

*Summary, Synthesis,
and
Unified Practice of
Management™ Model*

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Third Edition

R. D. Cecil and Company

A Unified Practice of Management and Leadership™ Model and Its Implications for More Effective Organizations

Introduction

The Introduction to this entire series began with Figure 1, a model that shows the major functions of management and leadership organized into an overall managerial/leadership or “integrative” process. That model was a “basic, introductory whole.” It provided the skeleton or framework on which the flesh or parts—additional concepts, models, processes, and practices contained in subsequent booklet—could be attached to complete the body. Two parts of a major model in this booklet make up “the whole” and demonstrate how many aspects of modern management and leadership all fit, and can be used, together.

The first of this booklet’s two major sections describes one portion of a *Unified Practice of Management™* model, which interrelates major concepts, processes, and models within a single diagram. Sub-sections discuss implications of the model for time management, change management, conflict management, knowledge management, management in general, and the development of organizations and their human resources. It also discusses implications for when and where to maximize managerial and organizational effectiveness.

The second major section describes the second portion of the unified model, which outlines the concepts of roughly fifty management gurus. While it must be acknowledged that management theories and concepts wax (become fads) and wane (Pascale, 1990), it remains that hosts of academicians, consultants, and practitioners have offered many ideas and perspectives worth pondering. Some have influenced management thinking for the better, and some for the worse (Hoopes, 2003). The *Management Gurus* portion of the Unified Practice of Management model shows how many of those concepts relate to the initial portion of that model.

Objectives

After studying and discussing this chapter, a student or seminar participant should be able to:

- Better understand relationships among the various major management concepts, models, and practices covered in the book, and more effectively use them in conjunction with each other for more effective management and management and organization development.
- Better apply a common or shared method for more effectively structuring planning, problem solving, decisionmaking, learning, and communication situations in order to maximize, minimize, or compensate for various socio-technical influences on those processes.
- More effectively guide or *facilitate* team-think and learning sessions with superiors, subordinates, and/or colleagues.
- More effectively *participate in* team-think and learning sessions with subordinates, colleagues and/or superiors.
- Better improve or further develop subordinates’ planning, problem solving, decision making, relating, communicating, and learning practices and skills.
- More effectively participate in contributing to organization-wide development and reinforcement of planning, problem solving, decision making, relating, communicating, and learning policies, practices, and procedures.
- Better enable bosses, colleagues, and subordinates to work together more effectively to bring about improvements in personal knowledge, attitudes, motivation, skills, interactions, and behaviors—and also in non-personal socio-technical variables—that affect individual, unit, and organizational performance and success.

Figure 1: The Managerial and Leadership (Integrative) Process



Unified Practice of Management™ Model: Integrated Processes and Models Portion

Figure 1 has been used to discuss and interrelate the various aspects of management covered in all the booklets of this series up to this point. Now it is possible to put many of the details associated with the topics covered onto the original framework and present a more detailed and encompassing diagram.

Basic Description

Figure 2 is the most important portion of the final *Unified Practice of Management* model. (**Figure 15**, the other part, is discussed later.) Note that its core is **Figure 1**, the Managerial/Leadership (Integrative) Process model. The top half shows the major integrative *think-work functions*: analyzing; planning (goal setting, planning, budgeting, and formulating policies and procedures); and decision making. As pointed out earlier, those functions actually constitute the analytic approach to problem solving. The bottom half shows the *implementation functions*, where *plans* for organizing, staffing, guiding the coordination of activities, and guiding the performance of control functions are actually carried out.

The booklet on managerial and leadership styles described several different styles. It defined them as the different ways that several types of managers and leaders interact with and behave toward subordinates in the process of carrying out integrative functions. Various sections of Parts II through V on managerial and leadership behavior explained why the author is convinced that the best style is the participative, team, or HT,HP (“high task, high people”) approach.

As you have probably already noticed in **Figure 2**, the think-work functions in the top hemisphere are separated from the implementation functions in the bottom hemisphere by a band of space between them. Placed right in the middle of that band (and the diagram itself) is a small likeness of The Managerial Target®, with the “bull’s-eye or HT,HP combination of levels” darkened to represent “high task, high people.” It is there to remind readers that the team approach to management and leadership is more effective in several important respects. First, it is the most effective at integrating tasks with tasks, people with their tasks, people with people, and people with their organization. Second, it emphasizes people for the sake of productivity as well as for the sake of people, and emphasizes productivity for the sake of people as well as for the sake of productivity. This is largely the reason it fosters the most

motivating and productive work environment. Third, it integrates constant use of the HT,HP approach with the individualized (situational) development of subordinates’ knowledge and skills. Fourth, it enables individuals to manage or lead not only what they can see (tangible outputs and visible activities), but also what they *cannot* see (what is going on in subordinates’ heads and hearts). Fifth, it emphasizes the Golden Rule—that is, treating subordinates the way any person would like to be treated by his or her organizational superior. (Or perhaps even better, the Platinum Rule—treating subordinates as *they* would like to be treated—so that one does not arbitrarily impose one’s own standards, likes, or dislikes on them.) In that same vein, it also emphasizes caring enough about subordinates to maximize their productivity and job satisfaction through the use of participative and developmental practices. Sixth, not only is it an approach, but it is also a “standard of behavior.” For example, would an HT,HP manager, who cares enough about his or her people to sublimate his or her own selfish motives for the sake of their participation in integrative activities, ask subordinates to lie to superiors, manipulate subordinates, undermine colleagues, cheat customers, steal from suppliers, falsify records, or skirt the law? What do you think?

One might regard the core diagram as being the four aspects of the 4-H motto: “Head, Heart, Hands, and Health.” The top hemisphere, which contains the think-work (rational) functions, is the *head*. Think-work determines the effectiveness of subsequent actions. The “high task, high people” style on The Managerial Target® is the *heart*. The “heart” is the spirit and intent of Theory Y, which involves sensitivity to people, true concern for them, empathy with them, compassion and sympathy for them, and balanced selfish and unselfish motives regarding relationships between self and subordinates (and others). The implementation functions in the bottom hemisphere are the *hands* for carrying out programs, projects, action plans, and policies, procedures, and rules that will enable the organization to meet goals, remain viable, and be successful over the long term. The first three aspects can be difficult to achieve if an organization is not also healthy. In a healthy organization, people respect, value, care about, support, and cooperate with each other—for each others’ sakes and the sake of the organization (the team) over the long term.

The Process(es) Involved: What Managers Should Do

Each ring outside the core represents a process. It is important to note that, in order to be performed most effectively, *each process should involve the analytic approach (to problem solving)*. It is even more important that *the*

