Bennis, 1966) which was related to the positive valuation of organic structures.   This seemed to be coupled with a movement away from maskmanship (Tannenbaum and Davis, 1967) which, in reality, would seem to approximate to behaviour dominated by the formal role characteristics of the organisation.   The emphasis is placed on a movement toward "authentic" behaviour which remains undefined but which is used synonymously with "honesty, directness and congruence".   Such a set of beliefs also is in line with another area of low value, mistrust and avoidance of risk.   These can be interpreted as being seen to be inherently related to "the bureaucracy" where a lack of individual initiative and risk-taking not to say overall co-ordination and control is located.   The emphasis can again be seen in disvaluing those variables concerned with the negative aspects of organisational life.   The final important area in this box is one which ran through the writings of a number of authors, the disvaluation of competition.   Tannenbaum and Davis (1967) speak of a movement

"away from competition and toward increased collaboration".   (p.24)

French and Bell (1973) suggest that

"many problems are best faced not in a win-lose mode" (p.70)

and that

"interpersonal trust, support, and co-operation are too

low". (p.68.)

Of course, these sentiments can be implied from other writers

who are concerned to emphasise the opposite of competition,

namely increased collaboration, but it is interesting that

negative statements such as these are made openly in the

literature. As in the case of the assumptions concerning the

nature of man, it can be seen that not only is there a utopian

vision involved, there is also definite evidence of the existence

of a dystopia.

In terms of object relations theory, this dystopia can be

seen as representing all that is bad for the individual in

organisational life, the use of power tactics on the dependent

person, the denial of humanness which bureaucracy represents and

the resulting role behaviours. These are coupled with negative

evaluations of mistrust and risk-taking which are supposed to be

found in such mechanistic structures. Again, the content of

box D can be seen as containing the negative aspects of organisa-

tion which provide the backcloth against which the contents of

box C can be idealised. Given this view of the realities and

desired states of organisation one would not expect to find, nor

does one find evidence in the literature of organisation development

work where the basic problem has been an overly organic structure

or overly laissez-faire climate which has needed bureaucratizing.

Similarly in other sections of organisation where role behaviour

predominates, particularly in high conflict areas such as the

management-union interface, even allowing for cultural differences

between the U.K. and U.S.A., the writers on organisation development

have produced little outside a normative frame (Blake and Mouton, 1964; Margerison, 1974). The object relations concepts of denial, splitting and projective identification can contribute to an understanding of the factors which are so characteristic of the true believer in relating utopian social change with the objectives of changing particular organisations in particular directions. Such an individual is not capable of aiming toward a truly objective diagnosis because of his emotional involvement in his valuations. These provide him not only with an O.K. position to idealise, but also with a not-O.K. position with which to identify his projections. This dividing of the complex reality into two halves coupled with the associated affect evidenced by the valuation can be seen to be an important aspect of diagnostic distortion.

The whole of this argument is, of course, applicable not only to the disparity between the valued and disvalued areas concerning the nature of organisation but also the nature of man. It is the congruence of all four boxes A, B, C, D, when viewed from an object relations viewpoint that is the interesting phenomenon and the fact that valuation, i.e. the good/bad continuum, is the common thread. Even though values involve essentially cognitive processes and hence cannot be taken alone as evidence of emotionality, application to some of the object relations concepts does appear to give some useful insights in forming a pattern on the writings.

Returning to the focussed interview data collected earlier and reported in Chapter III it is possible to look again at some of the statements made by respondents as well as some of the generalisations made concerning the type of responses, using the concepts of object relations theory as an explanatory framework. For the purposes of simplicity I intend dividing this section into two, firstly to look at the content of the responses concerned with describing ideal organisation, and secondly to comment upon other sections of the responses particularly those concerned with self-image. In this analysis the responses of the maintenance group will not be included for two reasons. Firstly it is the motivations of the change agent (organisation development) group in which we are interested, and secondly I believe that post hoc analysis, whilst providing valuable supportive data in certain cases, should be strictly limited in its application. Whilst the theory may be relevant for this group, it has not been developed to examine them and may need reconsideration if this task were undertaken.

Organisational ideals

Before beginning this section, a word must be said regarding the methodology of analysing post hoc idealisations using an object relations approach. Obviously it would be spurious to ask for idealisations and then use object relations concepts, one of which is the role of idealisation as a mechanism of defence. Nevertheless the ease of verbal idealisation did seem an important point to note, but more importantly, this section will concentrate on analysing the content of the responses rather than their form. Object relations theory has much to say about this, specifically in terms of the good and bad objects which can be accepted

or rejected using denial mechanisms which can be inferred by ommission. This kind of analysis is not affected by asking respondents to idealise insofar as they are then able to project anything into their response. Hence form is defined but content remains ambiguous.

Firstly, in considering responses to ideal organisations, one may notice the ability of the change agent group to verbalise their ideals concerning organisations. From the point of view of object relations it is possible to explain such a phenomena. It would be expected that if projective mechanisms are at work, idealisation would play an important part in the sense of providing a preferable future possibility which would guide the actions of the individual involved. Holding such ideals with such immediate access may be understood as the introjected good object which plays a part in being used as an internal haven by the individual involved.

Secondly, implicit in two responses, and explicit in another was the lack of differentiation between personal and professional values. For example, in referring to conflict management one respondent suggested that

"the way to cope with it .... is the way I would cope
with it at home with my family".

For this respondent the overriding value of open confrontation was a total life value which had personal importance for him. Another respondent actually mentioned a total life approach,

"I think essentially the concepts I have picked up in this
job all seem to tie together into one. The concepts of us
being able to fulfil ourselves in our work, in our lives,
and to satisfy these needs we have got of growth, need to
contribute, to enjoy ourselves".

There was little data in this area, but it is an important point,
for if the values held were felt to be core personal values
affecting the total life space (as opposed to work values
functional for getting the job done) then this would be suggestive
of some deeper emotional causality as opposed to say, a set of
learned social values adopted by a professional subculture. This
point is not fully covered by this post hoc analysis but what
general evidence there is points in the direction of deeper causes.

Thirdly, and with regard to content, the abstract idealisa-
tions of the change agent group followed a highly predictable line
when viewed from an object relations viewpoint. They tended to
be unitary (lacking in a complexity of possible outcomes)
resolving complex organisational issues by centring on the social
system. This overconcern with one factor of production, was
occasionally in total opposition to statements of overall aim
such as increasing organisational effectiveness. Such an over-
concern with people, their happiness and development, particularly
in the face of such a complex reality as an organisation is
possibly evidence of denial mechanisms at work. One further
point regarding the abstract ideals was discussion of the
accompanying dystopia which was mentioned by several respondents,
the formal, structural, bureaucratic system. It was here that
one felt the projective identification mechanism at its strongest
certainly in terms of the abstract where much emphasis was placed
on organic structure;

"having very much more flexible, almost matrix type of

management system .... in which you don't have people pre-

occupied with status seeking, those sort of issues",

or another respondent who in making the case for organic organisa-
tion and criticising the use of graduates said the management at
present,

"treated non-graduates as purely interchangeable; graduates
are treated as individuals who have skills and knowledge and
particular personalities .... It is this incredible sort
of poor use and very mechanistic approach to three quarters
of the people who are employed in this country".

Later he reiterated,

"Many jobs really do stultify which is the case of about three
quarters of the people in the company. Now I do not know
how you break out of that but it does seem to fly in the
teeth of all knowledge and rationality and logic and seem
to be pretty rigid".

Shortly afterwards he produced his negative stereotype,

"missing opportunities is not a sin; making mistakes is a sin;
so you really punish people for making mistakes; but if they
miss a few opportunities you don't really notice it; who
cares about a few opportunities? Some people get terribly
good at avoiding mistakes, and this leads to a very solid
conservative company. It is very inflexible, picking up
opportunites is seen as a bit of a bonus".

This kind of projective mechanism which must, of course, have
been related to a part of the organisational reality in which the
respondent worked was recognisable in many of the responses made
by the change agent group. One could easily imagine situations
in which symbiotic relationships could develop between clients and
consultants, the former carrying the conservative bureaucratic
values and the latter the radical organic values, each maintaining
the other in a situation of equilibrium. In such a relationship
the term change agent in relation to organisation development
consultants would seem somewhat inappropriate.

I now intend analysing the detailed aspects of the organisational ideology, the issues of conflict, decision-making, communication, leadership, power and authority, and organisational values.

Management of conflict

The change agent group tended to emphasis open confrontation and a unitary perspective concerning conflict resolution. Whilst such objectives would seem laudable in themselves, they may be viewed, by their overemphasis on the interpersonal genesis and resolvability of conflictual situations, as denying the structural sources of conflict production inside organisations. Along with this, one can infer a dislike of living within a conflictual frame such as an organisation. Conflict seemed to be understood and managed in interpersonal terms and structural role conflict interpreted as conflict between people rather than conflict between roles. This overpersonalisation of issues was very characteristic of the change agent responses.

There was a dislike of conflictual issues coupled with some poorly developed defensive mechanisms. For example, one change agent suggested that conflict was created because there was

"no clarity regarding the nature of the conflict".

The suggestion was virtually a plea that

"if only people would just understand where it came from then it would go away".

Another respondent seemed to reflect an unrealistic view of the conflict problem by suggesting that it should not arise because of

"an ongoing awareness of what is going on elsewhere".

Both of these responses can be understood as extreme examples of

denial mechanisms operating in what is essentially a painful area.
In some circumstances these mechanisms seemed to operate to affect
the thinking process in terms of diagnosis (by suggesting the
anticipation of conflicts) and in other cases the existence is
accepted, i.e. diagnosis is unaffected, but resolution is always
possible, i.e. intervention and outcome affected.   From an object
relations viewpoint, responses such as these can be seen as
evidence of yet another of the mechanisms outlined by Klein (1952)
namely that of denial and hence the associated splitting of the
ego.   This is an important cornerstone of the theory, because it
is from this mechanism that projective identification springs, in
this case the externalisation of the rejected object and a con-
sequent disturbance in relationships would be predicted together
with an internally weakened ego.   Not all the change agent
responses reflected the general trend in not tolerating conflictual
situations and relationships.   One mentioned his treating of
conflict at work as in his family and perhaps living with dis-
agreement, another mentioned his unconvinced attitude toward open
expression of conflict.   Both respondents did, however, speak of
their personal difficulties in handling conflictful situations at
a later point in the interview.

Leadership, decision-making and power/authority relations

The change agent group tended to view these areas with much
the same emphasis as they did the management of conflict.   Several
respondents spoke of the need to ensure that the informal system of
leadership and decision-making was in agreement with the formal
system.   Whilst not denying formal leadership (which two respondents
did) this ensured a trustful open kind of person-centred leadership
(one respondent spoke particularly of a more participative style).

In several cases the present organisation was referenced in giving negative examples of these variables. No respondent referred to his/her existing organisation in positive terms on these variables. Words were used to describe existing organisation or practice such as "pretty crummy" or "very distasteful". It seemed that "the organisation" could be used as a target for projective identification of externalised bad objects, usually unwanted values. Sometimes the generality of responses left one uncertain whether it was all organisations or their specific organisation that was under attack,

"One thing that I have found very distasteful about organisations like this one....."

One respondent denied the whole aspect of authority/power relations, but all of the others accepted these variables at a diagnostic level but produced positive unitary frames to cope with them, tending to use denial mechanisms in terms of outcomes. One response produced the archetype of that contained in a number of other responses,

" .... people above all should have an element of trust and this trust should be satisfied and provided that is met I think people are happy to have decisions made, if necessary .... by the boss. I don't see anything wrong in this .... the most important thing in my organisation would be that the organisational leadership would be the actual natural leadership. I think this is where a lot of people get hang-ups on decision-making so the true boss of the group would be the boss and there would not be any conflict; that people would be able to fill their roles; they would be well suited to their roles, and this would mean that as an efficient organisation we would have people with

"appropriate skills using those skills.   Authority would be

earned, tying up the natural leaders with the hierarchical

organisation leaders and the question of power would not arise".

Here the denial of relationship difficulties brought about by

the existence of formal structure and the denial of power and the

political aspect of organisational life can be seen as in agreement

with the early statement of unitary trustful situation presided

over by a bountiful mutually agreed authority figure.   The statement

is free of bad objects and although this is partly attributable to

the structured question about ideals other aspects are important.

Firstly, the interrelatedness of the items in object relations

terms, and secondly the ability of the respondent to verbalise his

ideals and the use of examples of the present organisation to

express a seemingly symbiotic "not O.K." view would suggest an

emotional importance to the respondent.   This justifies a suggestion

that projective identification mechanisms may be at work.   The

form of these mechanisms would seem to be to split the good and

bad aspects of leadership/authority roles as above denying the

latter aspects by overemphasising the former.   This is subsequently

reflected in the cognitive defences relating to environmental

rationales for participative leadership styles and the belief in

organic as opposed to mechanistic organisation structures with

their associated emphasis on internal rather than external control

and relative lack of emphasis on formal authority structures.

It is important to clarify one point here by way of reiteration.

I am not concerned whether there is a growing real environmental

need (my emphasis) for these views, rather it is the holding of

such views to the exclusion of alternatives, and the negative

affect associated with differing views which can be seen as an

expression of affect having potence for the change agent group.

Communication patterns

Many of the responses given in the area of communication patterns were concerned with information-sharing with examples from organisations to demonstrate what was wrong with the present system of holding onto information. Most of the change agent responses reflected a desire to see more open methods of communication.

"It is not really anything to do with, although it is usually disguised in this way, ... having a technical system to process the data, it is purely to do with how much people are prepared to tell other people in the end. So it is based on the whole concept of trust and openness really ...."

Here again is the denial of the structural aspects of organisational relationships by overemphasising the importance of personality and essentially processual issues in the diagnosis. The pattern of an internalised good object, producing unitary, conflict free ideals is yet again maintained although fewer statements were made in this area overall. However, the content of the statements were again in congruence with the previous discussions where the ideal emphasised an open, person-centred, kind of communication pattern. Taken together the areas of leadership, authority, power, communications and conflict could be seen as highly congruent in representing a well constructed cognitive defence with more than a suggestion of projective mechanisms retaining good objects and expelling bad.

Ideal organisation values

The change agent responses were heavily biased toward valuation of the individual in his own right "as a whole person". Values of "individual worth", "everyone having their own values"

and "everyone's world being rational to them" were very
representative responses of this area.   One respondent mentioned
autonomy but coupled it with responsibility.   He was the only
respondent to mention responsibility and explained that he meant
by it a personal responsibility in human behaviour such as
adhering to humanistic values as opposed to the taking of specific
role responsibilities.   Only one person mentioned organisational
effectiveness and this was in the context of the organisation in
question fulfilling its commitments to the wider society in making
useful products.

In terms of the content of these values they can again be
seen to represent the triumph of the individual over the organisa-
tion.   Individual development, worth and growth are seen as values
which should be held in work organisations.   These symbolise
basically good objects and are internalised by the change agents
insofar as they can be seen to represent their major valuations in
pursuing the ends they pursue.   One can again see the almost
complete lack of emphasis and omission of variables involving task
criteria which would involve a discussion of the individual de-
personalised in role, and would raise issues quite contrary to the
internalised good object such as the lack of valuation of the person,
the negative aspects of authority, and the allocation of scarce
resources through the making of decisions to do work.   This follows
the general pattern of the argument so far, and from the discussion
of the content of the idealisations one may argue that the existing
organisation would be seen as the recipient of the unwanted values
of the change agent.   In extreme cases one could envisage a situation
where the change agent would use the existing organisation to such
an extent as to see perpetually only the "bad" in the existing
situation and to develop sets of behaviour where change for change

sake becomes the rule. Such a situation in practice could be devastating where there are overwhelming needs for maintaining the existing situation. Although interventions to produce increasing certainty, role definition, clear leadership or bureaucratic structures are known in the literature of "normative organisation development" (Harrison, 1968; Sherwood, 1972) they tend not to be emphasised with many interventions flying in the face of some behavioural science findings, notably the contingency theorists.

Hindering and helping forces

One last point can be made regarding the forces which were perceived to hinder and help the intervention strategy of the change agent. Time and again "the organisation" was seen as containing all the hindering forces. Few organisational helping forces were mentioned and some were double-edged such as one respondent who said he was helped by

> "the difficulty of talking to my boss - people come
>
> and talk to me".

On the other hand a large number of negative forces were attributed to the formal bureaucratic structure such as "the organisation chart", "concentration of authority at senior levels", management style of top managers "conservatism, authoritarianism, paternalism, slow to change" or other environmental issues "local cultural tradition - fixed attitudes", "tradition v. modern technology". In general, one may argue it is not unusual for respondents to utilise projective defences to this type of question, yet the weight of negative responses attributed to various environmental factors was striking. Only one respondent suggested "working alone" related to his own shortcomings and difficulties in coping with what is a highly stressful role as a major hindering force. Projective defences are probably being used to enable the

individual to survive in what is an extremely hostile environment
which must raise primitive anxieties. The change agent often
finds himself in a situation of carrying unwanted managerial
values, being the centrally cathected person often surrounded by
high paranoid anxiety when clients are confronted in one way or
another with the fact that they must change their behaviour or
relationships or both. He is also often in a situation of
dependency in the formal authority structure. Indeed a number
of change agents spoke of the problems of taking risks confronting
clients when salary review time was due. It is hardly surprising
in this situation that projective defences can be found to operate
in relation to discussing the problems raised in changing organisa-
tions. One point springing from this, following Jaques (1955)
and Menzies (1967) is the relationship between the

　　　"social defence system" (Jaques, 1955)
and the

　　　"individual psychic defence system" (Menzies, 1967).
As Menzies (1967) states,

　　　"I do not imply that .... an institution operates the defences.

　　　Defences are, and can be, only operated by individuals. Their

　　　behaviour is the link between their psychic defences and the

　　　institution. Membership necessitates an adequate degree of

　　　matching between individual and social defence systems". (p.28.)

　　　Given the previous discussion regarding idealisation content
and the data on the difficulties of affecting the kind of change
envisaged and the problems of the role, one is able to see the
relevance of the above statement for the change agent group. One
may suggest that it is the individual who characteristically operates
defences of a paranoid-schizoid nature who would be attracted to and
remain within a social group such as the change agent group. The

data which was collected on self image threw some weight behind
this view.

Self-image of the change agent group

Of all the data collected in these initial interviews,
probably data concerning the personal characteristics and self-
image of the change agent group was the most consistent and
revealing when viewed from an object relations viewpoint.   All
of the respondents spoke of the difficulties they experienced in
relationship formation, two of them directly stating that these
work issues were no more than problems which had been there as
long as they could remember.   All of the respondents found
situations of high conflict difficult to manage at a personal
level.   Several reported feeling very shy (i.e. using withdrawal
as a defence) in social situations or in new situations.   None
of the respondents could trace the source of such feelings but
suggested that these were characteristically "them" rather than
something inherent in the work situation.   Klein (1952) lists
one of the characteristics of schizoid object relations in normal
people as "shyness", and another as .

"a particular intense interest in people". (p.307)
So far both of these can be seen to be operating here both in terms
of the self-report of change agents and also in the fact that we
are studying a group with a particular intense interest in people,
even when other objectives could be chosen from a complex environ-
ment such as an organisation.   These characteristics can be seen
to fit together.   One can understand shyness as a behavioural
reaction to the mechanism of projective identification putting the
bad parts of the self into the object.   As the object now
represents the bad self, the individual can respond accordingly

by avoidance or withdrawal. The situation is further exacerbated by a fear of retribution from the violated object and also by internal feelings of guilt which would be increasingly available to the subject as a prelude to the depressive position. All of these issues come together then in producing a set of behaviours which can be seen as shyness, which is, of course, directly related to the handling of aggression in object relations. Given these sorts of characteristics in operation, it is easy to see how the individual is drawn to social situations, and professions, in which he can explore the major dynamics concerned with a view to increasing his own understanding of himself and hence "make reparation" both externally in his object relations and internally in terms of removing the intense feelings of guilt which result from the projective mechanisms. A typical response outlining the whole of this theory will serve to represent that which was expressed by many of the respondents.

"I am not good at confronting, I am not good at telling
people or getting people to think that they are making
mistakes. I am not good at saying unpleasant things.
When I have done .... it hasn't seemed very threatening,
but I find it is a difficult thing to do personally.
I shy away from it, I withdraw, I avoid it rather than
come out with the resentment, the hostility or criticism
or whatever".

In this response there are all the characteristics described above, the anxiety of conflictful situations, the difficulty of actually being aggressive and the personal difficulty that entails resulting in the coping response of withdrawal. Yet this respondent has joined a profession concerned with change and particularly change in the authority structure of organisations,

a profession where he is to be faced constantly by the situation he finds so difficult. Here, one may argue, is the problem outlined by Guntrip (1952) concerning our inability to give up bad object situations from the past but to be constantly seeking environmental realities where we can seek to re-enact and this time understand and control the internal phantasies. It was interesting to note that the above respondent went on to discuss his extremely powerful drive to be independent, a lifelong characteristic. He said,

"I have still tended to be independent on this job.
I don't find it easy to cope with the dynamics of being involved, so I tend to stay just a wee bit aloof and detached".

Here again, the non-involvement can be seen as a defence against a powerful underlying need to be close to people, an over-reaction to an overwhelming sense of loneliness. This respondent, like several of the others, was aware of these issues but only at a feelings level, and the impression given was that these feelings tended to be ego-dystonic, originating from a weakened ego (which one would expect if projective mechanics were at work). The inference was that the feelings had unconscious sources.

An analysis of the theories, and findings on radicals, joiners of social movements and change agents from an object relations viewpoint

Probably the most concise statement of the psychodynamics of members of social movements, radicals and change agents is provided by Hoffer (1951) in his description of "the frustrated" true believer.

"What ails the frustrated? It is the consciousness of an irremediably blemished self. Their chief desire is to escape that self - and it is this desire which manifests

"itself in a propensity for united action and self-sacrifice.
The revulsion from an unwanted self, and the impulse to
forget it, mask it, slough it off and lose it produce both
a readiness to sacrifice the self and a willingness to
dissolve it by losing one's individual distinctness in a
collective whole. Moreover, the estrangement from the
self is usually accompanied by a train of diverse and
seemingly unrelated attitudes and impulses which a closer
probing reveals to be essential factors in the process of
unification and self-sacrifice. In other words,
frustration not only gives rise to the desire for unity
and the readiness for self-sacrifice but also creates a
mechanism for their realisation. Such diverse phenomena
act as a deprecation of the present, a facility for make-
believe, a proneness to hate, a readiness to imitate,
credulity, a readiness to attempt the impossible and many
others which crowd the minds of the intensely frustrated
are, as we shall see, unifying agents, and prompters of
recklessness." (p.58.)

In this, one is able to see the suggestion that projective
mechanisms are at work. The statement is concerned with the
functioning of the ego (self) which has been damaged at some time
in the past, causing a basic split into good (wanted) and bad
(unwanted) bits. Hoffer suggests that the motivation of the
frustrated true believer is to deny (forget or mask) it, split
it off (slough it off, lose it). The weakened ego then seeks
strengthening by identification with a corporate whole. The
process is further encouraged by other mechanisms such as
idealisation (deprecation of the present; facility for make-
believe), projective identification of the bad self (proneness

to hate) and the resulting weakened ego which needs support

(readiness to imitate; credulity; readiness to attempt the

impossible). These ideas are quoted and reinforced by Bay (1967)

who enumerates several kinds of motives underlying political

opinions and includes ego defence motives along with other external

motivations. He agrees that much of the work on student radicals

can be interpreted in the light of repressed anxieties which pre-

destine an individual to become

"an authoritarian, anti-authoritarian, bigot, rightwinger

or, more rarely, a leftwinger". (p.87.)

The actual mechanisms by which this comes about are not specified

but the analysis applied to the "true believer" is equally

applicable to the point made by Bay.

Roche and Sachs (1969) in discussing the leadership of social

movements have produced an interesting twofold classification of the

bureaucrat and enthusiast, extreme typologies which describe aspects

of most people. The "enthusiast" is very close to Hoffer's (1951)

concept of the "true believer". He has a number of characteristics

that would suggest schizoid mechanisms at work. Firstly he is

concerned with

"the fundamental ideals and values of the organisation"

(p.209) - (idealisation)

"even to the point of schism" (p.209) - (splitting and denial).

Secondly he identifies

"the cause with a corpus of principles" (p.210) - (idealisation),

and that

"policy must be the undiluted expression of first principles"

(p.210) - (idealisation)

and

"considers compromise as not only wrong, but also evil" (p.210) -

(denial, splitting, projective identification).

Thirdly, in terms of membership, the enthusiast is exclusionary

"desiring to limit the body of saints only to those full

of grace" (p.211.)   (idealisation, projective identification).

The authors go on to explore some of the organisational implications

of this taxonomy.   Rosen (1968) in his lecture on enthusiasm

explores many of these same avenues and particularly quotes a

number of writers in history who have related enthusiasm to mental

illness, the individual being afflicted by some disorder explained

at the time as "humoural pathology".   He quotes Samuel Butler as

"Taking a dim view of the inner light

'Tis a dark lanthorn of the spirit

Which none see by but those that bear it". (p.411.)

Here again one is able to capture the essence of denial, splitting

and idealisation mechanisms at work and the resulting distortions

of encounter which produced the response relating enthusiasm to

mental illness.

Keniston (1971) suggests that

"idealists and nihilists are found in disproportionate

numbers within the student movement, but the idealists

outweigh the nihilists". (p.253.)

He goes on to analyse this phenomenon using a line of reasoning based

on the work of Piaget and later Kohlberg which was concerned with

the cognitive components of moral development.   He deals only with

the unconscious aspects of idealism in a short review of superego

development.   From the point of view of Kleinian theory, idealism

and nihilism can be viewed as evidence of similar mental mechanisms

at work, only the content of the denied and split self differs.

Keniston (1968) also notes a distinct split in the radical

males' perception of their fathers, or, in the case of girls, their

mothers. (p.55.)   Whilst he notes that –

"ambivalence toward their father is routine in the develop-
ment of men" (p.55)

he suggests that this split

"seemed unusually great." (p.55.)

The two images were on the one hand

"highly ethical, intellectually strong, principled, honest,
politically involved, idealistic"

but on the other

"unsuccessful, acquiescent, weak or inadequate" (p.55.)

He reports that this was an almost universal phenomenon. From a

Kleinian viewpoint this splitting can be seen to represent an

irresolution of the parental figure, a perception which is probably

both realistic of the parent but disturbing for the respondent.

The heavily idealised image which came out of Keniston's interviews

was tempered

"only later (in the interview); sometimes only in
apologetic asides" (p.59).

Other empirical studies have produced findings, some of which

have been seen as problematic and which lend themselves to a

Kleinian interpretation. Flacks' (1967) study produced four

variables closely correlated with activism, romanticism, aesthetic

and emotional sensitivity; intellectualism; humanitarianism;

moralism and self control. It is typical of schizoid traits to

overemphasise feelings and emotions (romanticism - concern with

experience, with feeling and passion, with immediate and inner

experience) as the individual is consistently concerned with his

inner world of objects and their associated effects which, whilst

being the most prepotent area of his experience, are stimulated

by external reality. This is often allied to the

"overconcern for people"

which can be seen in the value of humanitarianism (concern with the plight of others in society; desire to help others - value on compassion and sympathy - desire to alleviate suffering). Here the individual can be seen as trying to make reparation for the identification he makes and alleviate the guilt he subsequently feels. With regard to intellectualism (concern with ideas, desire to realise intellectual capacities - appreciation of theory and knowledge - participation in intellectual activity), Fairbairn (1966) considers intellectualism in terms of schizoid processes insofar as it offers the perfectly socially valued defence against involvement and intimacy because of the third party nature of the intellectual position. Hence the individual can operate a meaningful role without the unbearable problems of involvement. Traditional moralism (concern for the strict control of personal impulses - opposition to impulsive or spontaneous behaviour - value on keeping tight control over emotions - reliance on external rules to govern behaviour) was the fourth factor. This factor was correlated negatively with activism, and from the examples from the definition quoted above it is easy to see why from a Kleinian standpoint. Personal impulses cannot be strictly controlled, it is the world of internal objects which governs behaviour. Hence, emotions are difficult to control, and internal, not external authorities are the root of belief and behaviour.

Thus it is possible to see that from a Kleinian viewpoint these empirically derived dimensions mesh together in a total framework. The function of this defensive framework is to provide the individual with a set of socially acceptable beliefs, at least to some parts of the wider society, and provide him with an experienced reality on the basis of which he can operate a viable social role.

Gold, Friedman and Christie (1971) studied the nature of idealism of one hundred and fifty-three students to derive a set of scales related to activism. They subsequently used the scales on psychology students in studying the radicalisation process. Several of the findings were predicted, but they note a consistent and unusual finding regarding the relationship of activism with machiavellian cynicism - a philosophy of pessimism, a distrust of other people and a belief in the perfidity and rigidity of the existing social order - and machiavellian tactics - the extent to which lying, flattery or deception in interpersonal behaviour are endorsed. The activists tended to endorse machiavellian cynicism whilst rejecting machiavellian tactics. Again, a Kleinian perspective offers some understanding of this finding which reflects a split set of values divided into good (idealised) and bad (rejected) aspects. That machiavellian tactics is rejected is not surprising as the individual is closely involved with his idealised self-image, searching for the perfect relationship. On the other hand, external objects, such as other people or "the system" provide targets for identification mechanisms and hence these items tend to be endorsed. The authors suggest that in many studies the machiavellian score had never been reduced to these components and consequently this finding was new and in need of explanation. Kleinian theory provides one perspective on this.

One final study which must be mentioned in this section because of its importance for the present study of organisation development consultants is that of Tichy (1974). Previously it was mentioned that the organisation development group were the most incongruent group of four groups of change agents studied in terms of expressed values and actions. Tichy found that although the organisation development group -

"indicated that they should be striving for such goals as increased democratic participation by all members in a system, increased individual freedom, aiding society in solving social problems and power equalisation in society .... they reported that they actually worked to improve productivity or problem-solving ability in the system". (p.179.)

Tichy saw these as incongruous. He goes on

"the paradox for the O.D.'s is that they have a value oriented change approach .... but they are employed in organisations not for these values but to help with problems of effecting efficiency and output". (p.179.)

This raised interesting issues regarding the personal characteristics of organisation development consultants. To some extent, everyone is capable of holding inconsistent value sets in themselves. Indeed, if everyone behaved according to their inner experiences, some of the most fundamental problems of psychology would be solved. Nevertheless Tichy's (1974) study reveals a group of individuals distinctly split pursuing one set of behaviours whilst professing a different, and often contradictory set. Such a situation provides an environment in which the individual may attempt his reparative processes. Tichy (1974) argues that

"the O.D.'s must adjust their values to those of their leaders or to confront the value differences at work". (p.181.)

A Kleinian view would suggest that this is unlikely without major changes in the composition of the organisation development group as it is in the emotional interest of many of those working in the area to maintain this fundamental inconsistency.

Conclusion

This chapter has analysed some literature of organisation development, re-analysed the focussed interview data and the

findings on joiners of social movements, radicals and change

agents in the light of object relations theory. The aim of this

has been to outline the relationship in this particular case

between the theoretical assumptions made by writers on organisation

development and the personal characteristics of practitioners.

A common thread of argument has been the psychoanalytic concern

of focussing not only on that which is stated openly and accepted

(accepted object) but on that which is denied, split off and

projected outwards (rejected object). These mechanisms can be

seen to operate not only within the literature of organisation

development but also are reflected in the responses of the

focussed interviews held with organisation development consultants

and can be seen in theories and research done on comparable groups.

All of this combines to produce a third hypothesis regarding the

sources of values of organisation development consultants. This

may be termed the split-ego hypothesis and says that the source

of values held by organisation development consultants stems from

a defensive function of a divided ego. Such a manoeuvre would

provide defence against painful internal and external objects.

It is my intention to add this hypothesis to the two mentioned

earlier, the dependency and counterdependency hypotheses, in order

to test them. Thus I will be testing three psychodynamic hypo-

theses, two concerned with what may be termed superego development,

the internalisation of external parental controls, and one with

ego development, the development of methods of coping with internal

responses to external stimuli and defending the self. The next

chapter will go on to discuss firstly some methodological problems,

and secondly the alternative research designs available and the

design which was chosen.

Methodology

Introduction

It is the objective of this chapter to discuss some
possible research approaches and designs for testing the three
hypotheses generated so far. Because of the psychodynamic
nature of these hypotheses, it is, however, advisable to begin
this chapter with a discussion of some of the major problems in
attempting research in this area. It is in the light of these
generalised issues that the specific methodology chosen can be
put in context.

Some problems of psychodynamic research

Attitudes toward psychoanalysis, psychotherapy and psychiatry,
that is the whole range of activities concerned with the growth
and development of the human mind which may be covered by the
global term psychodynamics have been multifarious ever since Freud's
original writings. They have ranged all the way from

"sincere conviction of its certain validity and almost

universal applicability to the view that it is a gigantic

hoax oversold by pseudo-scientists to a gullible and

defenceless public". (Meltzoff and Kornreich, 1971, p.7.)

Certainly Eysenck (1963) has produced a scathing criticism of
psychoanalysis discussing problems in terms of both effect and data
and critiquing the whole approach from a behaviourist viewpoint.
Other writers have shared some of Eysenck's misgivings, but have
not tended to adopt his (implicit) normative position. Ellis (1963)
in a balanced article has related analytic methods to the methods
of science and then speculated on what needs to be done to produce
a truly scientific discipline. He concludes that as a discipline

there are no theoretical reasons why psychoanalysis cannot be considered "scientific". He concludes by listing fifteen important personal and professional characteristics such as scepticism of all dogmatic, absolutist, highly generalised formulations, objective, dispassionate and emotionally unbiased positions, and emotionally secure, self-confident, non-defensive individuals which are needed in order that the area become as scientific as possible. In many ways, Ellis is criticising not the discipline itself but the social organisation of the discipline. His suggestions can be seen as an attempt to impose a new paradigm, something which Ellis is not alone in believing is needed. Glover (1966) reports his attempts to collect data on clinical practice but concludes

> "Nothing in my experience is harder than to get psychoanalysts
> to disclose their clinical views on any subject outside their
> immediate personal interest, or for that matter to say how
> they actually apply and control their technique. On several
> occasions I have adopted the questionnaire method for these
> purposes with results that were as a rule scanty, and, unless
> subject to secondary interpretation, uninformative." (p.17.)

It is important to differentiate this kind of closed system anti-scientific thinking from the problems and difficulties encountered in the actual subject matter of the area. Certainly Ellis (1963) is very keen to differentiate the scientific from the unscientific and even the anti-scientific with whom there can be

> "no argument – as long as they frankly admit that science
> is not their goal, and that faith, religion, mental healing
> or some other non-scientific object is". (p.83.)

The contrast between Freud's (1955) original conception and the attitudes at which these criticisms are aimed is great. He wrote

> "psychoanalysis is not, like philosophies, a system starting

"out from a few sharply defined basic concepts, seeking
to grasp the whole universe with the help of these and,
once it is completed, having no room for fresh discoveries
or new understanding.   On the contrary it keeps close
to the facts in its field of study, seeks to solve the
immediate problems of observation, gropes its way forward
by the help of experience, is always incomplete and ready
to correct or modify its theories.   There is no
incongruity (any more than in the case of physics or
chemistry) if its most general concepts lack clarity
and if its postulates are provisional;   it leaves their
more precise definition to the results of future work".

Having briefly discussed some of the problems of the social
organisation of psychodynamics it is now my intention to look at
some of the content problems of the area which affect its
scientific stature.   I will divide the discussion into two
sections, firstly a discussion of the problems associated with
the theory and constructs, and secondly those problems associated
with operationalisation and practical difficulties.   This
discussion will not incorporate all those criticisms and problems
which have been made and directed at psychoanalysis and psycho-
therapy as the therapeutic process is not coincidental with the
research process.   Basically the research process I will take to
be concerned with knowing i.e. essentially diagnostic whereas the
therapeutic process I will take to be normative i.e. concerned
with change and end-states.   Hence the following discussion will
preclude the difficulties of defining ends and consequent criticisms
of therapeutic methods.

Psychoanalysis has, as one of its basic assumptions, the importance of symbolic processes. Kubie (1952) distinguishes two kinds of symbolism used by man,

> "One gives him the ability to make condensed abstractions of concrete experience and to contemplate them and act on them and communicate them to others in the form of psychological processes of which he is aware. These constitute his conscious purposes, conscious feelings and his conscious thoughts which he expresses deliberately by means of acts, gestures, facial expressions, sounds, words and written symbols of words.... At the same time there is another symbolic process, by means of which in disguised and denatured forms man gives partial expression to psychological processes of which he is not only unaware, but also unable to become aware, by any simple process of direct self-inspection". (p.48.)

Whilst the province of psychoanalysis has been traditionally the latter area of symbolism, Kubie goes on to generate two "central technical problems" with regard to research in the area which incorporate aspects of the former area of symbolism:

> "(1) How can we appraise with qualitative and quantitative precision the relationships between conscious and unconscious levels of symbolic activity, when these operate concurrently and interact on each other continuously.
>
> (2) How can we impart this knowledge to patients." (p.51.)

Because of the nature of the research problem in question, it is not my intention to explore (2), but (1) seems to possess central significance regarding the psychodynamics of organisation development consultants. This research is concerned not only with the values they hold (first level symbolism) but also with those they avoid

(second level symbolism).   This raises what is probably the most fundamental problem in psychoanalytic research, the problem of inference.

The subject matter is concerned as much with what the respondent does not do, does not believe, cannot feel, as it is with those things which he does, which he believes and which he is able to feel.   It is also concerned with the interactions between these. Usually, it is the former, the hidden level which causes the most serious research problems both theoretically and in terms of operationalisation.