Figure 2: Unified Practice of Management™ Model: Integrated Processes and Models

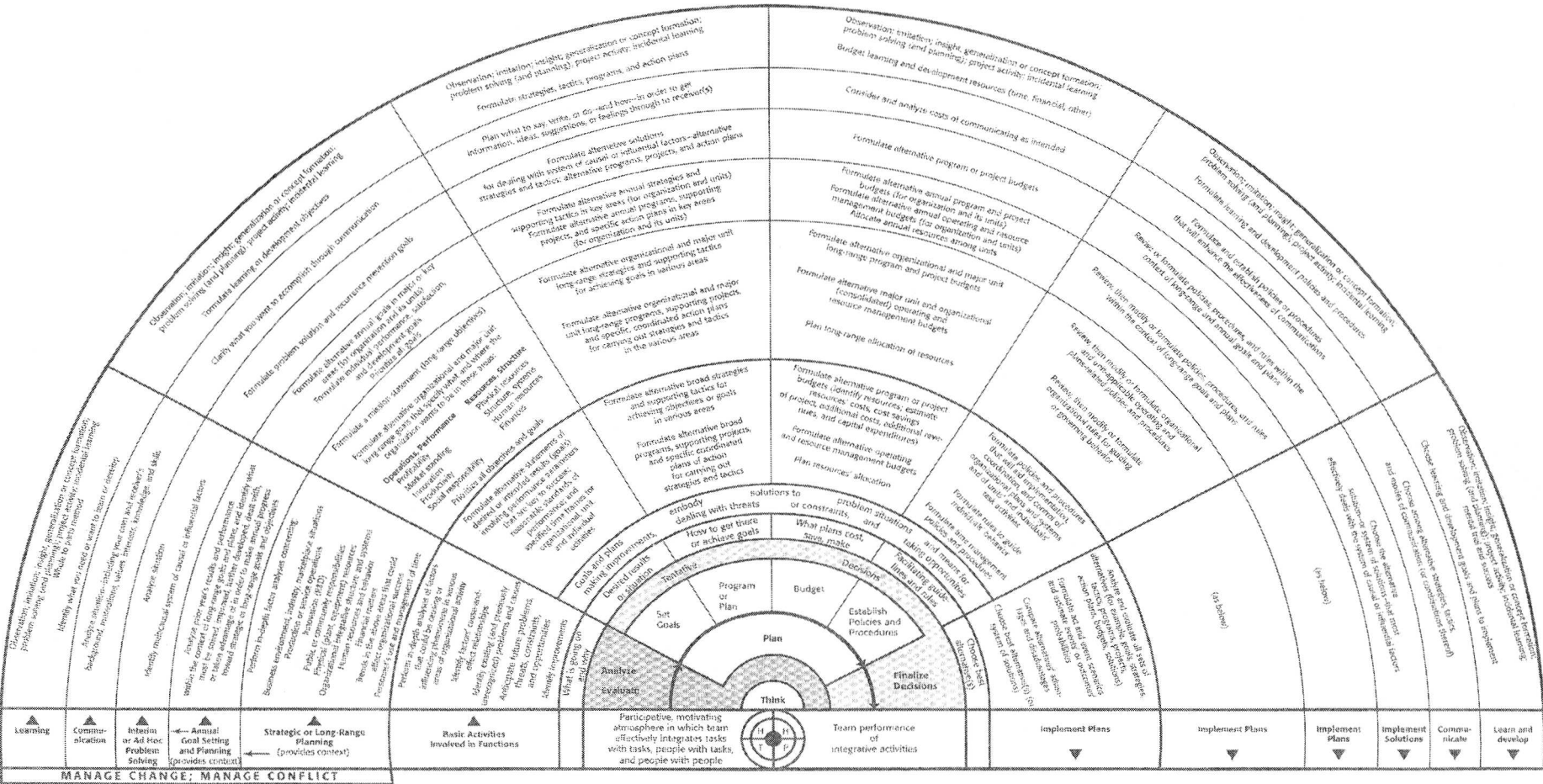


Table 1: Problem-Solving Phases and Steps

Phase I: Prepare Step 1: Be aware: think about what you're doing (awareness based on brain's comparison of actual with planned or intended stimuli) Step 2: Describe situation -- i.e., the unintended or unexpected events or effects that signalled the problem situation Step 3: Increase motivation : determine importance in terms of personal and organizational goals and plans Step 4: Seek a conducive environment Step 5: Get organized (materials, references, and so on) Step 6: Preview : do a brief preliminary analysis
Phase II: Analyze -- Define and Reduce the Problem Situation Step 7: Do an initial qualitative analysis : identify a <u>system</u> of possibly causal variables involved and the relationships among them (not just a single cause) * Use <u>checklists</u> to augment knowledge of factors * <u>Diagram/model</u> variables and their relationships Step 8: Collect Important facts associated with factors * Use facts and observations (rather than opinions); use "working assumptions" as necessary * Add facts or data to the situation model Step 9: Analyze information and identify the real, underlying, multiple causes (in chains of causes and effects) Step 10: Formulate criteria for Decision Making (Phase IV)
Phase III: Plan -- Alternatives (Solutions) Formulation Step 11: Formulate goals or objectives : identify the desired end results of implementing solution(s) Step 12: Plan : identify what must be done to improve, change, correct, or adjust variables and their relationships - Formulate alternative sets of strategies and tactics - Formulate alternative sets of courses of action - Budget time and resources * Use appropriate diagrams
Phase IV: Make Decision(s) -- Test and Select the Alternatives Step 13: Identify possible outcomes of alternative solutions: anticipate scenarios or sequences of actions and events Step 14: Assess realistic probabilities of possible events Step 15: Test and compare alternatives - Identify and compare advantages and disadvantages - Weigh each alternative against decision-making criteria - Also test and weigh combinations of alternatives - Use appropriate diagrams Step 16: Select Appropriate Solution(s) for Implementation
Phase V: Implement Chosen Solutions Step 17: Implement plans; monitor and evaluate feedback Step 18: Adjust plans or behavior

Table 2: Phases and Steps of a Systematic Communications Approach

Phase I: Prepare Step 1: Be aware; think about what you're doing Step 2: Increase motivation Step 3: Seek a conducive environment Step 4: Get organized (materials, references, and so on) Step 5: Preview : Do a Brief Preliminary Analysis
Phase II: Analyze — Define and Reduce the Communication (Problem) Situation Step 6: Describe situation that requires communication Step 7: Identify what needs to be done (improved, changed) Step 8: Identify receivers (those who must take action) Step 9: Analyze receivers (their knowledge, attitudes, traits; identify receiver factors that could affect receiver attention, reception, interpretation) Step 10: Analyze your own characteristics , attitudes, skills; identify how you could affect the effectiveness of the communication process Step 11: Identify nonpersonal or environmental factors that could affect the effectiveness of communication Step 12: Derive criteria for making decision(s) in Phase IV
Phase III: Plan — Alternatives Formulation (Communication Planning) Step 13: Formulate communication goals or objectives Step 14: Formulate alternative strategies and tactics, programs and projects and action plans to persuade or influence: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Receivers * Contents of communication (ideas, feelings) * Modes to use (verbal, nonverbal, or combination) * Where, when, facilities, equipment Step 15: Budget : account for costs (if any)
Phase IV: Make Decision — Test, Compare, and Select Alternatives Step 16: Analytically test and compare alternative sets of goals and plans <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Identify advantages and disadvantages * Test against criteria Step 17: Select appropriate alternative goals and plans for implementation
PHASE V: Communicate (Implement Chosen Alternatives) Step 18: Communicate as planned (write, speak, show, do) Step 19: Obtain and evaluate feedback Step 20: Revise communications as appropriate

Table 3: Relationships Between Phases of the Analytic Approach to Problem Solving, the Planning Process, and Steps Involved in an Effective Learning Process

		Learning-Oriented Processes	
		Phase 1	Phase 2
	Problem-Solving Process	Managerial (Planning) Process	
		Phases and Steps of Process	Learning and Development Aspects of Planning Phases
What has happened, or what is going on—and why?	Preparation Steps	Preparation Steps	Preparation Steps
	Analysis of Situation	Analyze: your organizational unit; your job; your own life Factors to analyze: task-related, organizational, environmental, individual, and social	Identify knowledge, experience, skills, attitudes, and behavior that must be learned or developed in order to reach goals
What needs to be done, or what might be done—and how?	Formulation of Alternative Solutions and plans for their implementation	Establish goals and objectives (for unit, own job, and self) Prioritize goals Formulate strategies and tactics, programs and projects, action plans, and budgets (and so forth)	Clarify and prioritize learning and development objectives Formulate learning and development strategies and tactics, programs, and action plans (what to learn, when, sources, which modes and methods use)
	Decision Making Analytically test, compare, and select among the alternatives	Analytically test, compare, and select among alternative [sets of] goals and associated plans (for unit, own job, and self)	Test, compare, and select learning and development, goals and plans
Take action; do something	Implementation of Chosen Solutions	Organize Staff (select; orient; train and develop) Guide and coordinate . . . Activities Control processes	Learn as planned during subsequent situations : Planning Problem solving Decision making Learning and studying Developing skills, attitudes
		Implementation	Implementation
		Afterwards, when in Learning and Problem-Solving Situations	
		Analysis of Situation	
		What to learn/develop—and why Factors affecting learning Possible modes, methods, and principles to use	
		Planning	
		Clarify and prioritize learning objectives Formulate learning plan: Strategies, tactics, and action plan for applying principles, modes, methods	
		Decision Making	
		Choose plan (which principles, modes, methods use)	
		Implementation	
		Implement solutions: Learn information and ideas Develop skill(s) Modify attitudes and behavior	

Table 4: Phases, Steps, and Applied Principles of a Structured Learning Approach

Phase I: Prepare
<p>Step 1: Be aware: stop to think what you're doing and how to do it well</p> <p>Step 2: Increase motivation: think about which personal and organizational goals and plans make the situation important</p> <p>Step 3: Seek a conducive environment</p> <p>Step 4: Get organized</p> <p>Step 5: Preview material to extent possible: get preliminary information about the situation and the material involved</p>
Phase II: Analyze (the situation or material)
<p>Step 6: Analyze observations and insights from your preview, and . . .</p> <p>a. Relate previewed material to present knowledge (crystallize knowledge)</p> <p>b. Identify situation's importance re: context, relevant goals/plans, priorities</p>
Phase III: Plan (Alternatives Formulation)
<p>Step 7: Formulate (alternative) learning objective(s) (within context of relevant goals)</p> <p>Step 8: Formulate alternative learning/development strategies and tactics, programs and projects that . . .</p> <p>* Identify senses and modes of learning that might use</p> <p>* Identify most effective method of learning to use (to structure whole/parts)</p> <p>* Identify principles that might apply during each phase of the process</p> <p>Step 9: Formulate an action plan (what do, in what order, when, who involved, etc.)</p> <p>Step 10: Budget time, financial resources, and human resources</p>
Phase IV: Make Decision(s)
<p>Step 11: Choose objective(s)</p> <p>Step 12: Choose plans [mode(s), method, and principles apply] and resources</p>
Phase V: Implement (acquire knowledge or skills: read, listen, watch, imitate, solve problem, or otherwise learn)
<p>Step 13: Initial Acquisition: apply learning principles:</p> <p>a. <u>Consciously Focus Attention</u></p> <p>b. <u>Acquire information through most appropriate or effective modes:</u></p> <p>c. <u>Use several senses</u> (visual, auditory, sensory-motor)</p> <p>d. <u>Acquire information through most appropriate or effective method</u></p> <p>e. <u>Be objective; keep an open mind</u></p> <p>f. <u>Use proper study habits</u></p> <p>Step 14: Simultaneous / Immediate Reinforcement: Apply Learning Principles</p> <p>a. <u>Take notes; make diagrams, models, flowcharts</u></p> <p>b. <u>Use mnemonic devices</u></p> <p>c. <u>Think about and evaluate what learning</u></p> <p>d. <u>Verify correctness of what you think you learned</u></p> <p>e. <u>Consciously associate knowledge</u></p> <p>f. <u>Anticipate uses of the material</u></p> <p>g. <u>Test your ability to recall the information or do what you learned</u></p> <p>h. <u>Review or repeat what you've learned</u></p>
Phase VI: Subsequently Reinforce Learning
<p>Step 15: Use or practice what you have learned</p>

Figure 3: Advance and Ongoing Activities and Approaches for Improving Learning Processes

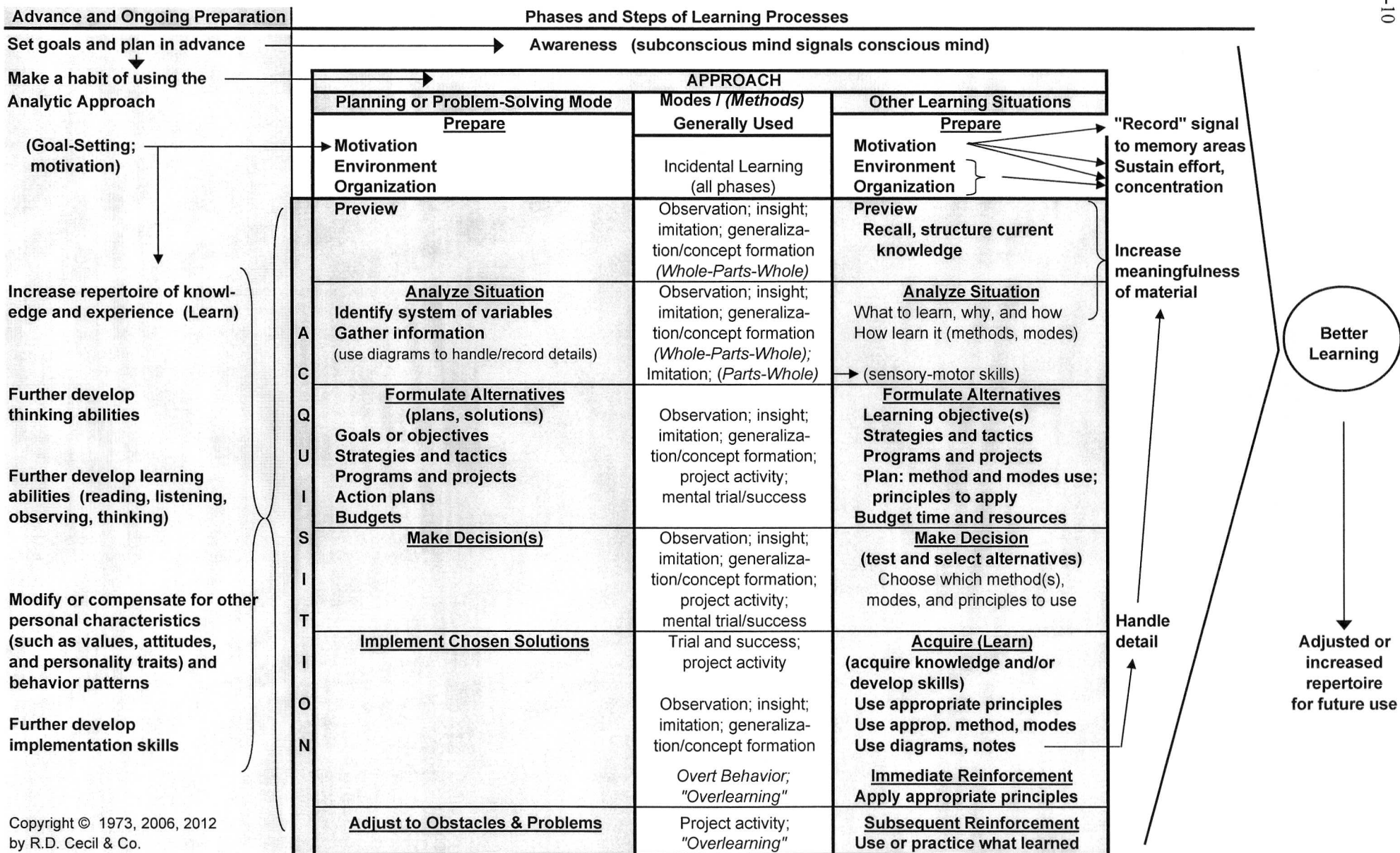


Figure 4: Wasting Time: Causes, Ways, and Symptoms

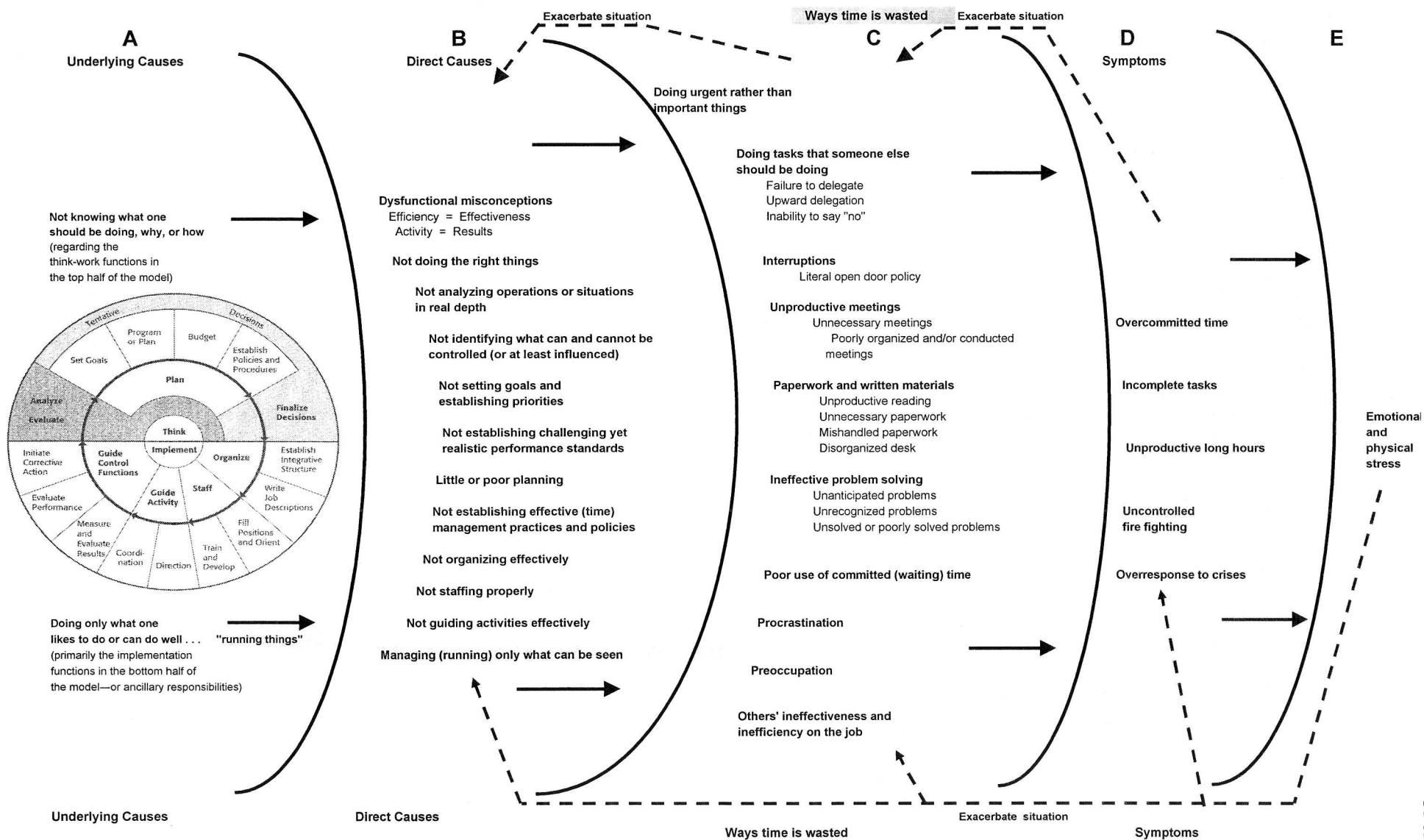
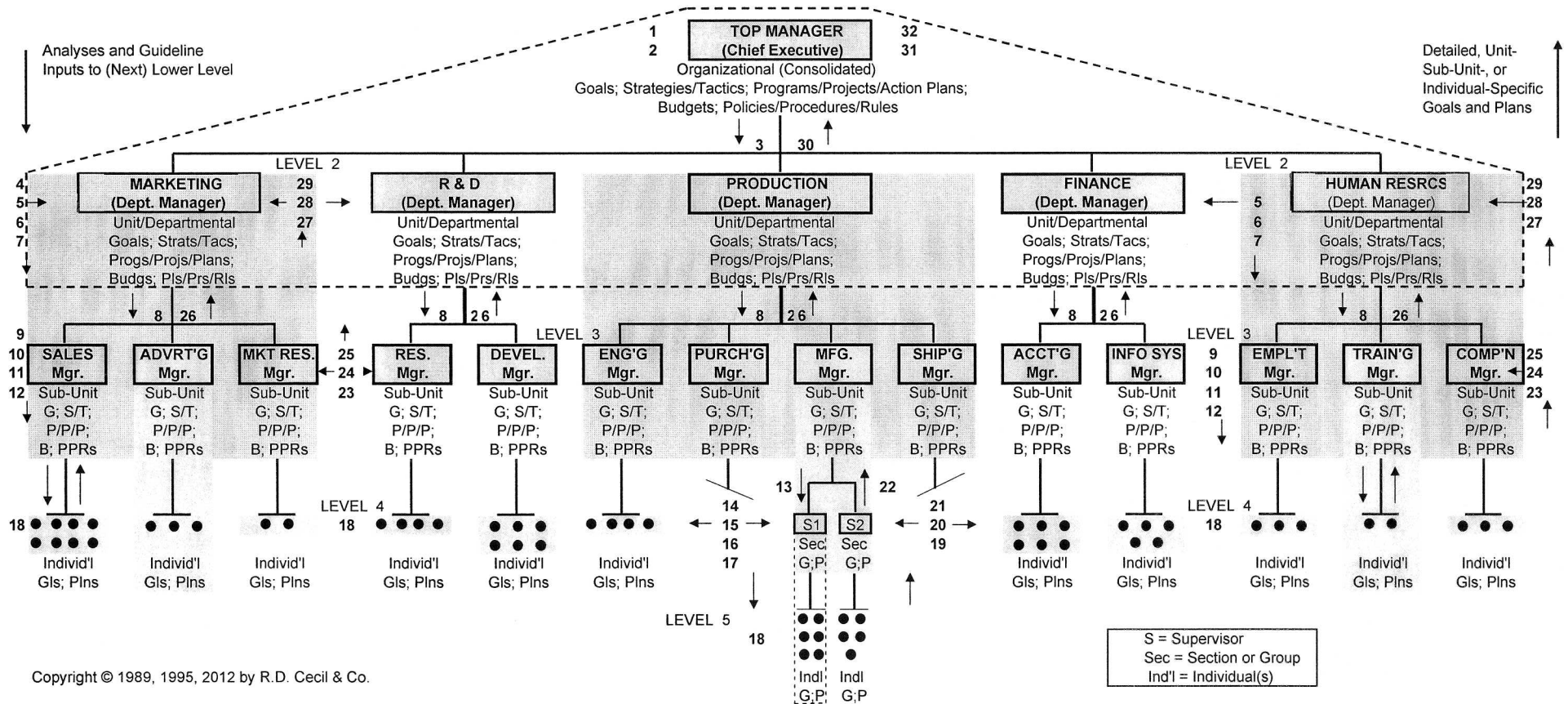