Because we have to infer the mechanisms which are operating there is no general agreement of the cartography of the mind at this level.   We are dealing with forces and structures which are not directly observable and which often do not lend themselves to quantitative analysis.   They have to be inferred from what the respondent says or does, and sometimes from what he does not say or do.   Melanie Klein's view is but one of a multiplicity of views on structure and interactions within the structure, which are available within the analytic school let alone those beyond it.   Thus, writers on the subject piece together constructs based on the assumption that individuals believe, behave or experience

"as if" (Bion, 1961)

some force were operating to produce this effect.   Having inferred the existence of some force from a piece of observable or measurable behaviour it then becomes a logical impossibility to disconfirm the existence of the envisaged structure or part of it from the standpoint of that structure.   Hence, rather than researching the fundamental constructs used in psychoanalysis, much of the work merely demonstrates the utility of the concepts and therefore justifies their retention.   Such a criticism is true

particularly of the case study methodology often used in psycho-analytic research which often interprets phenomena in ways which are consistent only with the best canons of analytic theory.

This leads to a second major difficulty in researching psychoanalytic variables, namely the difficulty of disconfirming the hypotheses, or giving the hypothesis a chance to be dis-confirmed. Seaborne Jones (1968) has addressed himself to the problem of falsifiability of hypotheses. He comes to the conclusion that whilst some are falsifiable others are not. He discusses a list of twelve typical kinds of psychoanalytic hypothesis (p.100-106) and at one point discusses hypotheses regarding classes of people or communities. With regard to these he uses the example of accident proneness and the psycho-analytic interpretation of this phenomena as due to unconscious aggressive impulses. He concludes that whilst it may be possible to produce evidence of various kinds that would make a strong prima facie case that some people are accident prone, it is not possible, outside of the consulting room, to provide evidence relating to the explanatory hypothesis concerning unconscious aggressive impulses. This could only be done if the subject were to become aware of such impulses which coincided with certain accidents. These can be seen as the different questions and the different evidence regarding sociological and psychoanalytic "proof".

This point has some considerable potency in considering the issue of the values of organisation development consultants. What is being said is that it may be possible to produce and test hypo-theses regarding this group, but at this level of analysis it is not possible to test causal hypotheses. This is not to say that the research has no value, but merely to limit its scope. The research will be concerned primarily, therefore, with description

and insight rather than with ascribing causality. One important and related point made by Seaborne Jones (1968, - p.105) is the relationship of hypotheses to ideas. He suggests that psycho-analytic notions, particularly those regarding unconscious processes can make important contributions to other disciplines particularly in relation to testable hypotheses within those disciplines. Hence, in the example above, it may be possible to ascertain the accident-proneness of one group, but the idea of unconscious aggressive impulses can provide insights into causality which would not be available through sociological explanation. Following from this, it would not be possible to test such insights, having phrased them in hypothesis form outside of the consulting room.

In terms of traditional scientific method, neither of these two theoretical difficulties necessarily deter scientific research in this field. Seaborne Jones, in pointing out a number of resemblances between psychoanalysis and physics uses Toulmin's (1953) argument that both psychoanalysis and physics deal with natural phenomena, and are concerned to seek the

> "form and scope of regularities which are found to happen,
>
> not universally, but at most on the whole"

and

> "introduce models which help us explain, represent, and
>
> predict the phenomena under investigation" (Seaborne Jones,
>
> 1953, p.22).

The argument goes on to suggest that both disciplines use constructs which are application neutral. One might add that both disciplines are involved in deriving predictions from theory on the basis of these constructs and then seeking to test these predictions in as controlled a fashion as possible. Just how feasible this is in psychoanalysis will be discussed shortly.

With regard to the falsifiability of hypotheses, the issue
to a great extent already has been discussed. Obviously what
differentiates scientific from other endeavours is the rigorous
and controlled testing of stated beliefs in order to ascertain
whether such belief is, in fact, the case. In situations where
control is difficult or even impossible for a significant number
of variables, and particularly where inference is important, it
is possible to concentrate upon description of what is observable
and measurable and then to view findings in the light of psycho-
dynamic ideas. Where one critical experiment is not possible,
then it may be necessary to adopt a methodology which involves
validation by several independent measures which, when taken
together, may provide a convergence of evidence toward a particular
viewpoint. With regard to this thesis, data has already been
recounted regarding the literature on organisation development
consultants. Obviously further tests are necessary, but
convergent findings across a number of independent measures
produce stronger support for the holding of views which are
difficult to validate. This methodology is not new. Campbell
and Fiske (1959) advocate a similar methodology albeit in an
experimental setting with considerably more constraints regarding
acceptable levels of validity. However, the basic principle of
validation through convergence of different measures of the same
phenomena remains the same.

Quite apart from these abstract considerations, research is
made difficult in this area by a number of important and related
operational problems. The first of these concerns the problems
of self-knowledge of the researcher. Because the subject matter
is concerned with what is inferred from the behaviour of another,
the perceptual qualities of the observer are an important part of

the research process as well as the explicitness of the categories

to be used. The former relates directly to the self-knowledge of

the researcher and particularly his more gross distortions of

perception due to personality needs. Such distortions can limit

not only the researcher's ability to perceive evidence, but also

his mis-reading and self-deception regarding the research questions.

Alexander (1960) puts this well,

> "He (the researcher) has motives which he excludes from
>
> his own consciousness and does not want to admit to
>
> himself, and will not, therefore, be able to detect in
>
> others." (p.26.)

It is interesting to note that with regard to this thesis the

author went through a particular set of experiences following

shortly after the non-directive interviews with organisation

development consultants. Briefly these experiences culminated

in what can only be subjectively described as a re-integration of

a previously denied aspect of the author's personality regarding

what Perls (1969) would describe as the top dog - under dog dichotomy

(see p.128). It was only at this point that the author was drawn

to a reanalysis of the data collected and was able to see the

possibility of patterns in the data which were previously unavail-

able to him. Such experience may not be unusual in social science

research, but becomes an extremely important issue in the area of

psychodynamics.

A second problem can be seen to exist in the relationship

between researcher and researched. It may not be possible for

the researcher to understand the world of the respondent, not

because of his own repressions, but because of great individual

differences, not just of a psychological but also of a cultural

or ethnic nature. This is seen most of all in understanding

psychotics or savages in that the researcher often has no empathetic ability because of a lack of shared experiences, but these extreme cases illustrate a general phenomenon insofar as one may suggest that it is never possible completely to share and understand the experiences of another.

A third problem arises with regard to the subject of the research. In terms of researching areas such as values, two problems ensue. Firstly he, like the researcher, will be subject to his own repressions, and may not have the required data available to his own conscious thought processes. Secondly, and particularly with regard to non-observational methods of collecting data, there will be distortion of the data due to the social act of its collection. According to how the respondent perceives the researcher, and the transference between them, this will dictate the amount and quality of information that the respondent will divulge.

This problem leads to the more general problem regarding the nature and need for controls in researching this area. So far, some difficulties have been recounted regarding the control of variables within and between the parties concerned in the research effort. This is an extremely difficult process as Frank (1966) points out,

> ".... the purpose of controls is to answer the question: how sure are you that you really know what you think you know? Problems of control arise only after a researcher thinks he knows something - that is after he has an hypothesis that certain variables are related in a certain way.... The purpose of controls .... is to exclude alternative hypotheses. The level of certainty at which the truth or falsity of an hypothesis can be established

"is a function of the accuracy with which the relevant

variables can be identified, measured and manipulated.

Therefore the degree of possible and desirable control

in a particular field of study depends on its stage of

development". (p.79.)

He goes on to suggest that

"since few of these variables are as yet adequately defined

and the researcher can directly observe or manipulate only a

few of those which are important, it is obvious that the field

of psychotherapeutic research is still at a relatively

primitive level". (p.79.)

One may add that this could be seen as being true not only of

psychotherapy but also of the wider field of psychodynamics.

A fifth problem refers to the difficulty of operationalising

the concepts of psychodynamics even when they are theoretically

clear. This is directly related to the two subsumed problems

regarding the nature of what may be taken as evidence, some of the

problems of which were discussed earlier, and the difficulty of

measurement in this area. Quite what constitutes unconscious

guilt, projective identification or even defensive behaviour has

been, and still is, the subject of intense debate amongst writers,

and this makes the problem of the researcher that much greater

especially when the same piece of behaviour is capable of multiple

interpretations. Whilst the researcher may be quite clear what

he means there can be no guarantee that others will be equally

clear or that he will have contributed toward the understanding

of external reality.

A final problem, related to the previous writing concerns

that of replication. One criterion of scientific work is its

reproducability under identical conditions. The problem in the

social sciences is that conditions, other than for the more super-
ficial experiments are rarely reproducable. This would seem to
be particularly true of research on organisations or on members of
organisations where the environment is so turbulent and impinges
directly on the subjects. It is also true of research in the
area of psychodynamics, a science at the stage of development
where certain general maps have been produced, but where there are
fluctuating and changing itineraries, not only differing from
person to person but also changing for any one person over time.
Clearly this poses significant problems for the researcher who
wishes to contribute to knowledge in the area, perhaps less so for
the researcher who wishes to utilise some of the concepts developed
to contribute to knowledge in a separate area.

Having outlined some of the methodological problems of doing
research in this area it is now my intention to relate these
problems to the specific situation of the research on the sources
of values of organisation development consultants and then to
explore some alternative research designs. A restatement of the
three major hypotheses to be tested will be included at this point.

The hypotheses to be tested

The first hypothesis concerns the dependency hypothesis or as
Keniston (1968) termed it the "red diaper baby" hypothesis. This
general hypothesis states that radicals adopt values from radical
families where

"the personal development of the radical is portrayed as

smooth and uninterrupted, as a simple assimilation of

parental values of dissent and indignation at modern society,

coupled with a determination to work toward correcting

injustices". (p.47.)

The second hypothesis is the counterdependency hypothesis or "radical - rebel" hypothesis.   This states that the radical is acting out

"a violent rebellion against and hatred of all male,

parental and societal authority". (p.46.)

Hence values are counterdependent on those of his family.

The third hypothesis is the "split ego" hypothesis.   This states that the radical adopts a value stance which defends him against certain painful experiences and which involve a complicated set of interrelated psychological mechanisms.   In each case, following the earlier argument, I am equating "radical" with organisation development consultant.

Characteristics of the three general hypotheses

In psychological terms, hypotheses one and two can be seen to possess certain similarities to each other and certain similarities and differences from hypothesis three.

Hypotheses one and two can be seen to be different sides of the same coin, and as such involve similar mechanisms.   They involve archaic influences and are centred on parental commands. They can be seen in Freudian terms as hypotheses regarding superego formation, or in Transactional terms as hypotheses concerning the contents of the parent ego state (and the related child ego state responses).   These hypotheses can be seen as similar to hypothesis three in that the latter is also concerned with introjection from the environment and internal response to that introjection.   Hypothesis three, however, can be seen as a hypothesis concerned with ego functioning.   It is concerned with the personal causes of behaviour and cognition rather than the parental causes.   Hence, although the socialisation process itself is important, it is the

internal reactions of the ego which are the focus of this hypothesis
rather than the introjection of external values.

The three hypotheses also have similarities and differences
with regard to researching them. All three hypotheses are subject
to the point made earlier by Seaborne Jones regarding psychodynamic
research on groups and communities, that the ultimate evidence
would be found only in the consulting room with individual respondents
probably over a long time scale. Hence, all three hypotheses are
only open to investigation on what he terms the "sociological level".
By this I may take him to mean the aggregation of data collected
individually which produces results particular to one group and is
open to psychodynamic interpretation. Any such interpretation
would seem to be more valid, the closer the operational measures
are to the theoretical constructs. This problem is discussed in
more detail below in exploring alternative research designs. Quite
apart from this, all three hypotheses are open to the difficulties
recounted earlier in theoretical terms regarding the testing of
psychodynamic hypotheses. The third hypothesis, however, does
provide particular problems. Whereas hypotheses one and two are
concerned with the comparison of personal values in relation to
internalise parental values, hypothesis three is concerned with the
relationship of owned values with denied values. The very mechanism
of denial precludes this area from cognitive exploration. Hence,
in terms of research design, hypothesis three will need to adopt a
more unobtrusive measure than hypotheses one and two.

Operationalisation of concepts and research design for hypotheses one and two

General approach

Following the argument from above, hypotheses one and two can
be seen as having certain interdependencies. Further they are

concerned with the relationship between the individual respondent values and his internalised parental values. These variables may by hypothesised to be related at several different levels, cognitively and emotionally, having a rational and a non-rational component, consciously and unconsciously. One measure which could be used would be to compare the self-perceptions of organisation development consultants on a number of value dimensions with the way in which they perceived their parents on the same dimensions.

This would serve the function of the respondent comparing the values in the adult ego state (in Transactional terms) with those that he perceives in the parent ego state. Hence, this would be a measure of perceived introjection of parental values available to the respondent at a conscious and preconscious level (the latter being that level at which he does not normally collect data, but at which he is able to collect data when requested). It is essentially a cognitive measure, and is open to criticism regarding unconscious motivation, but it was felt that parental controls were partially, if not predominantly, available to conscious thought processes and that support for hypotheses one and two on this cognitive measure would require much more detailed study at an emotional and unconscious level. Conversely, negative findings on such a cognitive level would not rule out completely the possibility of repressed parental commands and repressed reactions to those commands playing a vital part in the values of organisation development consultants. On balance, however, it was felt that the cognitive approach was a reasonable place to begin research with regard to hypotheses one and two, particularly when considering the population under study who, as professional social scientists, should have encountered at least some of the contents of their parent ego states in their professional training, and have this data available at a conscious level.

<u>Instrument design for hypotheses one and two*</u>

The instrument to measure hypotheses one and two, was designed in two parts, one part containing background demographic data, age, occupation, education details paying special regard to any formal social science qualifications held. Apart from obtaining control information with which to compare the organisation development group with other groups participating in the study these early questions introduced the respondent in a non-threatening manner to the personal nature of the data required. Further, this theme was taken up in the next three questions which, whilst also giving control data were included for two other reasons. Firstly, they asked the respondent fairly detailed personal questions regarding his family background in terms of the type and size, the socio-economic class and the social mobility of the family in early and middle childhood. Secondly, they were included as questions which may obtain significant research information in their own right. Family data had produced interesting information in other studies on student radicals (Flacks, 1967; Bay, 1967) and it was felt that the inclusion of questions in this area may produce some interesting findings.

The second part of the instrument was designed to investigate hypotheses one and two. If dependency theory is to remain a viable explanation then the organisation development group would have a significantly higher positive correlation between own and perceived parental values**. Counterdependency theory would produce higher negative correlations between own and perceived parental values. The distinction between own and perceived parental values corresponds to Kluckhohn's (1951) distinctions between desirable (superego-parental)

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* A copy of the interview schedule used can be found in appendix 18.
** "Parent" was interpreted broadly to mean significant authority during that period under consideration, i.e. not necessarily <u>actual</u> mother or father.

and desired (ego-own) values.   The instrument need not be

especially sensitive to the measurement of the individual motivation

of respondents, but must be able to be used to test for significant

differences between one group and another.

A number of dimensions of valuation were needed on which

comparisons could be made.   It was decided not to include a list

of classic values of organisation development described earlier.

This was because it was felt that such a design would have been

too indicative to respondents of the hypotheses under consideration.

Secondly, as recounted earlier, organisation development consultants

have been observed to hold varying value sets.   Thirdly,

some values in the literature of organisation development would

not have been relevant for respondents' parents.   Thus a decision

was made to produce a list of value dimensions which would be

relevant to change agents, but unambiguous and sufficiently

disguised that the respondents would remain in ignorance of the

hypotheses and hence not distort data.   This also meant that the

value dimensions were more of a general "life" nature than being

specifically wedded to the world of work.   Two sets of values

were considered, one theoretically derived and the other empirically

derived.   Firstly, Flacks' (1967) list of values was considered.

These were:

> Romanticism
>
> Intellectualism
>
> Humanitarianism
>
> Moralism

All correlated highly with student activism and were empirically

derived from the analysis of a series of interviews of student

activists which related own to parental values.

The second set of values considered were those developed
by Spranger (1951) who classified types of men by their
"evaluative attitudes". Richardson (1965) after Allport et al,
criticises this original work for

> "holding a somewhat flattering view of human nature.
> He does not allow for formless or valueless personalities,
> nor for those who follow an expedient or hedonistic
> philosophy of life. The neglect of sheerly sensuous
> values is a special weakness to his typology. His
> attempt to reduce hedonistic choices partly to economic
> and partly to aesthetic values seems unconvincing". (p.3.)

Nevertheless, Spranger's categorisation has been widely used
over the years it has been operable and, as a set of dimensions,
provides a useful contribution. The dimensions themselves are
as follows:

> Aesthetic
>
> Theoretical
>
> Social
>
> Religious
>
> Economic
>
> Political

The final set of values on which own and perceived parental
comparisons were made combined the two lists of value dimensions
into the following list of six dimensions:

a) Ideas, theories and understanding - the intellectual side of life.

b) Feelings and emotions - the emotional side of life.

c) Interpersonal and group relationships - the social side of life.

d)   Spiritual belief – the religious side of life.

e)   The way society is and should be organised – the political

      side of life.

f)   Wealth, material goods and services – the economic side of

      life.

      This list of values was used in asking each respondent to

"think of yourself with regard to each and then rate both of your

parents according to whether you see them having a higher, a

lower, or about the same concern as yourself for each".   Thus the

respondent was asked to reveal something of his intrapersonal

dynamics by providing a comparison between the adult and parent

ego states with regard to the dimensions.

Administration

      The instrument was piloted on ten respondents all of whom were

practising organisation development consultants or researchers in

organisation development.   The phraseology of the instructions was

changed once as a result of this pilot, several words being used

instead of "concern".   Eventually it was decided to use "concern",

as this seemed to reflect the content free emphasis that respondents

and their parents may put on the values to be used.   Also in this

pilot three methods of gathering the data were used with the pilot

group:

a)   Postal – here the respondents reported that the time given

      to think through their responses often led them into areas

      of ambiguity in the dimensions.   They had some difficulty

      in making the global judgements required, the instrument

      becoming more of a tool for self-analysis than a research

      instrument.   This relates to the earlier point regarding

      the instrument being a broad measure rather than providing

      detailed data on any individual respondent.

b) Face-to-face interview schedule - here the respondents had little difficulty and responses were quite smooth. However, the presence of the researcher often provided a situation in which discussion, sometimes verging on counselling, took place. In a minority of cases there was a tendency to embark on these discussions in the middle of the interview. This resulted in more data being generated than required.

c) Interview schedule by telephone. This seemed to be the best method tried as the contact allowed discussion of ambiguities, but the constraint of the 'phone seemed to have the effect of limiting the response to the required data without embarking on long historical discussions.

One last point that was learned from the pilot interviews was that the overlap between dimensions and the generic nature of each dimension should be stated to the respondent at the start. This seemed to produce a more realistic contract for the data required in which respondents were better prepared to make general judgements.

As a result of this pilot it was decided to use telephone interviews where possible, and face-to-face administration where this was not possible. This had the added advantage of facilitating data collection by reducing the travelling time of the researcher.