Table 5: Relationships Between Time Management, Phases of the Analytic Approach to Problem Solving, and Phases of the Managerial Process

	Time Management			
	Problem Solving	Managerial Process	In depth at a point in time, then →	At beginning of each month, week, day
What has happened or is going on -- and why?	Analysis of Situation	Analysis of Situation (including evaluation of past results or performance)	<p>A. Analyze one's use of time</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Log how time is used (what do, when start, where, for whom, what involved, purposes) 2. Analyze use of time; determine: how much time doing what & why; doing for whom & why; what doing to waste time & why; what should be doing & why 3. Identify what can do to improve one's own (and others') use of time <p>B. Analyze marketplace, business environment, and operations (in depth)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Analyze systems of factors 2. Identify/prioritize key elements or aspects of operations 3. Identify/prioritize problem areas and opportunities 4. Identify key elements to correct or improve 	<p>A. Review monthly/weekly Goals and Plans</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Determine results/progress to date 2. Identify what remains/needs to get done (and what do about it)
What needs to be done, or what might be done--and how?	Formulation of Alternative Solutions (and action plans for their implementation)	Planning Formulate/update Goals or Objectives Formulate/update: Strategies/Tactics Programs, Projects Action Plans Policies/Procedures/Rules Budgets	<p>C. For the longer term . . .</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Formulate/update & prioritize goals (organizational, unit, individual) 2. Formulate/update strategies/tactics, programs/projects, action plans, policies/procedures/rules, budgets (associated with various types of goals) <p>D. For the shorter term . . . do the same</p>	<p>B. Prioritize Goals for month, week, day</p> <p>C. Formulate plans or schedules for month, week, day</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Take account of contingencies 2. Break down large, complex, high priority projects into more manageable pieces 3. Prioritize planned/scheduled tasks or activities
What course of action should be taken?	Decision Making (Analytically test, compare, and select among the alternatives)	Decision-Making (Analytically test, compare, and select among alternative [sets of] goals, plans, budgets, policies, and procedures)	<p>E. Make (final) decision regarding . . .</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Time management improvement plans b. Operational goals and associated plans 	<p>D. Finalize schedule in own mind (and write in appointment book or week/day planner)</p>
Take action; do something	Implementation of Chosen Solutions	Implementation Organize Staff Guide/coordinate activity Guide control processes	<p>Implement organizational plans: (re)structure, (re)write job descriptions; delegate authority</p> <p>Implement staffing plans: (select, promote, hire, orient, educate, develop)</p> <p>Implement problem solutions</p> <p>Implement other operating plans</p>	<p>Carry out schedule for month, week, day</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Brief assistant (and subordinates) 2. Make and take calls at certain times 3. Adhere to other time management do's and don'ts

Figure 5: Illustration of "Top-Down/Bottom-Up" Organizational Planning Process Steps



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same basic process (or approach) is conducted within all of the possible contexts that relate to managing and leading—for example, planning, problem solving (and decision making), communicating, learning, managing change, and managing conflict.

The ring immediately outside the core briefly describes the objectives of each function.

The next and much wider ring describes the *basic activities involved in each function*.

The next two outward rings describe activities involved in a *strategic/long-range planning process* and then an *annual goal-setting and planning process*. We attribute primary importance to strategic/long-range planning, because it establishes an overall, future-oriented context for performing *all* the other processes most effectively.

The next ring describes activities involved in the *ad hoc or interim problem-solving (or decision-making) processes* that occur between planning processes. The phases and steps are outlined again here in **Table 1** and are described in detail in the booklet on *Team Think-Work in Organizations*. Remember that effective team think-work also requires effective communication and other interpersonal skills.

The next ring describes how the analytic approach should be used to maximize the effectiveness of *communication processes*. The phases and steps are outlined again here in **Table 2**.

The outside ring describes two phases of effective *learning processes*. As shown in **Table 3**, the first phase involves analyzing the situation and identifying what needs to be learned or further developed, and then planning how best to learn the knowledge and develop the skills, which is a learning process in itself. As shown in **Table 4**, the second phase occurs when one is actually in a particular learning situation. It involves using the analytic approach to analyze that situation and plan how best to acquire whatever is to be learned or developed. While problem solving is the main mode of in some learning situations, other learning situation may involve the other modes of learning as well. Both situations are shown in **Figure 3**.

Implications for Better Managing Time

It is during planning processes that *time management* is explicitly addressed. As shown in **Figure 4**, time management is basically good management: analyzing what is go-

ing on and why; determining what organizational goals and their priorities should be; determining what programs and projects should be carried out; determining how they should be implemented; and so on. As also shown in **Table 5**, and in the analysis phase of the strategic/long-range planning process ring of **Figure 2**, it involves analyzing (a) how managers and their subordinates are using their time, and (b) how their use of time could be improved through better analysis, planning, decision making, organizing, staffing, coordinating, and evaluating performance.

Implications for Better Managing Change

Now note the phrase “*manage change*” underneath the titles of the other processes. Its position indicates that *effectively managing change embodies all the other processes and the participative approach to management*. First and foremost, managing change involves strategic/long-range planning in order to establish the following: (a) a context for bringing about and responding to change over time; (b) a context or framework for annual planning and interim problem solving and decision making; (c) goals that specify what to change (correct or improve); and (d) plans that outline how to go about implementing improvements in an effective, efficient, coordinated, cost-effective, reasonable, just, fair, and non-threatening manner. Managing change necessitates analyzing industry competitors, technologies, consumers, and a host of variables that could affect the industry and its marketplace over time. As shown in **Figure 5**, it also involves the following: (a) a participative approach, wherein personnel take part in analyzing the situation, setting goals, and planning how to bring about solutions and improvements; and (b) effective communication among managers, bosses, colleagues, and subordinates during team (top-down, bottom-up, and horizontal) planning sessions. Managing change involves not only goal-orienting people’s behavior, but also means-orienting it by training and developing personnel, so that they learn the knowledge and develop the skills necessary to analyze the situation, plan, and implement change successfully. In addition to involving learning, managing change also *results* in learning. And it also involves ad hoc problem solving and decision making during the implementation of long-range/strategic and annual plans. As a matter of fact, *change results from every process shown in Figure 2*.

Implications for Better Managing Conflict

Manage Conflict also appears under the other processes. It has two aspects: corrective and preventive. As mentioned in the booklet on *Interpersonal Relations*, conflict resolu-

tion is a corrective problem-solving situation. It involves analyzing possible causes of interpersonal problems that have already occurred (or are simmering beneath the surface), and then formulating solutions to deal with them. Some of the possible causes were discussed in that booklet. The term “conflict management” puts more emphasis on prevention than on correction. It involves either correcting or improving potentially causal factors in order to minimize if not head off interpersonal conflicts. Managing conflict involves all the processes associated with managing change—that is, planning, problem solving, learning (especially learning interpersonal skills and functional interpersonal attitudes), and communicating. Only the context and objectives of conflict management differentiate it from the other, related processes.

Implications for Better Managing (and Using) Knowledge

Most sophisticated organizations have well-developed databases (consisting of numerical data). However, as mentioned earlier, almost half of organizational knowledge is still in people’s heads. Called “tacit knowledge,” it is expanded and used day by day. However, most organizations do not “harvest” it into searchable tacit knowledge bases (which we called “qualitative information bases” toward the end of the booklet on *Individual and Organizational Learning*).

As also mentioned, organizational personnel are confronted with mountains of information that they simply cannot handle well. To help personnel deal with this phenomenon, organizations should begin developing “diagrammatic knowledge bases” of both qualitative and quantitative information (in various organizational areas). These were described toward the end of the booklet on *Analyzing* and were mentioned again in the booklet on *Learning*.

Therefore, managers and think-work teams should do the following: First, especially during planning processes, use checklists of variables to harvest tacit information, and then use and update those qualitative information bases during any subsequent think-work processes. Second, during a strategic/long-range planning process, initially develop diagrammatic knowledge bases for various organizational areas, and then utilize, add to, and modify them during subsequent think-work processes.

Major Implications Regarding Management in General

As pointed out in the Introduction to the booklets on *The*

Think-Work Managerial and Leadership Functions, and as shown throughout this series, effective management is not “all a matter of any one thing.” For example, it is not simply a matter of managing by objectives, or managing by exception, or managing by results, or managing by responsibility, or managing change, or managing conflict, or managing risk, or managing knowledge, or managing whatever. Neither is it simply a matter of using the analytic approach, or planning, or problem solving, or communicating, or learning, or using the participative or team approach. *It is a matter of all of them*, because they are all essentially the same thing or parts of the same thing—just performed in different contexts or at different points in the same process. For example, planning, solving problems, and making decisions as a team involve *all* processes in **Figure 2**. Communicating and learning as a team also involve *all* the other processes.

In other words, as also shown by **Figure 2**, *when managers and leaders (and their subordinates) are performing any one of the processes, they are probably performing most if not all of the others at the same time*. They just never realized it before. For example, a problem-solving process is a learning process, because it results in learning. However, regardless of whether or not problem solving is the mode of learning, a learning process should be a “problem-solving process”—that is, it should involve analyzing the situation, setting learning goals, planning, and decision making before actually acquiring information. In either team learning or team thinking situations, communication processes are involved; and when individuals are communicating, they should be structuring the process using analysis, goal-setting, planning, and decision-making steps. And, if they are good senders and receivers and are listening to each other, they are also learning.