Sample

The research sample was chosen randomly from those individuals who had subscribed to the organisation development network in April, 1976. This was in contrast with the early research work of the thesis which had to define a population as no network existed. The existence of the network produced a situation of

ease of definition of organisation development consultant as all possible respondents were a self-selected sample. In terms of the overall project, this methodology was quite acceptable. A large proportion (80%) of those identified as organisation development consultants in the original survey of the chemical industry had enrolled as network members. Hence, selecting from the network produced a situation of easing administration without harming the continuity of the project. Twenty respondents were chosen, and in the event it was possible to contact twelve and collect data. All data was collected in confidence by telephone interview. It was explained to each respondent before the interview that individual data was of no value in isolation and only aggregated data was of use. Some respondents began by making only a tentative agreement to help, particularly when they realised the subject matter was so personal. There was, however, a surprising willingness to reveal data, and of those respondents who were contacted, none refused to complete the interview and all reported finding the interview and the use of the telephone a relatively painless way of collecting data and helping in research.

Two other groups were included in the research to provide some comparative data. These were both in-college largely post-experience groups who were comprised of managers working for part-time qualifications. One group comprised individuals working for the diploma in management studies. Their backgrounds were diverse and their present jobs were varied and included various business backgrounds as follows:

marketing management   - 2 respondents

librarian   - 2 respondents

organisation and methods - 2 respondents

line managers   - 3 respondents

training officers   - 2 respondents

social services   - 1 respondent

research and development - 1 respondent

The second group comprised individuals studying for the professional qualification of the Institute of Personnel Management. They were included in the survey to provide data from a group with a similar occupation and a similar role within the organisation. This was in contrast with the group reading the diploma in management studies who were included to provide data from a perspective of differing backgrounds and occupations.

Hence, support for hypotheses one or two could be found if there was a significantly greater agreement or disagreement between the own and perceived parental values on the six dimensions between the organisation development group in comparison with the other groups. It was decided that the analysis of data should reflect this primarily in terms of the individual dimensions but also with regard to the composite scores of the dimensions taken together.

Operationalisation of concepts and research design for hypothesis three

General approach

With regard to the values of organisation development consultants, hypothesis three relates the cognitive aspects of a particular value set together with the underlying emotional

causes.   By suggesting that certain cognitive beliefs serve as

protection against anxiety caused by events in external reality

triggering conflicts of an internal symbolic nature, this

hypothesis relates both cognitive values and internal emotional

dynamics.   Moreover, this hypothesis is concerned much more

directly than hypotheses one and two with unconscious phenomena.

The issue in question is less concerned with the respondent in

relation to his perceived parental figures (me in relation to

others) and more with his identity (me in relation to not-me).

This places immediate constraints upon the design discussed

earlier in the beginning of this chapter, regarding the problems

of psychodynamic enquiry.   It places impossible constraints on

asking direct questions which would be asking the respondent to

outline who he was not and why.   Hence the research design had

to incorporate indirect measures of the concepts involved and

so it was important to tie in such measures as close to the

theoretical constructs as possible in an attempt to overcome

problems of validity.   A number of alternative approaches to

the problem were considered:

a)   The solution of problems approach.   Here the approach

      was to present the respondent with a series of problems

      or short case studies and ask for his analysis and

      solutions.   These would then be analysed in terms of

      the psychodynamic constructs of Kleinian theory.   This

      approach had the advantages of providing questions to

      the respondent which accorded with his work frame and

      did not appear to be too psychoanalytic and off-putting.

      The disadvantages lay in devising cases or problem-situations

      which were sufficiently short yet rich in data to allow

the respondent to produce analysable responses. Whilst

the respondent may produce considerable data regarding the

content of the case or problem, it may prove extremely

difficult to relate this back to his values and in many

cases impossible except by the broadest inference to relate

this to his own emotional dynamics.

b) The psychophysical approach. Within psychiatric research,

both the psycho galvanometer (g.s.r.), used to measure

rapid changes in skin conductance, and the tachistoscope,

used to measure the speed of perceptual performance, have

been utilised. In fact some of the latest research on

schizophrenic patients has produced consistently peaked

responses to threatening stimuli which has been interpreted

as an overreaction from the respondent which causes high

levels of arousal followed in a short time by mechanisms

of denial and the consequent sharp fall-off in response.

The problems of validity still remain even with psycho-

physical measures. Although Woodworth and Schlosberg (1965)

suggest that to ask

> "whether or not the g.s.r. measures emotion .... (is)
>
> a poor question" (p.158)

there is still no agreement concerning the mechanisms causing

changes in skin conductance which psychophysical methods

may measure indirectly. Further problems were encountered

in piloting one of these methods with six teachers and

researchers in organisation development using a portable

tachistoscope.

Firstly there were physical problems with the

equipment, given the difficulties of controlling conditions

outside of the laboratory situation.   Secondly, the
method used was to produce stimuli of words of positive,
negative and neutral affect (matched for length and of
equal size, geographical location on the page and typeface)
in the expectation that the positive words would be seen
faster than the neutral words which, in turn, would be
seen faster than the negative words.   This was using
McGinnies' (1949) construct of perceptual defence.   Whilst
this proved to be true for some respondents, it was not
true for others who seemed to show the related phenomena
of perceptual vigilance by seeing the emotionally laden
words (both positive and negative) faster than the neutral
words.   This raised the further problem of their orienta-
tion to work and the role in which they worked being
important determiners of response quite apart from
personality.   For example, those working in systems
focussing on high levels of emotionality may respond
out of these essentially short term "habits" than any
longer personality trait.   This is a recurring problem
which has been referred to earlier and to which I will
return.   Thus, although psychophysical methods had been
used before in research on individual values (Postman et al,
1948;   and Bruner and Goodman, 1947) all of the above
problems, both theoretical and practical combined to make
this a very difficult strategy to implement in the present
research.

c)   Focal role strategy.   A third alternative strategy which
was explored was to view the organisation development
consultants in their organisations as holders of focal

roles. It would then be possible to explore the network
of affectual relations centring upon that focal role and
hence to view this affectual network in the light of
object relations theory. This approach has the advantage
of dealing with the respondent in the live situation
where data is available concerning his everyday work
relations. It has a major theoretical problem in
ensuring that any data collected is relevant to the
affectual nature of the theory. One major assumption
made is that role theory is extendable into the affectual
area. Again the problem of sociological versus psycho-
dynamic explanation causes difficulty. The research
question raises the issue of relevance of psychodynamic
causes, and this measure does not address that issue.
Whilst this approach may provide some interesting
descriptive data it does not allow for the possible
disconfirmation of hypothesis three as there is no direct
psychodynamic measure. It would be impossible to tell
whether organisation development consultants were seen in
a particular way because they were consultants in organisa-
tion development or because of their personality character-
istics. The probability is that it would be a combination
of the two. Quite apart from this theoretical problem,
the practical difficulties of gaining entry into host
organisations and obtaining personal data of an affectual
nature from organisation development consultants and others
in their organisations was seen as a major problem.

d)   Projective testing strategy. Unlike the previous strategy,
the idea of projective testing concentrates exclusively

on psychlogical variables.   Here the respondent can be taken

outside his everyday context and asked to respond in his own

idiosyncratic way to ambiguous stimuli, the result being taken

as a measure of personal characteristics.   Such an approach

would provide a more acceptable measure of hypothesis three

assuming that the content of the test could be related

directly to the variables in the theory.

Given this general summary of some of the strategies which

were considered to test hypothesis three, it was decided to pursue

strategy d) as this seemed to be the best strategy for investigating

psychodynamic variables directly.

Instrument design for hypothesis three

In order to design an instrument for use in testing hypothesis

three, one major problem was to overcome the effect of a reference

group based explanation and link the measure as directly as possible

into personality characteristics.   This was largely a problem of

deciding upon the stimulus to be given.   Early designs, in trying

to make any measure relevant for potential respondents working in

ongoing organisations, all found difficulties in producing stimuli

too specifically related to the role of the organisation development

consultant.

Finally, it was decided to use an existing psychological test

which was not directly related to the organisation development

consultant role and provided a highly ambiguous stimulus against

which to test the hypothesis.   It was hoped that this would limit

the impact of learned role responses and hence be tied as closely

as possible to more personal characteristics.   The test in question

was the Object Relations Technique (O.R.T.), (Phillipson, 1955, 1973)

a projective test designed "with sympathies" to Klein and Fairbairn's

theories of object relations and incorporating aspects of both
T.A.T. and Rorschach.   The test is based on certain assumptions
some of which are common to all projective tests, namely that

"an individual will select from the perceptual field and

structure what he selects, to fit with unconscious object

relations which in early life were phantasied in order to

satisfy a primitive need.   At the same time he will

characterize what he sees in terms of object relations

which have been built up in order to guard against the

consequences he might result from his unconscious wishes.

The individual will also attempt to obtain relief of

such unconscious tension systems without violating the

rules and logic imposed on him by his conscious awareness

of external reality.   Here his intellectual abilities

will be the chief mediators."   (Phillipson, 1955, p.13.)

Thus Phillipson identifies the relationship between the inner
psychic world, and the world of conscious external experience.
It is by using this test that the aim was to reduce the external
pressures on individual beliefs to a minimum in order to study the
inner psychic world in greater detail.   The issue then becomes one
of identifying clues or signposts to this world of inner experience.
Phillipson (1955) again provides an excellent summary -

".... in any situation where he is under the dominance of

unconscious phantasy, intellectual and ego efficiency will

be weakened and tension will thereby be increased rather

than controlled.   On the other hand, where the unconscious

tension is relatively easily relieved by defensive efforts,

a large measure of freedom and emotional resources are

available .... to use in reality-based relations with the

external world.   In such circumstances the individual's

"relations with other people will be guided more by a realistic appraisal of, and tolerance for, the individuality of others. Similarities and differences will be perceived for what they are rather than in terms of cues inviting the satisfaction of a primitive need, or representing a frustration of such needed relations, or intensifying related anxieties". (p.13.)

From this it is important to look for those aspects of response to the O.R.T. stimuli which contain a positive or negative affect, and particularly those aspects which tend to be repeated over the whole O.R.T. sequence. Here the blending of both the T.A.T. contribution of making the picture material and story directly concerned with relations between people, and Rorschach which provides sufficient ambiguity of stimulus to allow idiosyncratic interpretation, is particularly appropriate for the task in hand.

Structure of the Test

The test consists of three series (A, B and C) of four pictures each plus a blank card which is used as in the T.A.T. method. Within each of the three series, one, two, three person and group situations are presented to the respondent. These are presented with variations in the amount of structure and detail in the pictures varying from the A series which is presented with the human figures in vague silhouette, through the B series in sharp black and white contrast, to the C series which is much richer and uses colour, particularly intrusive red into soft/warm settings. Human figures purport to be ambiguous with regard to sex, expression of face, etc., and can, and are, interpreted in many ways. In general, however, the normative data suggests that the pictures tend to evoke conflictual human relationship themes although cues to these kind of themes are not given in the pictures.

Pictures are presented in a set sequence designed to avoid "sets" being created around the A, B or C series or the one, two, three person or group situations. Respondents are asked to construct stories emphasising

"how the situation came about, what is going on in the situation and how it turns out". (Phillipson, 1973, p.10.)

Prompting can be undertaken at the end of the first story or non-directively later if the respondent has difficulty.

Previous use of the Test

The O.R.T. has a primary use in the clinical setting, providing data for interpretation by a psychologist prior to analytic and therapeutic sessions. The test is designed, however, to be acceptable to both normal and clinical subjects. To this end, the test has been used in industrial selection situations and also as a research instrument although normative data concerning the latter is very limited. Response norms can be found in two studies, Phillipson (1955), who sampled fifty outpatients, and O'Kelly (1955, 1957). Three other studies have been made on hospitalised samples, Orme (1959) who compared male schizophrenics with Tavistock out-patients and a group of neurotics, Haskell (1961), who compared the aggressive content of O.R.T., Rorschach and T.A.T. protocols of schizophrenics with their observed behaviour and concluded O.R.T. was more highly correlated and Rayner and Hahn (1964) who found relatively more "successful" patients in psychotherapy could be distinguished from less "successful" patients on a number of dimensions. Two later studies are worthy of mention. Phillipson and Hopkins (1964) used the O.R.T. in relation with a tachistoscope and conclude with a number of findings which

"support the general assumption that the perceptual process reflects the dynamics of personality". (p. 13.)

Coleman (1969) has used the O.R.T. to investigate the development of perception of interpersonal relationships of grammar school boys during adolescence.

Thus the test has been used on both clinical and normal subjects and for analytic and research purposes. One important contribution which sought to provide summary data on O.R.T. in the clinical situation was that of Coleman, Elkan and Shooter (1970). A number of interesting points are made concerning the O.R.T. in action, and further reference will be made below to some of the findings.

O.R.T. and the values of organisation development consultants

The O.R.T. then was seen as a good method of gaining access to the inner emotional world exemplified in hypothesis three, but the problem still remained concerning the operational measures associated with the test. The fact that the test usually was used in a clinical setting where individual interpretation is all important and that there was little normative data led to problems in deciding what would be comparable norms for a group of organisation development consultants. The nature of the test was such that to inflict it on a sufficiently large random sample of the population at large to generate response norms was hardly realistic.

Coleman, Elkan and Shooter (1970) provided considerable help in this dilemma, as one of their aims was to

"ascertain whether particular features of the test

differentiate between clinical groups". (p.761.)

Effectively this meant the production of normative data on various dimensions for each of the clinical groups. Not only this, but the Coleman et al sample was selected on the basis of being clearly above average intelligence and aged between 17 and 39. Both of these criteria were not in disagreement with what is known and

believed about organisation development consultants (for example
see appendix 7, group A).   Further nearly three quarters of the
Coleman et al (1970) sample were men, again a proportion in a
similar direction to organisation development consultants.   In
such a difficult and sensitive area as this it would be spurious
to talk of control groups, but the data available from the Coleman
et al (1970) sample would not suggest that it is inappropriate to
compare findings from a sample of organisation development
consultants with those of the Coleman et al sample.

The actual details of the Coleman et al (1970) sample were
that seventy-two patients were tested comprising three in-patient
groups, eighteen neurotics (N), eighteen schizophrenics - non-
paranoid (S), twelve paranoid-schizophrenics (P) and twenty-four
out-patients (OP).   One further piece of relevant information from
this sample was that

> "except on the first card only the material preceding the
> psychologist's prompting .... (was) taken down ....   Material
> from the blank card has not been considered in the present
> study.   All protocols are of subjects who were given all
> twelve picture cards." (p.763.)

All of these points were observed in the present research.

Coleman et al analysed the types of interactions (in behaviour,
thought or feeling) between persons seen or introduced no matter
how many were introduced into each story.   The categories used were
as follows:

a)   Constructive - showing positive valuation of their object,
       including nurturant, dependent, constructive domination
       (teaching, guiding, persuading, etc.), sexual interactions.

b)   Hostile - showing attack or devaluation of object, included
       rejecting or aggressive relationships.   Hostile sexual

interactions (rape) and hostile observation (spying) were
included under aggression.

c) <u>Neutral</u> - superficial interactions or observation.

d) <u>Nil</u> - no interaction stated.

a) and b) were grouped together as emotionally toned inter-
actions for one level of analysis and compared with the neutral
and nil classifications for each of the four clinical groups.   The
scores for each of the four clinical groups were as follows:

Mean number of interactions per respondent in each clinical group

	Hostile	Constructive	Total Emotional	Neutral	Nil
OP	3.0	3.1	6.1	2.3	4.8
N	2.4	4.9	7.4	2.7	4.4
S	2.2	3.1	5.3	2.7	5.1
P	1.2	2.6	3.9	2.7	6.2

(Coleman et al, p.775.)

Only the O.P. group gave as many hostile as constructive
interactions.   Particularly the P. group produced less that 50%
hostile interactions in comparison to constructive interactions.
This would not be an unexpected finding in terms of the use of
paranoid-schizoid defences which would predict an over-emphasis
on the constructive side of social life at the expense of the hostile
which would be denied and split off, and is hence unavailable to
conscious thought.   This situation may be particularly so due to
the stress of the test situation.   The S. and P. groups both
produced fewer emotionally toned interactions than the O.P. and N.
groups, particularly the P. group which is in line with the well-
known guardedness of this group.   Thus the P. group would seem to
have two characteristics based on these findings.   Firstly a hostile/
constructive ratio of approximately 1:2 and secondly a low total
emotional score.

Hypothesis three argues that organisation development consultants are employing paranoid-schizoid defences. This is not to say that organisation development consultants are identical to the P. group, but that they have a disposition to employ such mechanisms without the low ability of the P. group to express emotionally toned interactions. Hence the measures to be used regarding the organisation development consultants is a constructive/ hostile ratio of 2:1. This is in line with Kleinian theory regarding the denial and splitting of aggression and would provide support for the source of organisation development consultant values being in the operation of these mechanisms from a non-organisational and purely psychic point of view. If this is the case, it would provide important evidence to be viewed in the light of the interpretation from a Kleinian viewpoint of the organisation development literature and the initial non-directive interviews with organisation development consultants from which this line of thinking sprang.

Sample

The operational definition of organisation development consultant was all those on the list of organisation development network members as at 1st April, 1976. As for hypotheses i) and ii), the criteria for inclusion in the research was that the respondent should be on that network list. Thus the total population was self-selecting. The assumption made here was that all of those attracted to, and becoming participating members in this organisation could provide useful research subjects for this hypothesis which suggested a similarity of psychodynamics among them.

Nevertheless a random sample was not possible for a number of reasons. Firstly the test itself was considered somewhat threatening and although random sampling was tried, it was found more

appropriate to enter into an "opting-in" strategy which meant, to some extent working where it was possible. A second criterion was to minimise travelling for the researcher as this was part-time research only. Ideally this would not have been taken into account.

Given these criteria the sample consisted of thirteen organisation development consultants in three groups of three in three separate organisations. One group was employed in a large hospital authority and two with a large chemical company although in separate independent divisions on separate sites. A further two constituted an ad hoc group of one student and one lecturer at Sheffield Polytechnic, neither of whom had any knowledge of the test or the wider research. One final respondent worked as a private organisation development consultant. One response was eliminated as only half the test protocol was completed. The age range was from 27 to 45 with a mean of 34. As in the Coleman et al study, evidence of participation in higher education was taken as a measure of intelligence. All had done this, ten to degree level or beyond.

In order to facilitate comparison, a second group of twelve O.R.T.'s was carried out on a group of college lecturers. This group had an age range of 26 to 50 with a mean of 36. The criteria for choosing this group was a willingness to participate and a lack of knowledge and experience in the use of projective tests (some lecturers who could have been used had this knowledge). As a result, specialists from a number of non-behavioural science backgrounds were included. The discipline backgrounds were as follows,

marketing	- 4 respondents
general management	- 2 respondents
statistics	- 1 respondent
economics	- 1 respondent
operations management	- 1 respondent
finance	- 3 respondents

Test administration and analysis

All tests were administered uninterrupted and responses were tape recorded. Five of the first group and all of the second were administered at Sheffield Polytechnic. Others were given "on-site". In two cases (the large chemical company), a company contact liased to provide respondents. This helped the process of contracting for time, problems of relevance and minimised travelling. All tests were started by the researcher reading the instructions (p.10, O.R.T.) to the respondent. Occasionally a respondent asked for clarification after A1 (number 1) but this was very rare. Test protocols were copied out longhand from tape recordings and analysis was carried out from these copies.

The analysis of the test was completed using two comparisons. Firstly the organisation development consultants were compared with the lecturers. This gave a comparison of two professional groups of "normals", but was insufficient to draw conclusions by itself. Differences between the two groups could be explained by deviations within the organisation development group or lecturers. A second measure was needed to monitor the direction of any difference between the two groups and it was here that the earlier work on norms proved useful.

A further comparison was made by comparing the organisation development group scores with those scores outlined earlier of the four clinical groups studied by Coleman et al (1970). This comparison was facilitated by the twenty-four O.R.T. protocols being scored according to Coleman et al's original criteria. This scoring was done by one of the original authors* who was instructed to score all twenty-four of the protocols using the same criteria and in the same way as the scoring on the original clinical groups had been done.

*Geoffrey Elkan, Senior Clinical Psychologist, Paddington Centre
for Psychotherapy.

This method of analysis would give information, therefore, not only on the constructive/hostile ratio, but also on the similarity or otherwise of the organisation development group and other professional and clinical groups.

CHAPTER VIII.

Analysis and Interpretation of Results

This chapter will recount the analyses of results pertinent
to hypotheses i), ii) and iii), (see p.197). It will begin by
considering hypotheses i) and ii), firstly in making some comments
regarding the comparability of groups studied and secondly by
interpreting the results of the main measures of hypotheses i) and ii).
Hypothesis iii) will then be considered both in terms of analysis
and interpretation of results, including the implications for
further research and for organisation development.

Hypotheses i) and ii).

a) Comparability of groups studied. A copy of the schedule
used can be found in appendix 18. As can be seen, certain
information was requested from respondents before perceptions of
parents were discussed. This was for a number of reasons, one
of which was to make comparisons between responding groups
(organisation development group; I.P.M. group; D.M.S. group)
which may have shown important similarities and differences
against which to view any findings. The findings regarding
this data was as follows:

i) Age There was a significant difference on this dimension
between the organisation development group and the other two
groups. The mean ages for the three groups were as shown
below.

	O.D.	I.P.M.	D.M.S.
Mean age	41.8	25.4	28.8

This difference is further shown in grouping ages around thirty years. Here it can be seen that there is a high probability that the organisation development group are drawn from a different population ($X^2 = 16.8587$, $p < 0.01$) (see appendix 19).

This was not altogether unexpected considering the populations being compared, although the differences were somewhat greater than expected. This was brought about by the organisation development group containing a surprisingly high number of those over forty years and the other two groups a high number of those under twenty-five years.

Findings such as these have implications for the research. Whilst it is difficult to predict the influences which higher means may have on perceptions of parental beliefs, one may suggest that increasing age may result in increased difficulties of recall particularly for those whose parents are deceased. Whether there are natural developmental processes going on during the years in question which could affect perceptions is a further point.

ii) Education. This criterion was considered under the areas of general education in which a division was made between graduates and non-graduates. A division also was made between those with a formal qualification in social science (certificate, diploma or degree) and those without. Neither of these criteria showed differences between the groups involved ($X^2 = 3.359$ for the former and 0.144 for the latter). Thus the populations were comparable on these dimensions (see appendix 20).

iii) <u>Type of family</u>   This was classified under three headings, nuclear (respondent, mother, father, other siblings), extended (as nuclear plus other relatives), and one parent. The results were as follows:

	Family of Origin		
	Nuclear	Extended	One parent
O.D.	7	1	2
I.P.M.	13	2	0
D.M.S.	6	5	0

The I.P.M. group had the highest nuclear classification whereas the D.M.S. group had the highest extended classification. The organisation development group were highest on the one parent classification.   With such small samples these cannot be regarded as significaht findings but did reflect a difference in the background of the populations.

iv) <u>Family mobility</u>   Respondents were asked how many times they had been involved in changing location of their home during the period birth to ten years.   Apart from providing data with regard to the family backgrounds of respondents in the various groups, mobility at this time, with all the needs to make rapid adjustments and remake social relationships can be seen as an factor in the childhood of social scientists later to be involved in organisational change.   The data was classified into less than two changes of home and three to five changes. Whilst the organisation development group had the highest number of people in the three to five group, this was not significantly higher than the I.P.M. or D.M.S. groups $(\chi^2 = 4.377)$ (see appendix 21).

v)   <u>Class background</u>   This was obtained by asking respondents the occupations of their father and mother during the period birth to five years.   In the event, data on mother was not used due to the small sample (most mothers were housewives).   Analysis was taken from the classification of occupations and produced the following data.

	Social Class						
	I	II	III N	III M	IV	V	None
O.D.	4	0	1	3	2	0	2
I.P.M.	0	0	1	7	5	1	1
D.M.S.	2	0	1	7	1	1	1

There were some differences between the organisation development group and the other two groups in class structure with markedly more organisation development people having a class I background and fewer a class III background during their early formative years.   A much larger sample would be required to determine the significance of this.

b)   <u>Results of perceptions of parental beliefs in relation to own beliefs of organisation development consultants</u>

The results of this question were analysed in three ways. Firstly, X^2 was computed for each dimension and for both perceptions of mother (M) and father (F) values in relation to own values. Secondly, the data was collapsed to compute X^2 for each dimension but with a joint MF score which may be termed a parental score (P).

Both of these calculations utilised a same/different classification between own and perceived parental beliefs and regarding difference scores no division was made concerning the direction of difference. Thirdly the data was collapsed to produce a total own/F perception and a total own/M perception. This was done by obtaining on each dimension the number of times a difference (D) was scored and then calculating X^2 for the D scores. These three different methods were used as they measure different aspects of the respondent/parent relationship. However, the main measure was taken to be the M and F score on each individual dimension. Grouping the data produced an interesting but at this stage inconclusive picture.

The results of these analyses were as follows.

M.F. X^2 scores taken by dimension		
Dimension	M X^2 values	F X^2 values
1. Intellectual side of life	1.82	2.67
2. Emotional side of life	4.14	4.86
3. Social side of life	0.53	0.58
4. Religious side of life	0.17	2.53
5. Political side of life	0.46	0.62
6. Economic side of life	2.95	5.10

None of these scores were significant (.01 $<$ p $>$ .05). Hence this analysis suggested no relationship between own or perceived parental belief systems on the six dimensions in question. This result suggested no support for hypotheses i) or ii) in that the self-perceptions of the three groups on these dimensions were neither significantly similar nor different from perceptions of parental beliefs.

Collapsing the data according to the second method of analysis the results were as follows.

P. X^2 scores taken by dimension	
Dimension	P X^2 values
1. Intellectual side of life	3.78
2. Emotional side of life	4.16
3. Social side of life	1.41
4. Religious side of life	1.43
5. Political side of life	0.68
6. Economic side of life.	7.67

Again none of these results differentiated between the populations except for a weak relationship on dimension 6, the economic side of life. Here the organisation development group could be differentiated from the other two groups ($X^2 = 7.67$ $.01 < p < 0.05$). The analysis of this weak relationship was not taken any further at this stage as the overall pattern was similar to the initial analysis with no support for either hypotheses i) or ii).

Using the third method of analysing the data gave a picture of the overall F and M perceptions in comparison with that of the respondents. Analysis of the data showed that when grouped centrally (0 - 3 and 4 - 6 D scores) there was no significant relationship between own and perceived F beliefs on the dimensions used ($X^2 = 2.6$). With regard to own/M beliefs, a weak relationship was found ($X^2 = 8.07$, $0.01 < p < 0.05$), (see appendix 22). Again it was the organisation development group who were dissimilar to the other two groups in that they had a higher number of

D scores between their own and perceived M beliefs than those
in the other groups.

With regard to hypotheses i) and ii) it can be said that
overall no strong evidence was found to support either of the
hypotheses.   Certain weak connections could be found within
the data when grouped to measure P scores or to summarise F and
.M scores, but the basic measure of producing M and F scores for
each dimension produced nothing of significance.   These findings
would seem to support Keniston's views that although popularly
held, the two hypotheses in question are inadequate not only
for use regarding student radicals as he suggests but also with
regard to organisation development consultants.

Hypothesis iii)

Some evidence regarding this hypothesis has already been
produced in the sections concerned with analysing the organisation
development literature from a Kleinian perspective (see pp. 146-161)
and also the re-analysis of the focussed interviews with organisation
development consultants (see pp. 161-175).   With regard to the
testing of this hypothesis using the O.R.T., two major analyses
were made.

The first compared the scores of the organisation development
consultant group with the clinical groups of Coleman (1968).
All O.R.T. protocols were scored using the classification of
interactions used by Coleman.   The ratio of constructive (C) to
hostile (H) interactions was then computed and compared with the
similar ratio for Coleman's paranoid group.   Coleman's outpatient
group provided a baseline comparison of "normals" for both the
organisation development consultant ratio and also the paranoid
group ratio.   A further C : H ratio was computed for the

comparison group of college lecturers.   The resulting ratios
were as follows:

	Coleman groups		Research groups	
	Outpatients	Paranoids	O.D.consultants	Lecturers
C : H ratio	1.03 : 1	2.16 : 1	1.68 : 1	1 : 1

A number of interesting points emerge from this.   Firstly
there is the almost identical core of the outpatient and lecturer
ratios at approximately 1 : 1.   This ability to produce a balanced
set of constructive and hostile interactions provides excellent
comparison for the other groups.   The ratio of the paranoid
group was very high by comparison, and although the organisation
development consultant group ratio was somewhat below this, the
ratio was tending strongly in the direction of the paranoid group.
If the very high ratio of the paranoid group is explained by their
denial of the hostile/aggressive aspects of relationships then
there would seem to be some support for the idea that the same
is true of organisation development consultants although not to
quite the same extent.

The second measure used regarding this hypothesis compared
the organisation development consultant group with the group of
college lecturers on two further scores.   These were:

a) C + H score.   This gave a total emotional (T.E.) score, and
measured the quantity of emotional interaction.

b) C - H score.   This gave a qualitative measure of type of
emotional interaction.

I expected no difference between the two groups on the T.E.
score, but a significant difference on the C - H score.   These
expectations were in contrast with Coleman's (1968) findings

regarding the low T.E. score of his paranoid group (they scored the lowest of all groups). In other words the organisation development consultants would not exhibit the well-known guardedness of the paranoid group. This raises an important point with regard to the organisation development consultants, namely, that whilst it was expected that they operate certain paranoid defences in their interactions, they will not manifest all characteristics of the paranoid group. This is a distinction which is discussed at greater length by Fairbairn (1966, pp. 3-6).

With regard to the results of these two scores, both were as expected. The T.E. scores for both the organisation development consultant and lecturer group showed no significant differences (U = 74, see appendix 23), whereas the C - H score showed a highly significant result (U = 36, p < .025, see appendix 24). Thus it was the quality rather than the quantity of emotional output which differentiated the organisation development consultant group from the lecturers.

CHAPTER IX.

Summary and Conclusions: the Contribution of the Research

Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to highlight the contribution
made by this thesis to knowledge in the area.   It will use as
a framework a similar classification of the areas of work
within the thesis as those outlined in the introduction,
namely a discussion of the early survey research (including
other descriptive findings) and its findings, the findings of
the focussed interviews, and finally some conclusions regarding
the three hypotheses tested in the later stages of the work.
The implications for organisation development consultants and
organisation development in general is included, along with a
discussion of further research requirements.   A note is made
regarding the contribution made by this work to the under-
standing of the research process.

Overall the major aim of the thesis was to investigate
the characteristics of organisation development consultants,
but, as stated in the synopsis, the precise nature of the
research objectives varied during such a protracted project
before focussing on organisation development consultant values.
Consequently, the early research not only produced findings
which contributed to knowledge of the demographic details of
organisation development consultants (chapters I and II) but
also served the function of contributing to the theoretical
perspective adopted in chapters V and VI and the subsequent
hypotheses aimed at exploring the aetiology of the values of
organisation development consultants.   This was mainly via
the process of producing negative research findings but a

positive aspect also was involved. This was brought about by the involvement of the researcher with practising organisation development consultants (reported specifically in chapter III) which led to a sharply increased understanding of respondents and provided a relatively easy way of testing theoretical perspectives and grounding them in the experience of the organisation development consultants.

The literature search which resulted in the dependency and counterdependency hypotheses can be seen as part of this process of moving toward an object relations perspective which was put forward strongly at the end. The contribution of this section (reported in chapter IV) was to obtain from the literature of organisation development and related fields any insights into the kinds of variables which were felt to be significant for organisation development consultants as a result of survey and particularly interview data (chapters I, II and III). Many of these led to dead ends. Others provided possible theoretical perspectives and consequent research avenues such as studies of authoritarianism and the many tests developed in the area. However, in many cases, the theoretical perspective was not felt to be appropriate or novel and sometimes the sheer logistics of the necessary design did not provide a practical way for the research to proceed. In the end, the combination of literature search and experience of talking with organisation development consultants in the field produced a situation whereby the aim of the research became focussed upon the dependency and counter-dependency hypotheses as possible sources of values of organisation development consultants. Although these hypotheses were felt to be "inadequate", there was little systematic work done on them in other contexts and none at all in relation to organisation

development consultants. It was felt that this provided a place to start and "clear the ground" in terms of investigating psychodynamic variables. The fact that these hypotheses were described as "inadequate" in a separate context did not seem to detract from their possible veracity in the context of organisation development consultants, although experience of talking with actual respondents tended rather to support Keniston's (1968) opinion.

It was with this in mind that the object relations view was developed. This was a new approach to the area and occurred not only because of the dissatisfaction with existing theory but also because of certain personal experiences reported in chapter V. It was during this period that the relation between learning about oneself and learning about the World can be seen at its strongest and the importance of self-knowledge for those involved in social science research can be seen at its most important in this example in contributing to objectivity.

The object relations approach and its application to the aetiology of organisation development consultant values can be found in chapters V and VI and to some extent in chapter VII which evaluated and described the methodologies assessed and adopted for the testing of the three major hypotheses. The testing of the object relations hypothesis was problematic insofar as it suffered the inferential problems of all psychodynamic enquiry. Hence it was decided to adopt a direct measure of emotionality (the object relations test) and compare findings with other clinical and non-clinical groups in order to test for similarities and differences which could be predicted from the theory, and then to reanalyse both

interview data (chapter III) and the organisation development
and related literature (chapter IV). This analysis is
reported in chapter VI and is included as supporting evidence
for the major findings reported in chapter VIII regarding the
object relations approach and again later in this chapter.
The consequences and importance both for organisation
development consultants and organisation development theory
are discussed later in this chapter.

The survey research and other descriptive findings

Prior to this piece of work little was known about the
types of individual who were working in organisation development
in England. This early research adopted an atheoretical
approach, investigating the field in order to produce
descriptive findings of organisation development consultants
which would contribute to knowledge and help in identifying
areas for theory development and subsequent hypothesis testing.
It utilised a strictly operational definition of organisation
development consultants because, at this time, there was no
professional body with which to identify the group, and a
reputational survey would have identified and produced data
on some but not others. Accordingly, organisation development
consultants were defined as those who perceived themselves as
having the requisite knowledge and role according to certain
controlled criteria. Data on four groupings of trainers in
the chemical industry were produced, but reported here is a
summary of the main findings of the organisation development
group as this was the group of prime interest.

This research characterised these people in 1972 as
having two component groups, a young recently trained group

of three to five years experience and a second group pre-
dominantly in the 40/45 age range who had worked in the
training function eleven to twenty years. Both groups
tended to work in large organisations with plentiful
resources and had a high level representation for their
function (usually training in this case) within the
organisation. They were situated high in the hierarchy
and tended to be well qualified but not necessarily in the
social sciences. This latter finding was confirmed later
in the research when some demographic data was collected
from three groups prior to testing the first two major
hypotheses. Here, no significant difference was found
between the organisation development, personnel management
and general management groups in terms of the social science
qualifications.

This later research was concerned to provide comparability
information on the three groups studied in testing the depend-
ency and counter-dependency hypotheses. However, it did provide
interesting data which both extended and added to the informa-
tion gained in the initial survey work, particularly by asking
questions in the area of family and class background. Whilst
no findings of statistical significance emerged, the organisa-
tion development group contained some differences. Firstly
the organisation development group had the highest one-parent
classification. Secondly this group reported the highest
number of changes of parental home (family mobility). Both
of these may suggest an overriding classification of "family
traumatic event" in early and middle childhood, and this could
be related to paranoid-schizoid mechanisms.

Another important aspect of the descriptive work was the
data on class background. Following other findings on change

agents (Flacks, 1967; Keniston, 1967, 1971; Bay, 1967) a
high proportion of organisation development consultants came
from social class I. Although this data was concerned with
early formative years, these findings are in line with the
widely accepted view that change agents do not emerge from
the "oppressed masses" but rather from the "well-educated
middle classes".

Overall, this survey data can be seen as providing a
useful and interesting background on organisation development
consultants. It has produced some surprising results,
notably the lack of social science qualifications of organisa-
tion development consultants and the large proportion in
organisation development work in the age range 40-45 years
(this was true in both the early survey research and the survey
work in relation to hypothesis testing conducted some five
years later). An important finding was the high level
representation of the particular function of the individual
within his organisation. This was seen to support the then
predominant view of "top down" organisation development. A
final contribution worthy of note is the social class data,
which reinforces many other findings on the class derivation
of social change agents.

Findings from the focussed interviews

Two major contributions resulted from the analysis of the
focussed interview data. Firstly,and contrary to previous
expectations held by the researcher at the time, the content
of ideals held by the organisation development consultants,
although possessing some important similarities was found to
be not as striking in the responses as the tendency and
ability to idealise. Secondly, the most consistent finding

regarding the content of the organisation development consultant responses concerned the hindering forces around their self image, notably shyness.

It must be reiterated that whilst some objective measures existed for the view taken (length of response, etc.) it must be said that an element of justification lay in the impression created on the researcher at the time. The type of question asked must also have been an important point, although identical methodology was used with both change and maintenance groups and other research quoted supported the finding. Nevertheless, the strength of the impression created was sufficient to influence significantly the direction of this research. These two findings were consistent with those mentioned by other writers in chapter III, namely the "idealistic" finding of Prakash (1968) and the discrepancy between actual and ideal self to which Daccord (1967) refers. Both of these findings can be interpreted using an object relations frame, the Prakash (1968) finding providing some evidence of idealisation and the easy access to this utopian world, and Daccord providing descriptive evidence of splitting and its relationship to paranoid-schizoid mechanisms.

The findings from the three major hypotheses

With regard to hypotheses i) and ii), the dependency and counter-dependency hypotheses (see page 198/9), no evidence was found which could be interpreted as generally supportive even though some weak correlations could be discovered by grouping the data in various ways. For example certain groupings of the data produced a significant finding concerning the organisation development consultant's perception

of his parents as a pair regarding the economic dimension of
wealth, material goods and services. A second grouping
suggested a weak relationship regarding the organisation
development consultants' perception of their mothers on the
dimensions provided. The first finding was surprising,
particularly in the light of the age composition of the
organisation development group who tended to be older and,
one may speculate, less prone to rejection of parental
economic values. Nevertheless it was interesting that of
the fourteen D-scores on this dimension, only two saw a
parent as having a lower concern for wealth, material goods
and services than themselves. Regarding the second finding
mentioned above, no explanation can be made for this weak
relationship at this time, and further investigation would
be needed to rule out chance findings due to grouping the
data. At this time, however, the only conclusion which can
be drawn is that hypotheses i) and ii) are drawn from theories
which, although widely held, have little empirical support for
organisation development consultants.