This means that, *during any one of these processes (or contexts), it behooves the team to be aware of points raised above and consciously apply the concepts and principles associated with the related processes in order to maximize the effectiveness with which they, too, are being performed*. For example, (a) maximize learning during problem-solving situations by also applying learning principles; (b) maximize learning during communication processes by also applying learning principles; (c) maximize effectiveness during communication processes by applying think-work principles and steps; (d) maximize effectiveness in thinking situations by applying communication principles and learning from each other as a team. This awareness can also help groups realize where they are in any given type of process and what the implications might be for enhancing the other simultaneously-involved processes.

Figure 6: Advance and Ongoing Activities for Continually Improving Problem-Solving and Decision-Making Processes

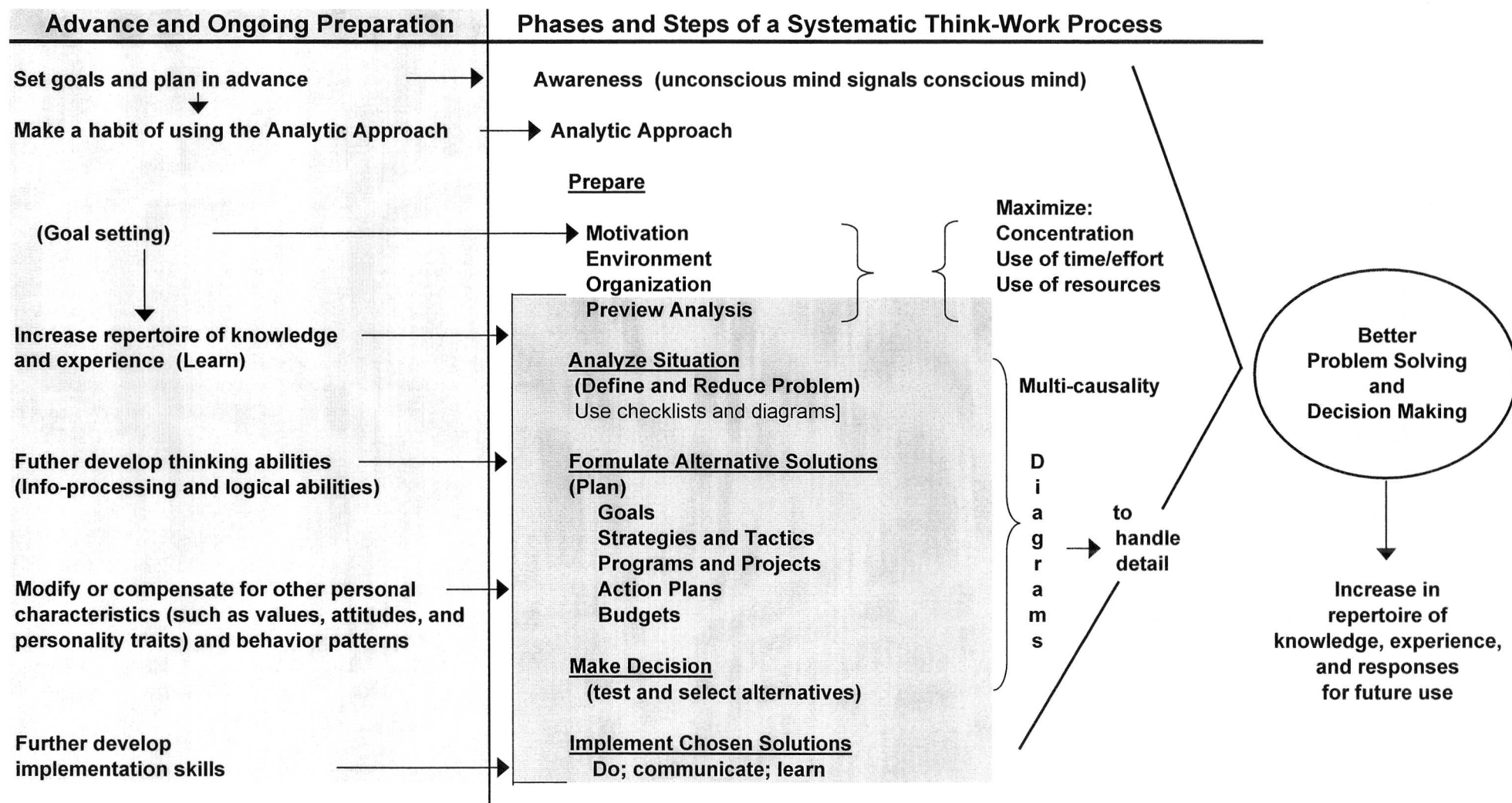


Figure 7: Advance and Ongoing Activities for Continually Improving Communication Processes

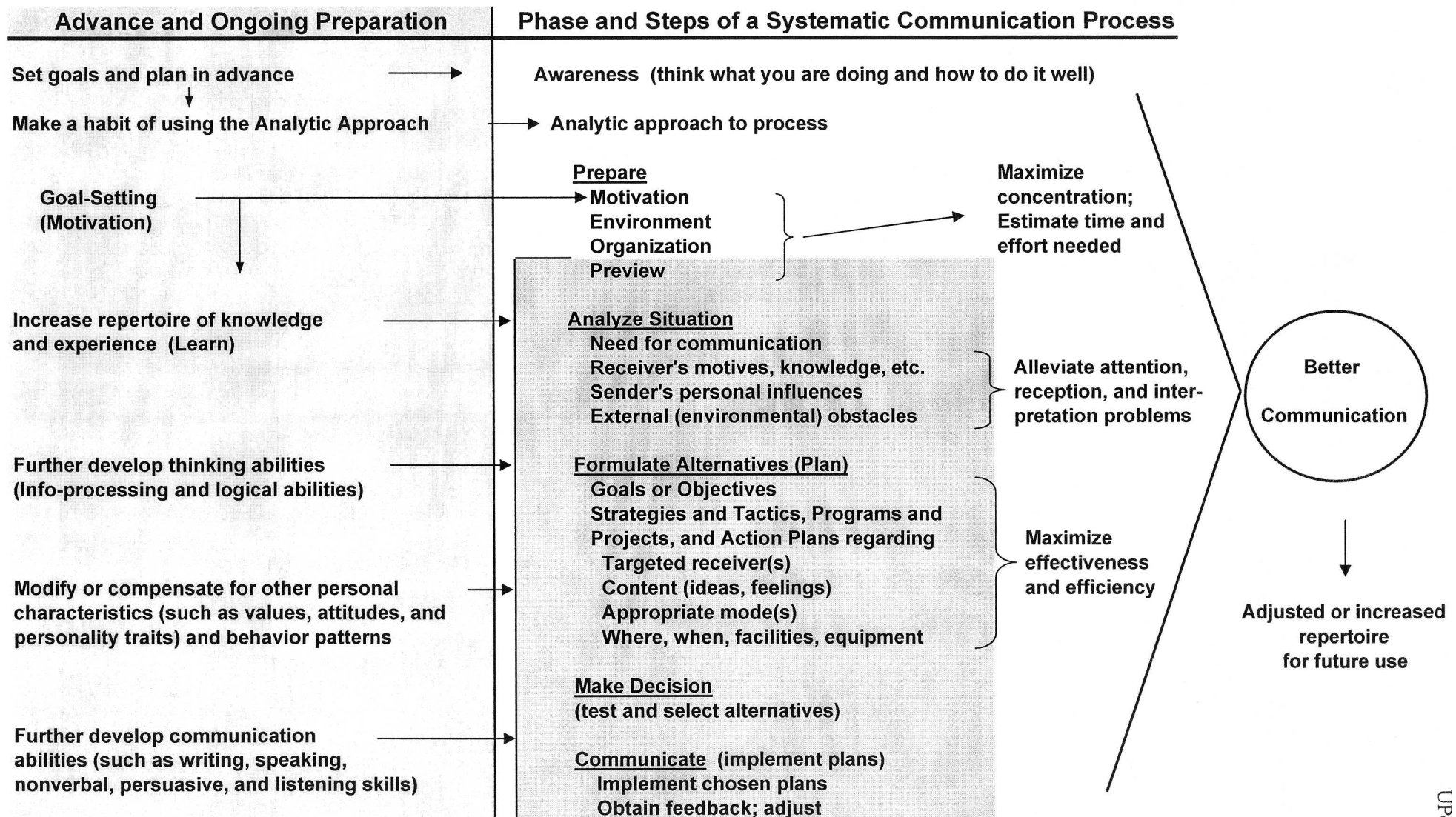


Figure 8: Summary of Advance and Ongoing Activities for Continually Improving All Mental Processes