Hypothesis iii), the split-ego hypothesis, seems to
present more possibilities. The literature search and
reanalysis of the focussed interviews provided some support
for this hypothesis, but this was open to other interpretations
such as reference group theory. However, the content of the
value system expressed in the literature could certainly be
interpreted as organisation development consultants adopting
a paranoid position, as analysed in chapter VI. The O.R.T.
findings provide powerful support of this hypothesis. The
highly significant C - H score vis-a-vis the lecturers shows
distinct differences in the populations. The content of

those differences in relation to the corroborative evidence of the lecturers' C : H ratio being the same as the outpatients' (approximately) and the organisation development consultants' C : H ratio tending toward the paranoids gives strong support to the general argument which resulted in hypothesis iii). The O.R.T. data gives empirical support for the psychodynamic findings and cuts across any alternative interpretations of the findings based on reference group theory. Thus there would seem to be some empirical support for hypothesis iii). Even so one must reiterate the point made earlier concerning the falsifiability of hypotheses. It has been accepted all through that hypothesis iii) was open to testing only at the "sociological" level, and outside the consulting room it is not possible to establish the impact of emotional dynamics on professional behaviour. Nevertheless the convergence of findings produces a strong inference of support for hypothesis iii). Whilst testing of relations between emotional dynamics and professional behaviour is theoretically testable at an individual level, in practice, however, it is hardly likely that respondents could be found to indulge in this kind of research. It may be that a design could be produced given actual or remembered experiences during the training or developmental experiences of the respondent but controls with this kind of research would be difficult in the extreme.

Given these findings, it is possible to speculate on their implications for organisation development and to specify research which would be necessary to monitor and investigate the situation.

Implications for organisation development and further research

a) Consequences for organisation development consultants

Here one can divide the consequences into two, those concerned with recruitment and selection, and those concerned with training. With regard to the former, a prime concern has to be the ability of the individual to handle openly hostile/aggressive feelings inside himself and hence inside others. Data on this can be gathered from O.R.T., or from other projective tests, or from interview data, but in situations where this is denied and there is a history of disturbed object relations, considerable developmental work would be necessary for the individual involved to be able to achieve sufficient integration to consult effectively. Further research using O.R.T. may provide some significant predictors of this phenomenon. Analysis of individual cards, groups of cards or series may prove to be significant predictors for organisation development consultants.

Secondly, there are consequences for the training of organisation development consultants. The aim of training must be to produce integration of aggressive/hostile feelings. Training experiences focussing on power, authority and influence can provide major vehicles for learning particularly if coupled with opportunities to explore personal reactions and to work in intense situations on the denied and accepted parts of the self. This is an important part of training work, and it would seem that many traditional therapeutic techniques are useful but it may be that gestalt therapy techniques have particular importance in this connection. These imply not only the individual producing his own data at his own pace, but also take into account the importance of displacement onto

various parts of the body and the projective nature of many defences. It is important to note from this research that further training using techniques vested in the value system already accepted by the recipient would not make a marked contribution to the integration of the individual. Learning in this area is essentially a painful business which necessitates no collusions in avoidance between tutor and student. One further point here is the possibility of using action research designs for this work, where data could be collected to further knowledge and be used to facilitate the development of the trainee.

b)   Relations with clients

Because of the paranoid-schizoid mechanisms, interpersonal relations become disturbed. If these mechanisms are in operation then one can predict a certain symbiosis regarding the nature of consulting relationships. Although this sometimes may prove useful, in many cases, due to the content of the denied aspect of the self, relations will be grossly hindered, partial, or even broken. The unconscious nature of the process ensures that this will be both true of work and other relations. One may hypothesise the locating of hostile aspects in particular clients ("this would be a fine organisation if only we could get rid of those bureaucrats at the top") or the splitting of clients into "good guys" and "bad guys". In both cases the effect is for the organisation development consultant to limit his activities to those parts of the organisation which are accepting of his accepted value system. He enters the collusion, due to his own lack of integration, of becoming the focus of some unwanted managerial values (usually in the areas of openness and trust), just as he is using some aspects of the organisation

to represent denied aspects of himself. This produces an unchanging situation in which hostilities pass as interpretations from one side to another. Neither is able to learn.

Whether this is happening is a testable area. Indeed, it was considered as one way of testing hypothesis iii). It does require opportunities to enter organisations with a view to monitoring organisation development consultant/client interactions and obtaining the perceptions and feelings of each about the other. Some interpretation may be needed as the analysis concerns rejected as well as accepted feelings.

c)   Broader issues in organisation development

In discussing implications of any work, there is always danger in extending the argument too far. Concepts devised for one level of theory often lose their relevance as new variables are introduced and the argument extended. Having said this, I feel that it is important not to leave this thesis as a basically negative document which, in the nature of the research performed, has tended to focus on those aspects of organisation development consultancy which are not done well.

Firstly it is important to consider whether the issues raised are transitory or long term issues. Any new activity goes through certain phases in its development and requires various dominant values and paradigms which become less functional and change as the activity grows. Invariably, early developments attract "true believers" who have an important role to play. A sociological or anthropological longitudinal study of organisation development would be an important contribution to this.

Secondly, and lastly, in the ultimate, these implications would seem to lead toward a new paradigm in organisation

development. This would be dominated by a heavy diagnostic emphasis in which scientific values emphasising discovery of valid data supersede humanistic values emphasising intervention and end states (Tranfield et al, 1975). This diagnosis would then be used as a basis for joint planning (or client planning) with intervention being based on idiosyncratic design rather than pre-packaging. The ultimate outcome would be an improvement in socio-technical matching as defined by the client.

Such a strategy for organisation development is not value free, but the values inherent in it allow for much more pragmatic, contingency based development, than those which seem to be held and used by many organisation development consultants at present. In order to come about, such a strategy requires, not only the academic and behavioural science training of practitioners, but also their emotional integration.

Some contributions to the research process

This thesis began by discussing the resources which were available to undertake the work. The part-time nature of the study became an increasingly important variable as time went by. Moreover, the impact of this part-time work was exacerbated by the topic area, psychodynamics, which was under consideration. These two taken together led to two important contributions which should not be missing from a concluding chapter.

Firstly there was the realisation of the fact that the unconscious processes of the researcher himself are a prime influence on the research. One contributon made by this thesis is in the nature of objectivity. It is unusual to read a piece of scientific work in which the author is

prepared to attempt to analyse some of the grosser distortions or interpretations of the data stemming from some aspect of himself or to discuss the derivation of particular theories or hypotheses. Whilst these ideas are not new in methodological debate, this thesis has attempted to include some of this data in practice.

Secondly, and related to the first point, the individual researcher is a variable. This plays a particular part regarding the psychology of knowledge for as the individual decides each question to be asked, and the methods he intends to use to answer it, so he learns something about himself and his own psychological processes. These necessarily affect his thinking next time, and may affect his self in areas other than research. The impact of the personal development of the researcher is very apparent in this piece of research. The problems of objectivity are significant given this view.

It seems to me that the implications of these points are for that part of the research process which places emphasis not only on hypothesis testing but also on hypothesis generation. Not only fieldwork and literature searches, but also personal work may be required in any piece of research work, certainly in terms of research training in the social sciences, and particularly in the area of psychodynamic research.

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APPENDIX 1.

Definitions

*Training Manager/Director.

Has overall responsibility for the direction of training policy
and plays an important part in its formulation. He should be a
training specialist or have a wide understanding of industrial training.

*Training Officer.

The specialist who acts at the focal point for advice and
executive action on the training function in an organisation. They
may cover a whole range of occupations or specialise in one or more.

Internal Organisation Development Consultant (Change Agent).

The specialist concerned with diagnosing, planning, implementing
and reviewing changes in organisational functioning particularly by
applying the findings of behavioural science to the workings of the
social system.

*Abstracted from the Glossary of Training Terms - Ministry of Labour
H.M.S.O. 1967.

APPENDIX 2.

List of O.D. techniques originally considered in the design of question 12.
_____

T-groups

Teamwork Development

Job enrichment

Blakes grid

Dimensional sales training

Reddins 3-D approach

Confrontation meeting

Encounter groups

Management by objectives

Coverdale training

Sensitivity training

Intergroup confrontation

Process consultation

A Systems Approach

Force field analysis

Data feedback

This list was not all-inclusive but covered most

areas of the field of O.D.

Techniques perceived as ambiguous and possessing little predictive ability discovered in the second pilot survey of question 12.

(i) Ambiguous

a) Data feedback - often construed as telling someone where they went wrong rather than the particular organisational intervention developed by Floyd Mann.

b) Intergroup confrontation/confrontation meeting - often construed as a calculated argument between individuals/groups and rarely as the resolution devices of Beckhard (1969) and Walton (1971) respectively.

c) Teamwork development - often construed in "human relations theory" teams dealing with variables such as happiness and structure rather than effectiveness and process. Rarely construed as the teambuilding laboratories widely used by organisation development consultants.

d) Process consultation - often construed as production process consultation and rarely in Schein's (1969) terms.

(ii) Predictive ability

a) Management by objectives - everyone had at least heard of it.

b) Reddin's 3-D approach - no-one had heard of it.

c) It was felt that in a set of techniques as broadly defined as these, encounter groups was covered by the inclusion of T-groups.

(iii) Other omissions

It was decided to further exclude systems theory and force field analysis as these were thought to be related to specific theories useful as analytical devices but not as intervention techniques. Dimensional sales training was further excluded as the final decision was made to include only five organisation development techniques.

APPENDIX 4.

The Mann-Whitney U-test applied to the responses from question 13 pilot 3.

Activity Number

	a	b	c	d	e	f
A	5	4	3	1	6	2
B	6	4	2	1	5	3
C	5	4	2	3	6	1
D	5	2	1	4	6	3
E	5	3	1	4	6	2
F	3	5	4	2	6	1
G	4	5	1	3	6	2
H	1	2	5	6	4	3
I	2	1	5	6	3	4
J	2	1	3	4	5	6
K	1	2	5	4	3	6
L	1	2	6	5	3	4
M	2	1	6	5	3	4
N	4	1	5	2	3	6

U	=	1.5	=	1.5	=	1.5	=	4.5	=	0.5	=	1.0

p	<	.01	.01	.01	.05	.01	.01

NUMBER OF RESPONDING TRAINING PERSONNEL/FIRM

Analysis of respresentative nature of the responding personnel
(by firm size) using chi-square

	Total	Expected	Observed
0 - 100	41	22.92	25
100 - 200	48	26.83	32
200 - 500	97	54.22	49
500 - 1000	96	53.66	53
1000 +	319	178.37	177
		336.00	336

$$X^2 = 4.13$$

$$p < .01$$

Figures at 55.9% response rate.

SIZE   OF   FIRM

Analysis of respresentative nature of the responding firms
(by size) using chi-square

	Total**	Expected*	Observed
0 - 100	22	15.36	17
100 - 200	24	17.08	16
200 - 500	49	34.87	28
500 - 1000	55	39.15	34
1000 +	72	51.54	63
	222		158

$$x^2 = 4.82$$

$$p < .01$$

*Figures for 55.9% response rate

**Total number of responding firms calculated by establishment
rather than company as it was felt that different managerial
norms would exist in different establishments of the same
company which would affect the response rate.

APPENDIX 6.

Correlations between chosen activities representing change and maintenance sub-roles in question 13, using the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient.

It was expected that all change and maintenance activities would correlate positively with all other activities in their group and negatively with those in the opposite group.

The following results were obtained where A B and E represent maintenance activities and C D and F change activities.

Correlations between Variables.

Positive predictions		Negative predictions
Maintenance / **Change**		**Between maintenance and change**

Maintenance	Change		Between maintenance and change
A and B + 0.533	C and D + 0.423		A and C − 0.788
A and E + 0.698	C and F + 0.508		A and D − 0.717
B and E + 0.744	D and F + 0.272		A and F − 0.510
			B and C − 0.562
			B and D − 0.626
			B and F − 0.804
			C and E − 0.870
			D and E − 0.506
			E and F − 0.738

APPENDIX 7

Comprehensive data classification based on questionnaire:

role and organisational data classifications, and

personal data.

Group Type A. With Perceived knowledge of o.d. technology.

Total responding in this category 12.2

Size of firm**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	No response
0	0	2.4	7.2	4.8	7.2	12.0	66.4	2.5

Level in hierarchy

Training Off.	Training Mgr.	O.D.Specialist	No response
41.3	43.4	12.8	2.5

Age

20-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-50	51-55	56-60	61+	No response
2.5	15.3	15.3	15.3	23.0	10.9	11.0	2.5	2.5	2.5

Years in training

0-2	3-5	6-10	11-20	20+
7.7	46.1	15.3	23.2	7.7

Training represented at director level

Yes	No	Don't Know	No response
46.1	51.4	0	2.5

Personnel represented at director level

Yes	No	Don't Know
92.5	5.0	2.5

Numbers in training department

< 10	11-30	31-50	51-100	101≤
54.3	28.2	10.0	5.0	2.5

Numbers department is responsible for training

<100	101-250	251-500	501-1000	1001-5000	5001-10000	10001-20000	20001<	No response
2.5	2.5	5.0	20.0	48.9	5.0	11.1	0	5.0

With perceived role performance

Qualifications ****

	Mgmt/Super	Arts	Chem.	Soc.Sci.	Econ/Bus.Stud.	Nursing	Phys.Sci.	Educ.	Eng.	Mktg.	Gen.	Not known	None
Doctorate	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Masters	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Graduate	0	4	3	2	1	0	2	0	3	0	0	1	0
Professional	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	6	0	0	0	0
Others***	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	6

*   All figures in % ages apart from those marked **** which are raw figs only to avoid double counting.

** Size of firms calculated according to C.A.P.I.T.B. size classifications. Overall none response rate to this question 4.5% - particular figs. not available.

*** Usually H.N.C., H.N.D., D.M.S., etc.

Group Type **C.**   With Perceived knowledge of o.d.technology,

Total responding in this category 11.6

Size of firm**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
0	0	0	2.4	9.6	19.2	14.4	54.5

Level in hierarchy

Training Off.	Training Mgr.	O.D.Specialist
73	24.3	2.7

Age

20-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-50	51-55	56-60	61+	No response
5.5	10.8	10.8	8.1	13.5	27.0	16.2	2.7	0	5.4

Years in training

0-2	3-5	6-10	11-20	20+
10.8	27.0	32.5	27.0	2.7

Training represented at director level

Yes	No	Don't Know	No response
59.5	37.8	0	2.7

Personnel represented at director level

Yes	No	Don't Know	No response
89.2	8.1	0	2.7

Numbers in training department

< 10	11-30	31-50	51-100	101≤
64.9	29.7	5.4	0	0

Numbers department is responsible for training

<100	101-250	251-500	501-1000	1001-5000	5001-10000	10001-20000	20001<	No response
0	2.7	8.1	32.4	32.5	13.5	8.1	2.7	0

Qualifications **

	Mgmt/Super	Arts	Chem.	Soc.Sci.	Econ/Bus.Stud.	Nursing	Phys.Sci.	Educ.	Eng.	Mktg.	Gen.	Not known	None
Doctorate	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Masters	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Graduate	0	3	3	2	3	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
Professional	11	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	0	0	0
Others***	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	7

With no perceived role performance

All figures in % ages apart from those marked **** which are raw figs only to avoid double counting.
Size of firms calculated according to C.A.P.I.T.B. size classifications. Overall none response rate to this question 4.5% - particular figs. not available.

** Usually H.N.C., H.N.D. D.M.S. etc.

Group Type B.   With no perceived knowledge of o.d.technology.

Total responding in this category 25.9

Size of firm*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	No response
1.1	2.2	1.1	3.3	9.9	16.5	22.0	43.9	1.2

Level in hierarchy

Training Off.	Training Mgr.	O.D.Specialist	No response
61.6	36.0	1.2	1.2

Age

20-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-50	51-55	56-60	61+	No response
2.4	9.6	12.0	23.2	14.4	21.6	9.6	4.8	1.2	1.2

Years in training

0-2	3-5	6-10	11-20	20+	No response
14.4	35.2	18.0	22.8	6.0	3.6

Training represented at director level

Yes	No	Don't Know	No response
39.6	58.0	0	2.4

Personnel represented at director level

Yes	No	Don't Know	No response
71.2	26.4	0	2.4

Numbers in training department

<10	11-30	31-50	51-100	101≤	No response
71.2	15.6	7.2	2.4	0	3.6

Numbers department is responsible for training

<100	101-250	251-500	501-1000	1001-5000	5001-10000	10001-20000	20001<	No response
3.6	15.6	9.6	25.2	34.0	2.4	7.2	0	2.4

Qualifications **

	Mgmt/Super	Arts	Chem.	Soc.Sci.	Econ/Bus.Stud.	Nursing	Phys.Sci.	Educ.	Eng.	Mktg.	Gen.	Not known	None
Doctorate	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Masters	0	1	2	2	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	0
Graduate	0	1	3	0	2	0	5	5	2	0	2	2	0
Professional	32	0	3	0	0	1	0	5	3	5	0	0	0
Others***	6	0	3	0	1	0	2	0	1	1	0	0	19

(Row labels at left: With perceived role performance)

All figures in % ages apart from those marked **** which are raw figs. only to avoid double counting.

* Size of firms calculated according to C.A.P.I.T.B. size classifications. Overall none response rate to this question 4.5% - particular figs. not available.

*** Namely H.N.C., H.N.D., D.M.S. etc.

Group Type **D.**   With no perceived knowledge of o.d. technology.