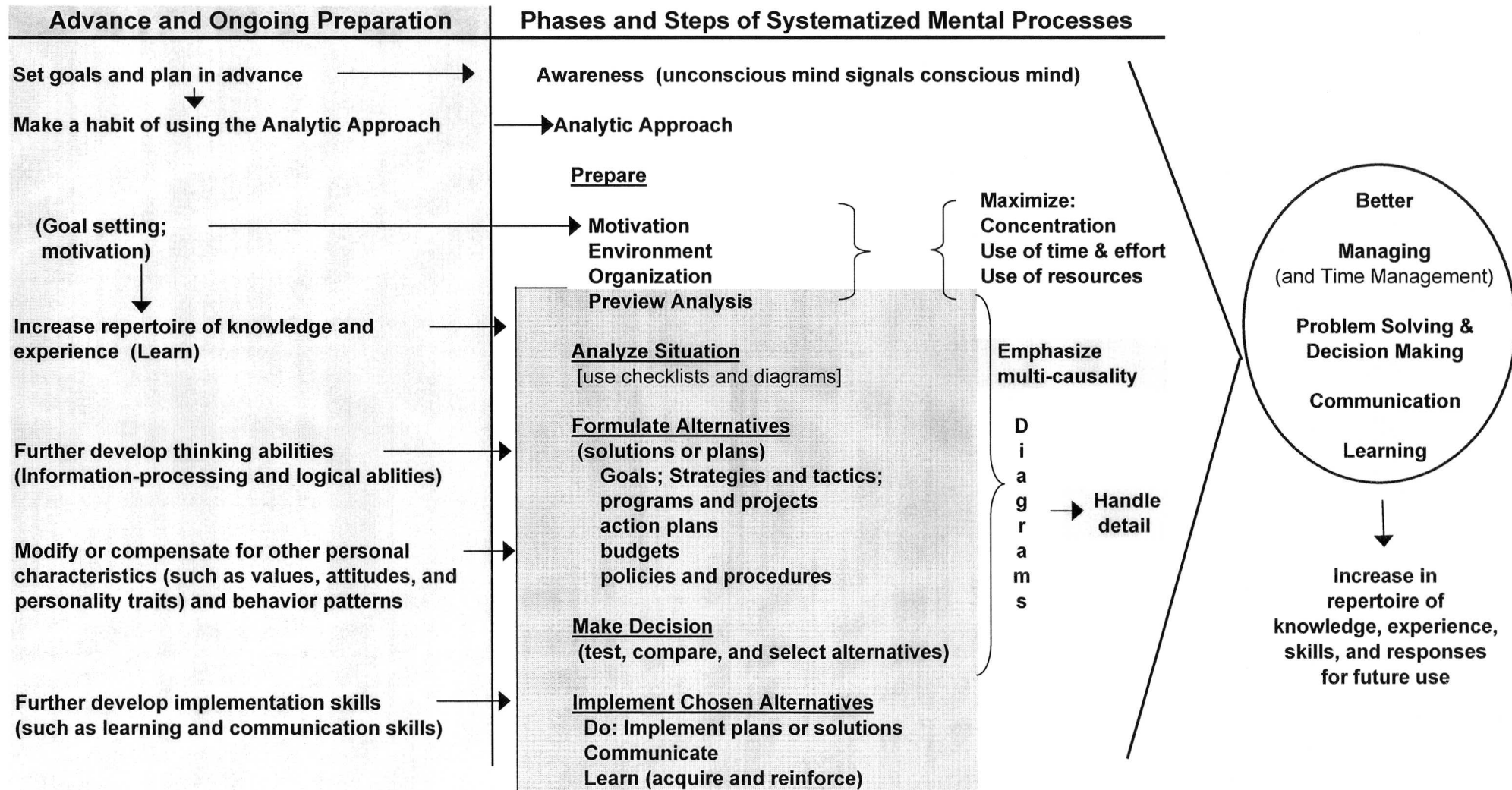


Figure 9: Training Foundations of Long-Term Organizational Success

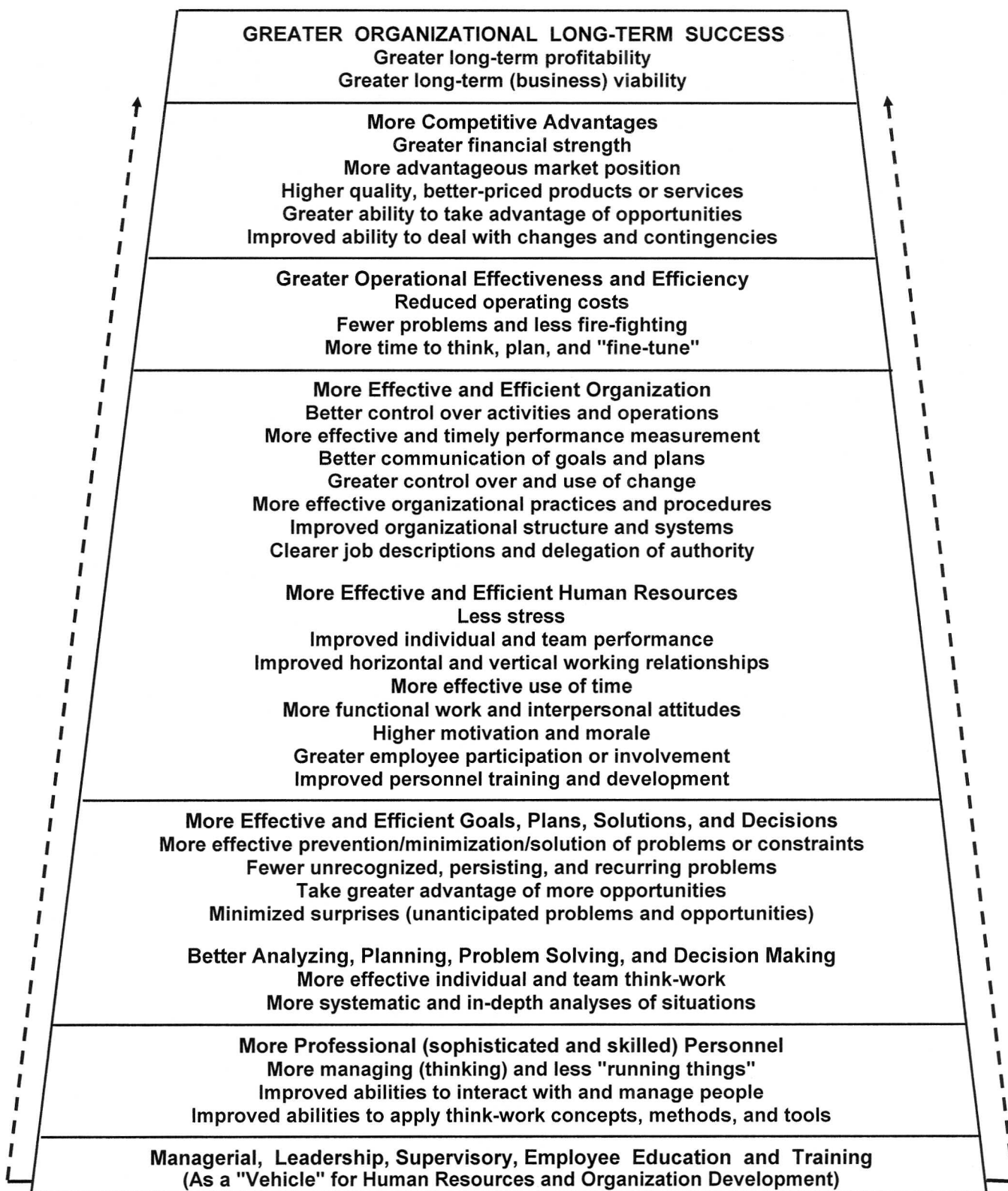


Figure 10: Basic Inputs and Activities for Developing Managers, Leaders, and Organizations