Total responding in this category 50.3

Size of firm**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
0.0	0.6	3.0	4.8	11.4	17.4	11.4	51.4

Level in hierarchy

Training Off.	Training Mgr.	O.D.Specialist
82.6	17.4	0

Age

20-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-50	51-55	56-60	61+	No response
5.0	13.6	9.9	16.7	19.6	11.7	8.7	11.7	2.5	0.6

Years in training

0-2	3-5	6-10	11-20	20+	No response
22.8	38.6	20.9	15.2	1.9	0.6

Training represented at director level

Yes	No	Don't Know	No response
38.6	59.5	1.9	0

Personnel represented at director level

Yes	No	Don't Know	No response
71.5	27.3	1.2	0

Numbers in training department

< 10	11-30	31-50	51-100	101 ≤
77.8	18.60	2.4	1.2	0

Numbers department is responsible for training

<100	101-250	251-500	501-1000	1001-5000	5001-10000	10001-20000	20001<
12.3	15.5	10.5	19.8	31.6	3.1	5.6	1.2

Qualifications **

	Mgmt/Super	Arts	Chem.	Soc.Sci.	Econ/Bus.Stud.	Nursing	Phys.Sci.	Educ.	Eng.	Mktg.	Gen.	Not known	No.
Doctorate	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Masters	0	4	0.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
Graduate	1	5	17	1	4	0	6	0	2	0	3	1	0
Professional	34	0	11	0	0	2	0	15	14	2	0	0	0
Others***	2	1	11	0	2	1	1	15	15	0	0	0	45

With no perceived role performance

THE EXTENT OF KNOWLEDGE OF SOME ORGANISATION DEVELOPMENT TECHNIQUES AND SOME MORE TRADITIONAL TRAINING TECHNIQUES IN THE FULL-TIME TRAINING SECTOR OF THE CHEMICAL INDUSTRY*

TECHNIQUE	Responding Total	Not heard of it.	Only heard of it.	A working. knowledge of it.	Used it/Taught others to use it.
On the job training	100 (330)	0 (0)	3.6 (12)	14.4 (44)	82.0 (274)
Case Studies	100 (330)	0.6 (2)	5.5 (18)	25.4 (84)	68.5 (226)
Blakes Grid**	100 (330)	22.4 (74)	34.8 (115)	31.3 (103)	11.8 (38)
Job Analysis	100 (330)	0 (0)	5.8 (19)	17.6 (58)	76 6 (253)
Teaching	100 (330)	1.5 (5)	5.2 (17)	8.8 (29)	84.5 (279)
Role Playing	100 (330)	2.7 (9)	10.0 (33)	23.3 (87)	64.0 (201)
Coverdale Training**	100 (330)	23.9 (79)	44.2 (146)	20.3 (67)	11.6 (38)
Lecturing	100 (330)	0 (0)	3.0 (10)	8.5 (28)	88.5 (292)
Sensitivity Training**	100 (330)	15.0 (50)	33.0 (110)	33.0 (109)	19.0 (61)
Programmed Learning	100 (330)	0.6 (2)	13.6 (45)	33.9 (112)	51.9 (171)
Job Enrichment	100 (330)	5.2 (17)	16.4 (64)	28.8 (94)	49.6 (155)
Appraisal Interviewing	100 (330)	3.0 (10)	13.0 (43)	26.4 (85)	57.6 (192)
Activity Sampling	100 (330)	8.8 (29)	33.9 (112)	39.4 (130)	17.9 (59)
T-Groups**	100 (329)	7.9 (26)	47.3 (156)	38.2 (126)	6.6 (21)

** Denotes Change Techniques.

* All figures percentages, raw figures in parentheses.

APPENDIX 9.

The Change techniques used, grouped in terms of Harrisons depth of emotional involvement continuum and scored according to those who responded saying that they actually used or taught others to use. - these techniques.

% responding actually used or taught others to use.	Job Enrichment	Blakes Grid and Coverdale Training	Sensitivity training and T-groups
	49.6	11.8 — 11.6 —	19.0 — 6.6 —

One would argue, in a design set up to investigate this thesis, that sensitivity training is too ambiguous to yield valid data. If this is excluded from the figures above, the data becomes increasingly supportive of the inverse relationship between technique utilisation and depth of emotional involvement.

onal details: Name ....

Company Address ....

....

Company telephone ....

Are you (a) male   (b) female

Age ....

I

What is your job title

Please indicate any specialism by means of a tick:-

(a) No specialism

(b) Operator (process)

(c) Craft (apprentice)

(d) Technical

(e) Technologist (professional)

(f) Clerical and Commercial

(g) Supervisory

(h) Management

(i) Other (please state)

lease list any degress, diplomas or professional qualifications which you
ow hold, and, when relevant, the discipline in which these were
btained (e.g. B.Sc (Chemistry)).

- How long have you been employed in training?

.... years   .... months

- Is the training function of your firm represented at Director level?
  Yes/No/Don't know (please delete those inapplicable).

- Is the personnel function of your firm represented at Director level?
  Yes/No/Don't know (please delete those inapplicable).

- How many people, including Training Officers, Instructors and Office Staff are employed in your training department*

Under	10	☐
11 -	30	☐
31 -	50	☐
51 -	100	☐
Over	100	☐

- For how many people does your training department* have the responsibility of training?

Under	100	☐
101 -	250	☐
251 -	500	☐
501 -	1,000	☐
1,001 -	5,000	☐
5,001 -	10,000	☐
10,001 -	20,000	☐
20,001	and above	☐

For those in large divisionalised companies, the words "Training department" should be interpreted as meaning the immediate department in which one orks rather than the total company training department.

. Please list in increasing order of responsibility or status the JOB TITLES of your two immediate superiors:-

(a) IMMEDIATE SUPERIOR JOB TITLES

(b) HIS SUPERIOR'S JOB TITLE

0. Please list in decreasing order of responsibility or status the JOB TITLES of your two immediate subordinates:-

(a) IMMEDIATE SUBORDINATE JOB TITLE

(b) HIS SUBORDINATE'S JOB TITLE

1. Draw a small organisation chart showing just where you fit into the hierarchy. Please do not use abbreviations for various positions. Indicate your position with an asterisk.

PART II.

12. Here is a list of techniques. Please put a tick

    (i) in column A if you have HEARD of them.

    (ii) in column B if you have a WORKING KNOWLEDGE of them.

    (iii) in column C if you ACTUALLY USE them or TEACH OTHERS to use them.

If you have not heard of any particular one of them, please leave the boxes blank.

	Column A	Column B	Column C
(a) On the job training	☐	☐	☐
(b) Case Studies	☐	☐	☐
(c) Blakes grid	☐	☐	☐
(d) Job Analysis	☐	☐	☐
(e) Teaching	☐	☐	☐
(f) Role Playing	☐	☐	☐
(g) Coverdale training	☐	☐	☐
(h) Lecturing	☐	☐	☐
(i) Sensitivity training	☐	☐	☐
(j) Programmed Learning	☐	☐	☐
(k) Job enrichment	☐	☐	☐
(l) Appraisal interviewing	☐	☐	☐
(m) Activity sampling	☐	☐	☐
(n) T-groups	☐	☐	☐

13. Below are six of the many activities which can be found in the jobs
    of training staff. Given that these will not represent all the activities
    in your job, and that some will be part of your job and some will not,
    please attempt to rank them 1 - 6 in DECREASING order of importance.

    (a) Using column A to show the rankings of what you <u>feel</u> ACTUALLY
        OCCURS on your job and

    (b) Using column B to show the rankings of what you <u>feel</u> OUGHT to be
        the priorities in your job.

	A Rank	B Rank
(a) Teaching, lecturing or instructing either in a classrooom or on the job.		
(b) Designing the outline and content of training courses and ensuring that all relevant materials such as visual aids, handouts etc. are available at the correct time.		
(c) Acting as consultant to management by focussing on the quality of problem-solving attempts and the processes occurring in the problem-solving group.		
(d) Providing help to management in defining together probable solutions to management problems which may or may not involve training.		
(e) Arranging finances, claiming grant and budgeting courses.		
(f) Helping management anticipate problem areas by asking questions which will help management to clarify these areas.		

14. If columns A and B in question 14 above, contain
    differently distributed rankings, please attempt to
    give a brief outline of the reasons for this.

The problems perceived by training staff with regard to
performing the change role.

PERCEIVED REASON FOR NO/FEW CHANGE ACTIVITIES	SUBCATEGORY TOTAL %	CATEGORY TOTAL
1. Relations with line management in terms of:-		
(a) Management hold short-term economic values and cannot see how training contributes to these - training not seen as part of management.	18.46	
(b) No liaison with line management.	4.10	
(c) Training responds with actions given line management diagnosis i.e. reactive - training officer involved after decision-making.	6.15	
(d) Management see problem-solving skills as neither acceptable nor desirable.	7.40	
(e) Training has neither impressed nor educated line management.	4.10	
(f) Training has no status/authority.	4.61	
(g) Training seen by line management as course running.	4.10	
(h) Decreased manning due to redundancy has led to decreased time/person to spend on training.	.51	
		49.43
2. Small training department can only run courses and claim grant.	6.15	
		6.15
3. Company changing its training policy - expanding redefining and developing new roles.	16.05	
		16.05
4. Large administrative load of I.T.B.	5.35	
		5.35
5. Training officer does not understand the change role.	12.24	
		12.24
6. No-one else to reclaim grant and run courses.	2.05	

	SUBCATEGORY TOTAL	CATEGORY TOTAL

7. Unable to delegate grant reclaim which is most important. 　2.05

　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　2.05

8. Newly created training function – other urgent priorities. 　3.08

　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　3.08

9. Personal role change ongoing at time of response. 　1.54

　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　1.54

10. No skills to undertake change activities. 　1.54

　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　1.54

11. O.D. perceived as a different function – problem solving not part of training. 　2.05

　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　2.05

APPENDIX 12.

A table of the four classifications of respondents with regard to hierarchical position in the organisation*

	Training Officer	Training Manager	O.D.Specialist	No response
Type 1	41.3	43.4	12.8	2.5
Type 2	73.0	24.3	2.0	0
Type 3	61.6	36.0	1.2	1.2
Type 4	82.6	17.4	0	0

* All figs. percentages.

A table of the four classifications of respondents with
regard to whether their training function is represented at
Board level*.

	Representation	No Representation	Don't Know	No Response
Type 1	46.1	51.4	0	2.5
Type 2	59.5	37.8	0	2.7
Type 3	39.6	58.0	0	2.4
Type 4	38.6	59.5	1.9	0

* All figs. percentages.

APPENDIX 14.

A table of the four classifications of respondents with
regard to whether their personnel function is represented
at Board level.

	Representation	No Representation	Don't Know	No Response
Type 1	92.5	5.0	2.5	0
Type 2	89.2	8.1	0	2.7
Type 3	71.2	26.4	0	2.4
Type 4	71.5	27.3	1.2	0

APPENDIX 15.

Qualification Data.

(a) Proportions of those with no qualifications in each group type.

	%
group type 1	15.4
group type 2	18.9
group type 3	22.9
group type 4	28.0

(b) Proportion of graduates or above in each group type.

	%
group type 1	53.8
group type 2	43.2
group type 3	33.7
group type 4	29.8

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Section 1

a)   This section is concerned with your concept of your ideal organisation.   In this organisation how should:

     i)   conflict be managed?

    ii)   decisions be made?

   iii)   communications be organised?

    iv)   leaders lead?

     v)   authority and power be distributed?

Try to describe this ideal, firstly as an abstract organisation, the working of which you can conceive, and secondly as your present organisation working in what you would consider to be an ideal way.

b)   What would be the main values held by the people in these ideal organisations?

Section 2

This section is concerned with your actions in trying to change your organisation.

a)   Organisational issues:

     i)   how are you attempting to change your organisation?

    ii)   what do you see as the organisational payoffs in changing this direction?

   iii)   what are the main organisational forces which are hindering and helping you in your change attempts?

b)   Personal issues:

     i)   what are the personal payoffs for you in doing this work?

    ii)   what values do you hold in performing this work?

   iii)   what are the personal forces both hindering and helping you in your job?

Section 3

This section is concerned with your ideal self.   Try to
think of the sort of person who would be an ideal occupant of
your job:

     i) what sort of person would be an ideal occupant of
        your role?

    ii) what sort of activities would he perform?

  iii) what sort of skills would he possess?

How closely do you feel that you approximate to this?

The value statements of some writers on organisation development

Beckhard	Tannenbaum and Davis
1. Should be increased autonomy.	1. Away from views of man as inherently bad toward views of man as inherently good.
2. Increased choices in work and leisure.	2. Away from avoidance or re-evaluations of human beings toward confirmation as human beings.
3. Security needs should be met.	3. Away from human beings as fixed, toward being in process.
4. Should satisfy own needs if in conflict with organisation.	4. Away from fearing individual differences to using them.
5. Should organise work with meaningful tasks.	5. Away from using human being toward job description and toward using him as whole person.
	6. Away from walling of expression of feeling toward making possible expression and use.
	7. Away from maskmanship toward authentic behaviour.
	8. Away from status for power toward status for relevant purposes.
	9. Away from distrust toward trust.
	10. Away from avoiding others with relevant data toward appropriate confrontation.
	11. Away from avoidance of risk taking toward increased riskiness.
	12. Away from process work being unproductive toward seeing it as essential to task.
	13. Away from competition toward increased collaboration.

Bennis	N.T.L.

1. Increase in interpersonal competence.

2. Increase understanding between and within working groups.

3. Human factors and feelings legitimate.

4. Development of team management.

5. Decrease in suppression, compromise and power in conflict resolution.

6. Organic rather than mechanistic systems.

1. Create open problem-solving climate.

2. Supplement authority of role/status with knowledge and competence.

3. Locate decision making and problem solving responsibility as near to information as possible.

4. Build trust.

5. Make competition more relevant and increase collaboration.

6. Develop reward system recognising achievement of mission with organisation development (growth of people).

7. Increase sense of ownership of objectives throughout work force.

8. Help managers manage to relevant objectives rather than past practice.

9. Increase self control and self direction for people within organisation.

French and Bell	Margulies and Raia

1. Most people want to become more of what they are capable of.

2. Most people desire to and can make a greater contribution to the organisation than they are doing.

3. What goes on in work team has great significance for feelings of satisfaction and competence.

4. Most people wish to be accepted and interact co-operatively.

5. Formal leaders cannot perform all task and maintenance functions in groups.

6. Suppressed feelings adversely affect problem solving, personal growth and job satisfaction.

7. Interpersonal trust, support and co-operation too low.

8. Solutions to most attitudinal and motivational problems are transactional.

9. Roles are important in managerial behaviour.

10. Policies affect small work group and vice versa.

11. Many problems better faced not in win-lose mode.

12. Needs and aspirations of people tend to be reason for change.

13. Work life can be richer, more meaningful, enjoyable if we express feelings.

14. Commitment to action.

15. Power equalisation.

1. Opportunities for people to function as human beings.

2. Opportunities for potential fulfillment.

3. Increase organisational effectiveness for ALL its goals.

4. Environment for exciting and challenging work.

5. Opportunities for people to influence work, organisation and environment.

6. Treating each one as a person with complex needs ALL of which need satisfying.

Partin

1. Emphasise, humanise organisation.

2. Openness and trust.

3. Collaboration.

4. Constructive conflict.

1.   Age   Occupation

2.   Education - general

3.   Education - social science

4.   Please state your relationships with all individuals living
     regularly in your home, or your parents' home, between birth
     and 5 years.

Numbers	Relationship

5.   Please state the occupation of your father and mother where
     appropriate) during the period birth to 5 years.

     Father

     Mother

6.   How many times were you involved in moving the location of
     your home in the period birth to ten years?

          0   1   2   3   4   5

The following is a list of beliefs about life. Think of yourself
with regard to each and then rate both of your parents according
to whether you see them as having a higher, or lower, or about
the same, concern as yourself for each.

		Father	Mother
a)	Ideas, theories and understanding – intellectual side of life		
	More		
	Same		
	Less		
b)	Feelings and emotions – emotional side of life		
	More		
	Same		
	Less		
c)	Interpersonal group relationships – social side of life		
	More		
	Same		
	Less		
d)	Spiritual beliefs – religious side of life		
	More		
	Same		
	Less		
e)	The way society is and should be organised – political side of life		
	More		
	Same		
	Less		
f)	Wealth, material good and services – economic side of life		
	More		
	Same		

An analysis of the ages of the three groups
(O.D., I.P.M., D.M.S.) using chi square

Observed

	Under 30	30 and above
O.D.	1	11
I.P.M.	13	2
D.M.S.	8	5

Expected

	Under 30	30 and above
O.D.	6.6	5.4
I.P.M.	8.25	6.75
D.M.S.	7.15	5.85

$$\chi^2 = 16.86$$

$$p < 0.01$$

A comparison of the educational backgrounds of the three groups
(O.D., I.P.M., D.M.S.) using chi-square

a)   A comparison of graduates

	Observed			Expected	
	Graduates	Non-graduates		Graduates	Non-graduates
O.D.	8	4	O.D.	5.846	6.154
I.P.M.	4	10	I.P.M.	6.820	7.179
D.M.S.	7	6	D.M.S.	6.333	6.666
	19	20			

$$x^2 = 3.359 \text{ (not significant)}$$

b)   A comparison of social science backgrounds

	Observed			Expected	
	Social science	Non-social science		Social science	Non-social science
O.D.	4	8	O.D.	3.6	8.4
I.P.M.	4	11	I.P.M.	4.5	10.5
D.M.S.	4	9	D.M.S.	3.9	9.1

$$x^2 = .144 \text{ (not significant)}$$

A comparison of the social mobility of the families of the three
groups (O.D., I.P.M., D.M.S.) during respondent years 0-10.

Observed

	Moves	
	0-2	3-5
O.D.	6	6
I.P.M.	12	3
D.M.S.	11	2

Expected

	Moves	
	0-2	3-5
O.D.	8.7	3.3
I.P.M.	10.875	4.125
D.M.S.	9.425	3.575

$$X^2 = 4.377 \text{ (not significant)}$$

A comparison of own/F and own/M difference (D) scores using chi-square for the three responding groups (O.D., I.P.M., D.M.S.)

a) Own/F scores

Observed

	D scores	
	0-3	4-6
O.D.	5	6
I.P.M.	10	5
D.M.S.	10	3

Expected

	D scores	
	0-3	4-6
O.D.	7.24	4.05
I.P.M.	9.87	5.52
D.M.S.	8.55	4.79

$$X^2 = 2.60 \text{ (not significant)}$$

b) Own/M scores

Observed

	D scores	
	0-3	4-6
O.D.	2	10
I.P.M.	10	4
D.M.S.	5	8

Expected

	D scores	
	0-3	4-6
O.D.	5.2	6.77
I.P.M.	6.10	7.90
D.M.S.	5.67	7.33

$$X^2 = 8.07$$

$$0.01 < p < 0.05$$

A comparison of C and H scores for O.D. and lecturing groups
using the Mann-Whitney U-test

O.D.   1 8 9 10 11 $12\frac{1}{2}$ $14\frac{1}{2}$ $14\frac{1}{2}$ $17\frac{1}{2}$ $21\frac{1}{2}$ 23 24

Lecturers   2 3 4 5 6 7 $12\frac{1}{2}$ 16 $17\frac{1}{2}$ 19 20 $21\frac{1}{2}$

U = 74 (not significant)

A comparison of C-H scores for O.D. and lecturing groups using
the Mann-Whitney U-test

O.D.	1	2	3	4	6	7	9	9	13	17	20	23
Lecturers	5	9	13	13	13	13	17	17	20	20	22	24

$$U = 36$$

$$p < 0.025$$
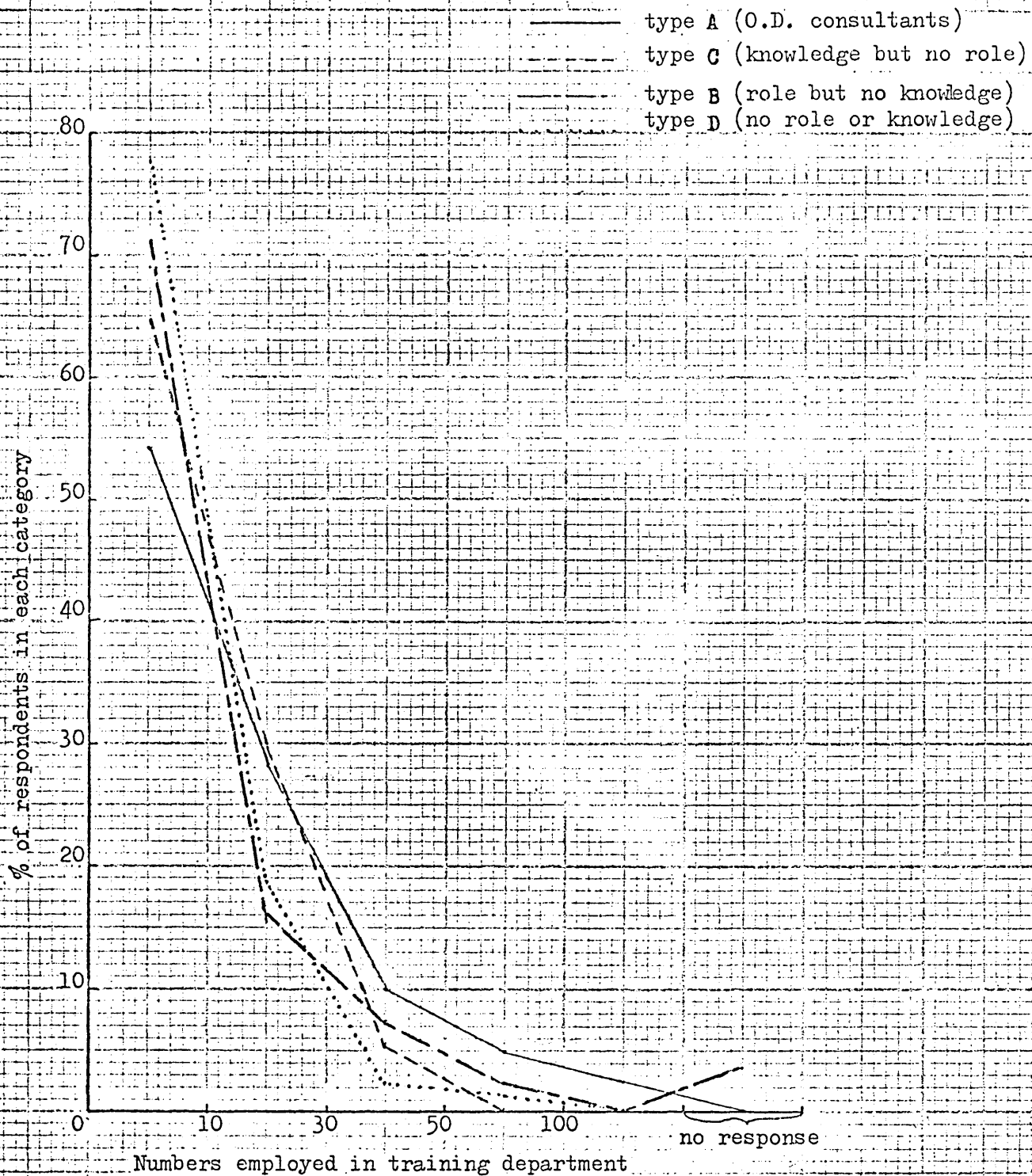
Graph 1. Representation of the four classifications of respondents with regard to the numbers employed in each training department.

type A (O.D. consultant
type C (knowledge but n
type B (role but no kno
type D (no role or know

Numbers for whom the training department is responsible for training

% of respondents in each category

no response   20,000   10,000   5,000   1,000   500   250   100

50   40   30   20   10
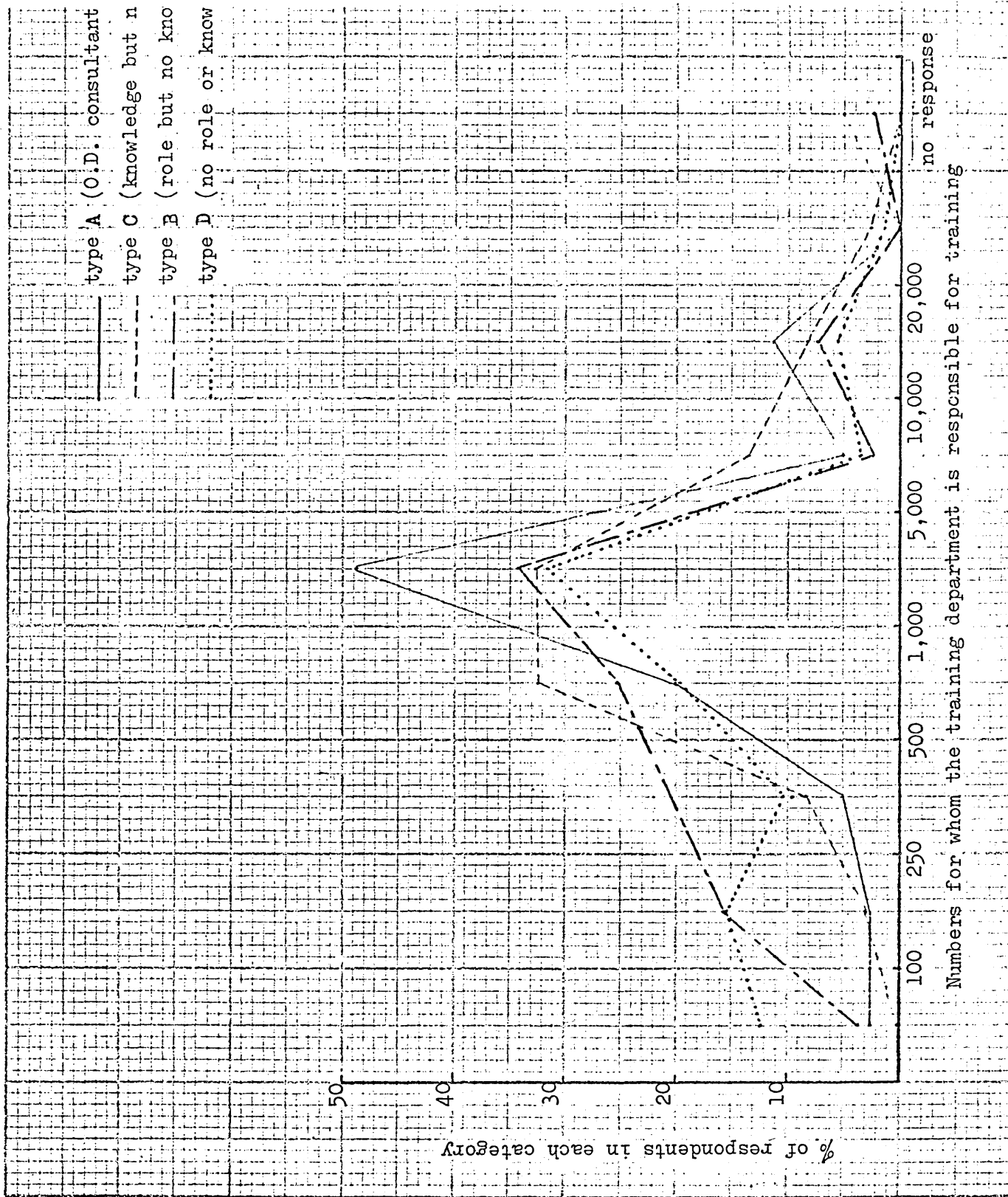
Sch. 69   2mm/2cm

R 4055

Graph 2.   Representation of the four classifications of respondents with regard to the numbers for which the training department of the respondents were responsible for training.
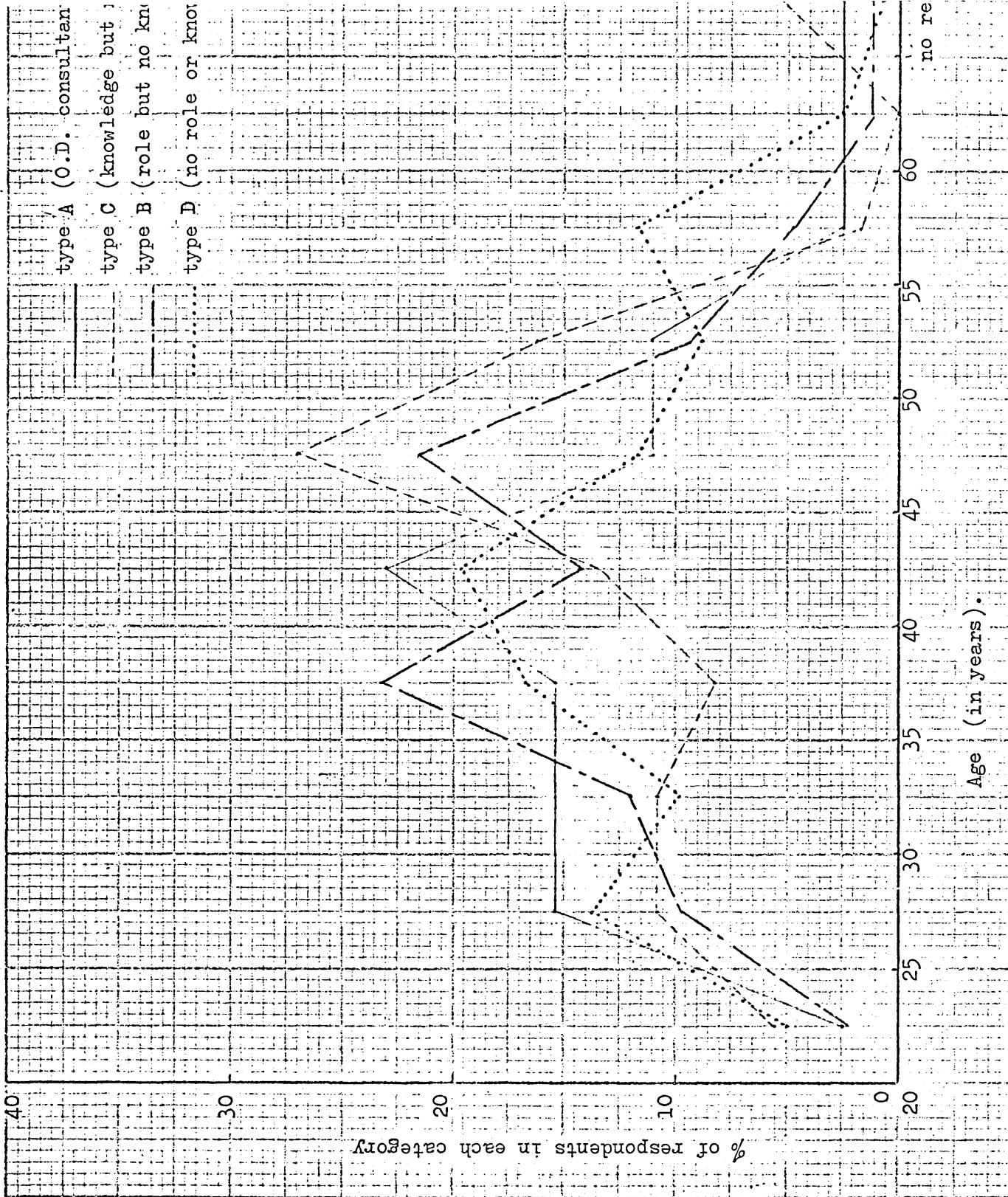
Graph 3. Representation of the four classifications of respondents with regard to age.
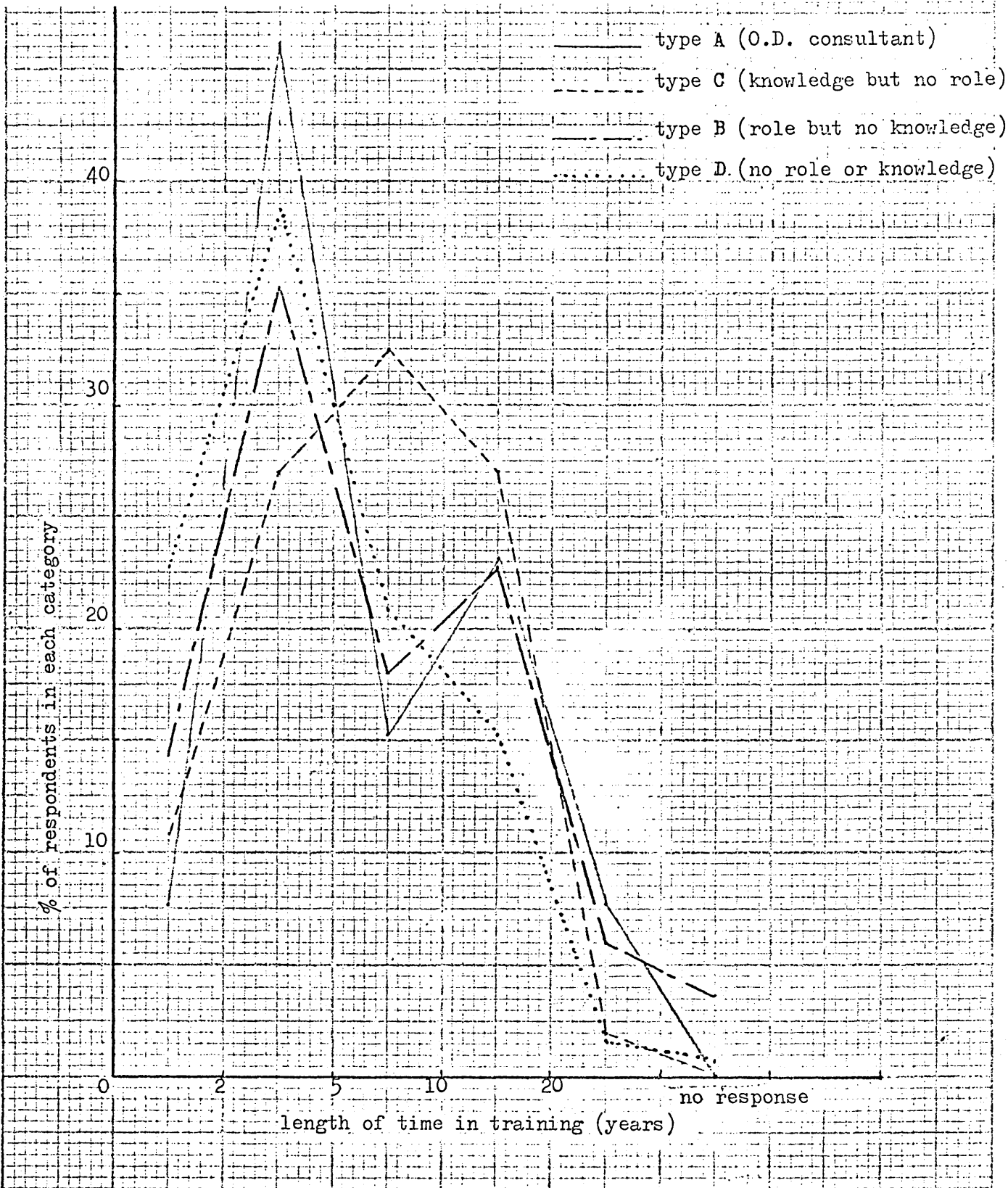
Graph 4. Representation of the four classifications of respondents with regard to their experience in the training function.

type A (O.D. Consultants)
type C (knowledge but no role)
type B (role but no knowledge)
type D (no role or knowledge)

% of respondents in each category

Size (according to C.A.P.I.T.B. classification)

Sch. 69 2mm/2cm

R 4055
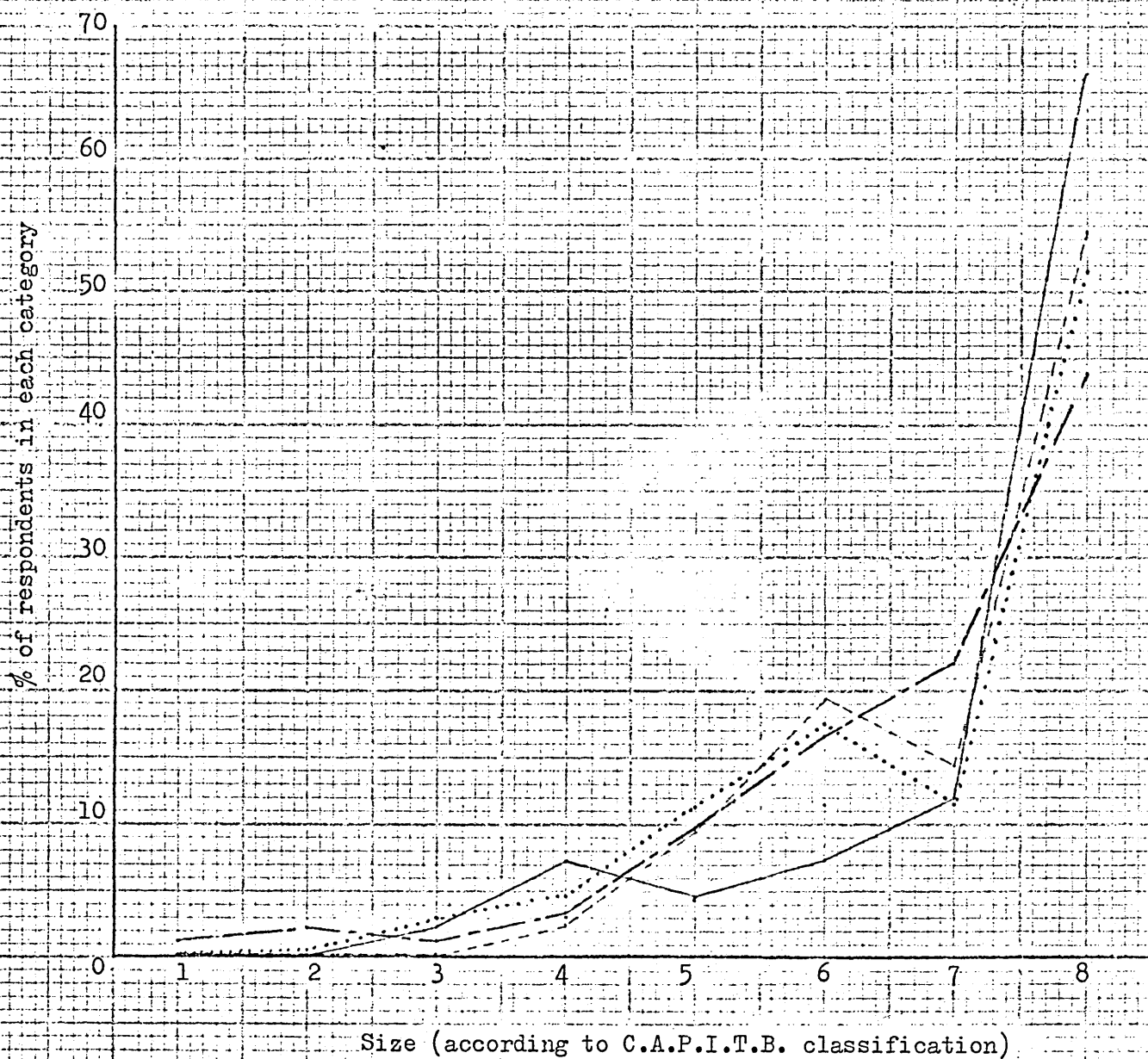
Graph 5   Representation of the four classifications of respondents
with regard to firm size.

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