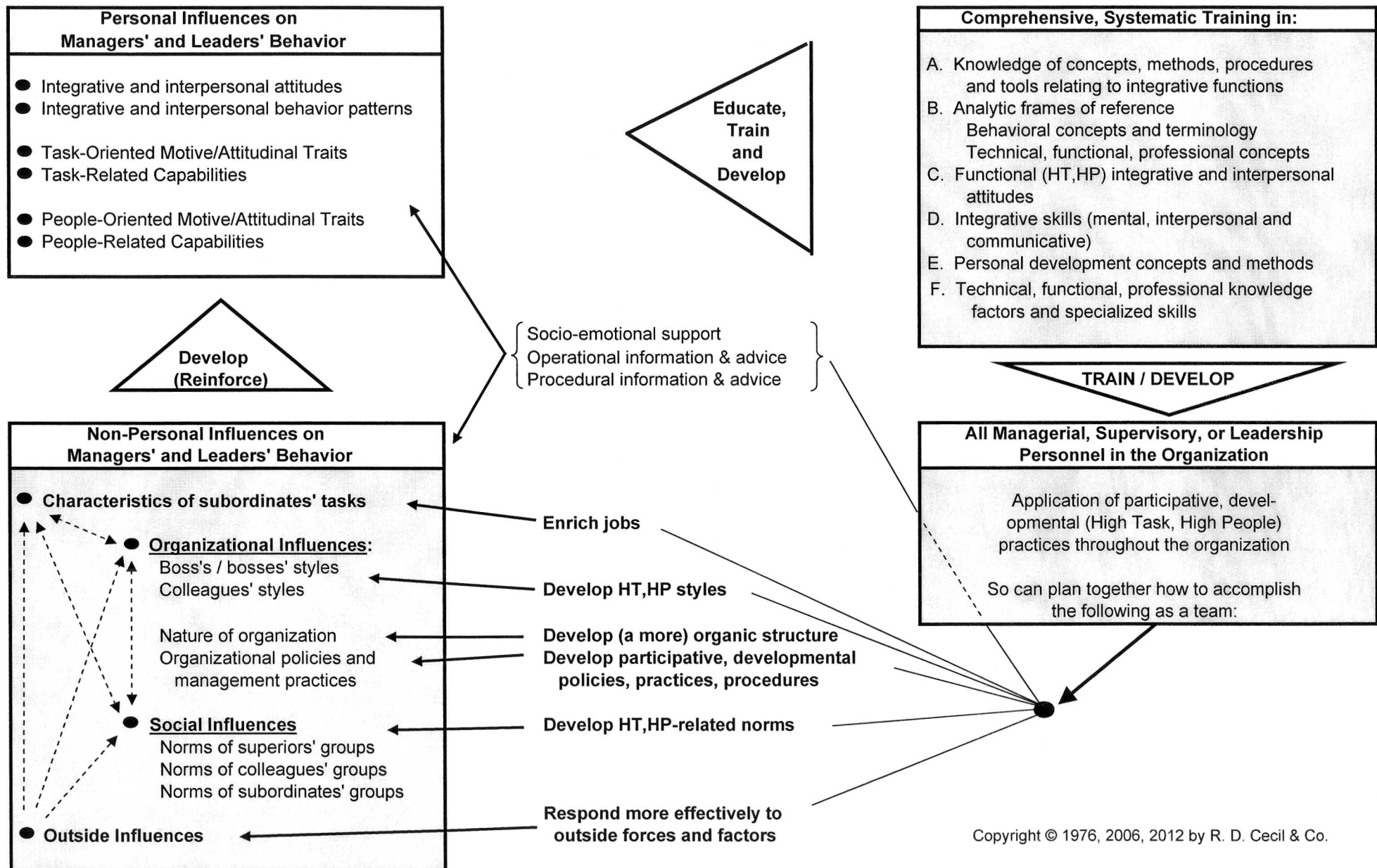


Figure 11: A Next-Generation, Integrated Management/Leadership/OD Project

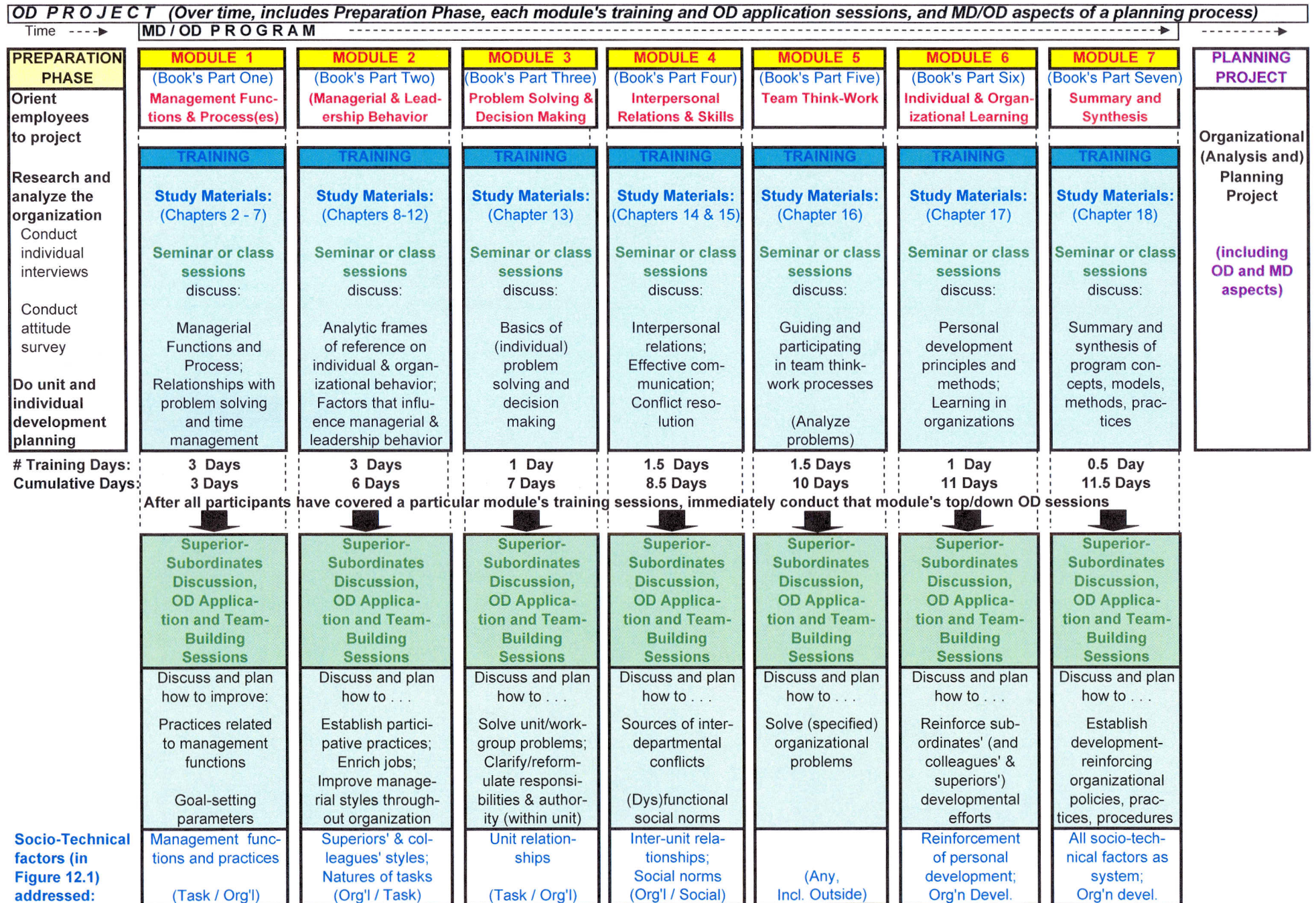


Figure 12: Synergistic Inputs and Phased Developmental Activities for Developing Subordinates and a Participative Unit (or Organizational) Atmosphere

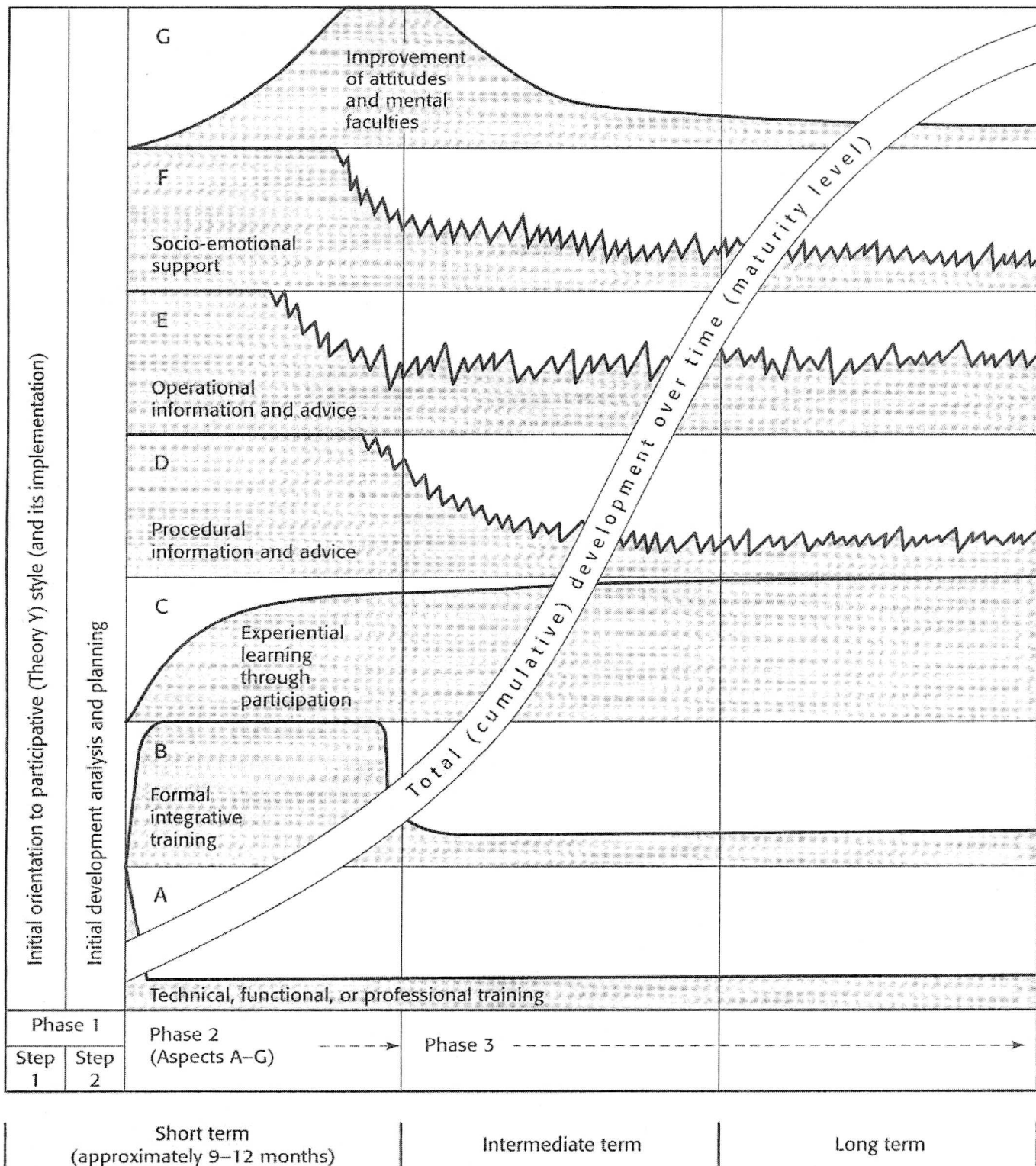
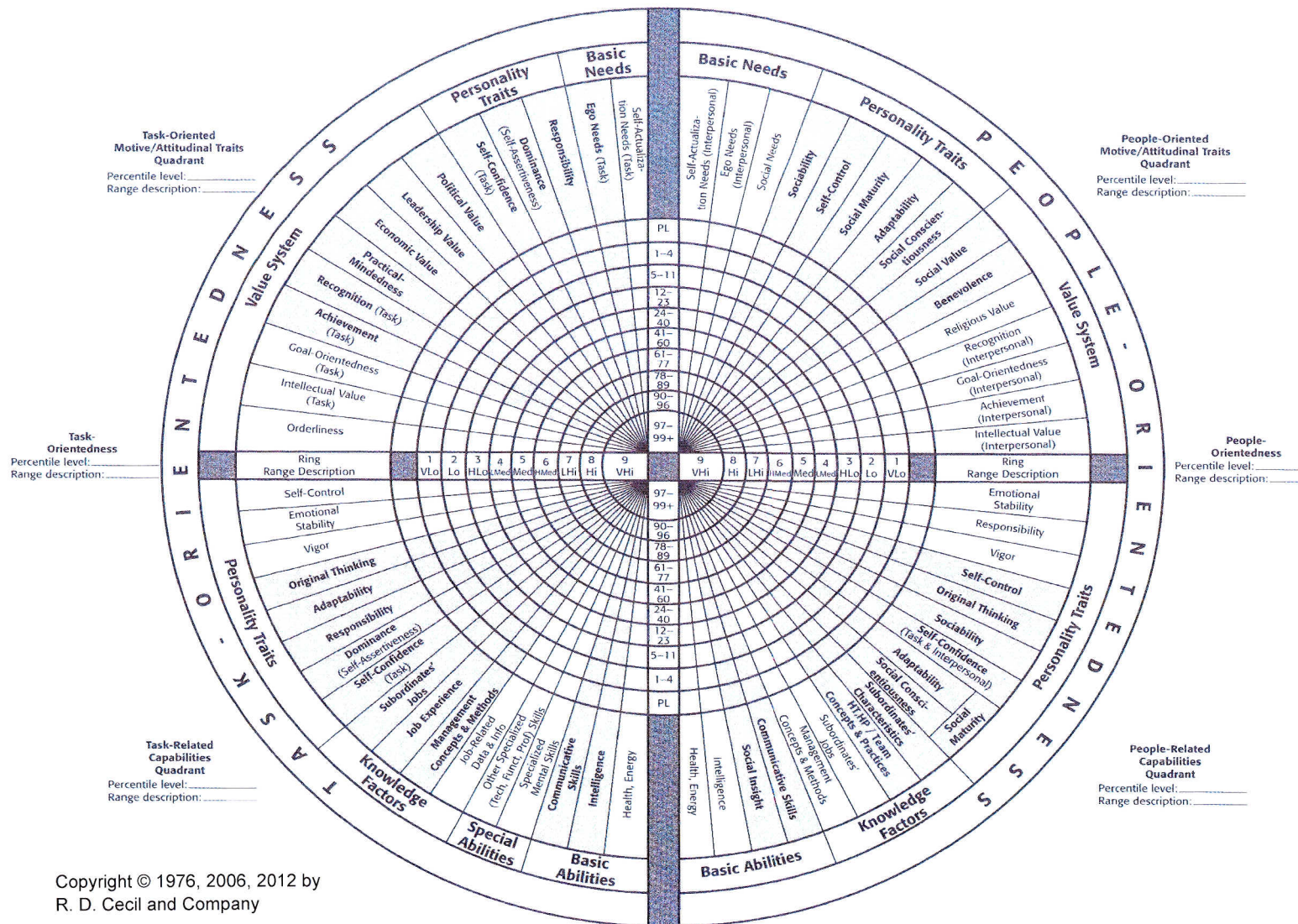


Figure 13: The Managerial Target[®] (Expanded Version)



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Figure 14-A

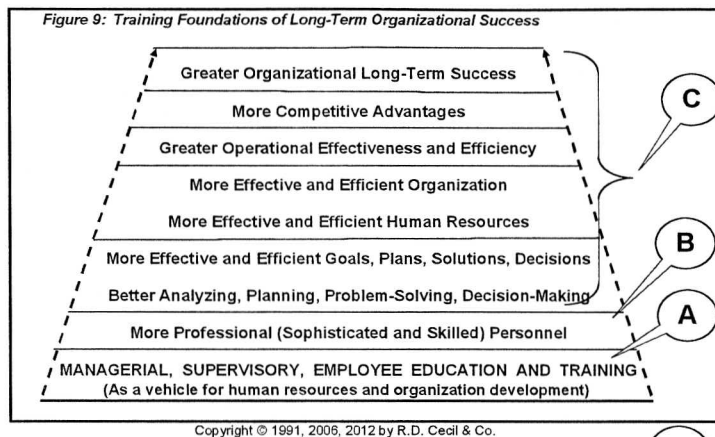


Figure 13: The Managerial Target^R

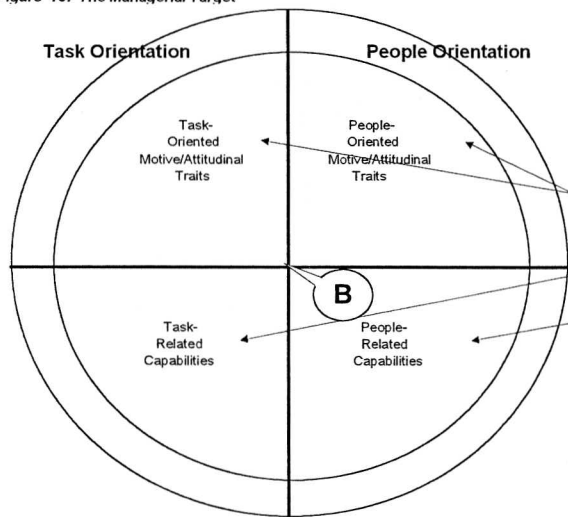


Figure 8: Summary of Advance/Ongoing Activities for Continually Improving *All* Mental Processes

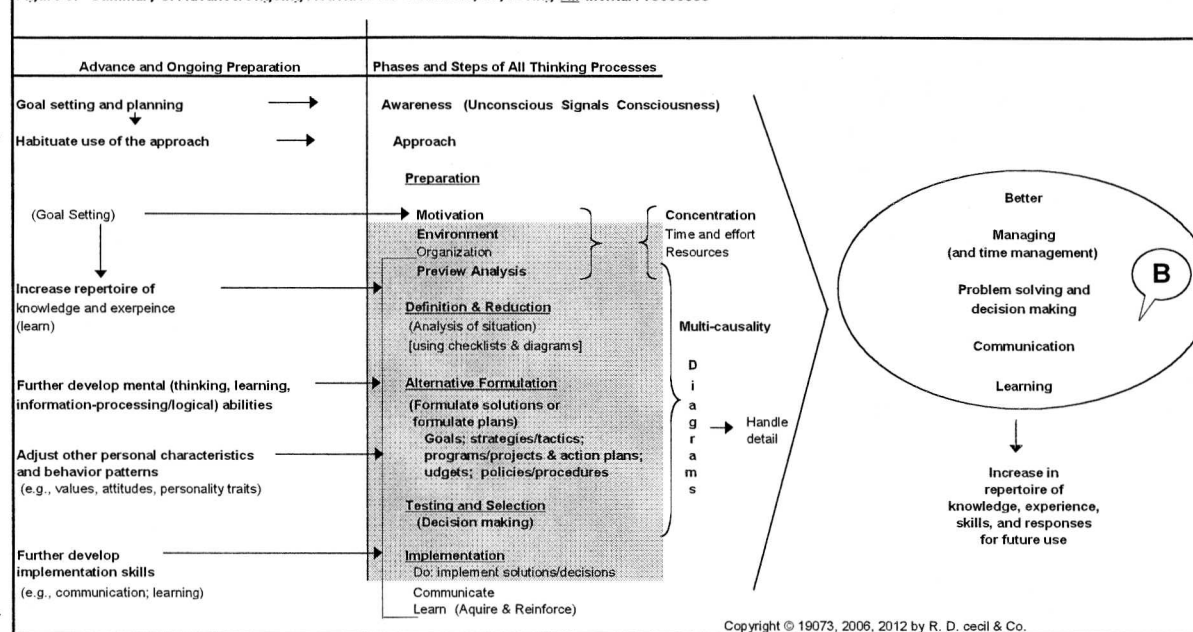


Figure 10: Basic Inputs and Activities for Developing Managers and Organizations

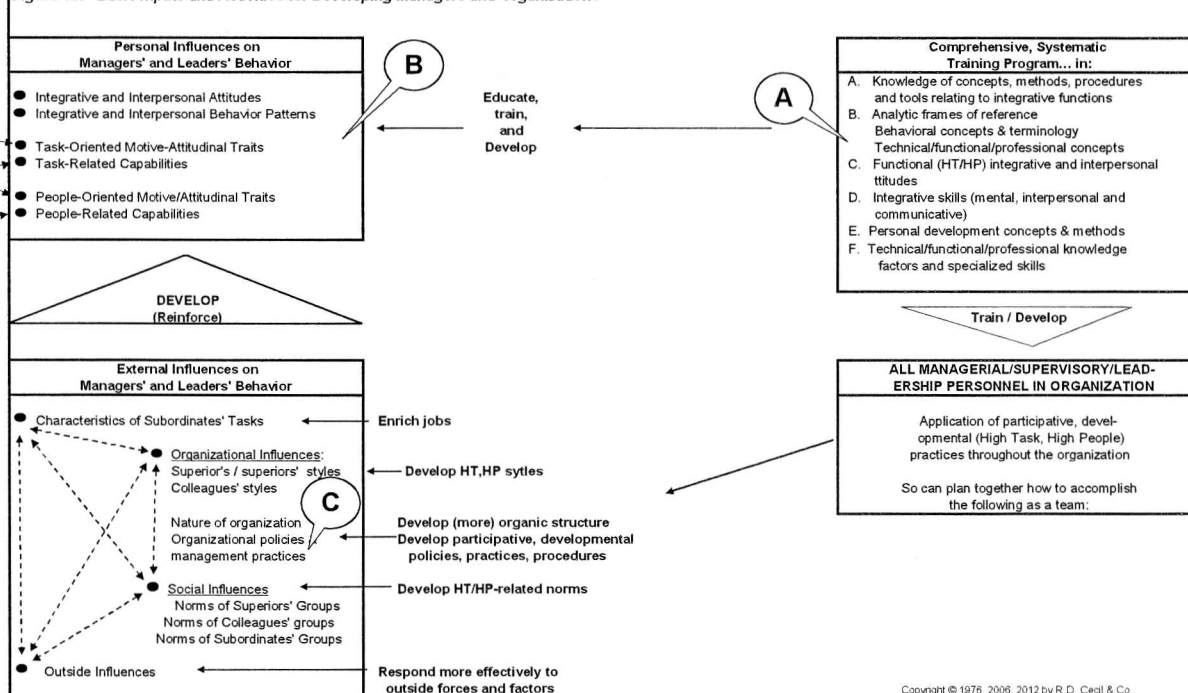


Figure 14-B

Figure 12: Synergistic Inputs and Phased Developmental Activities

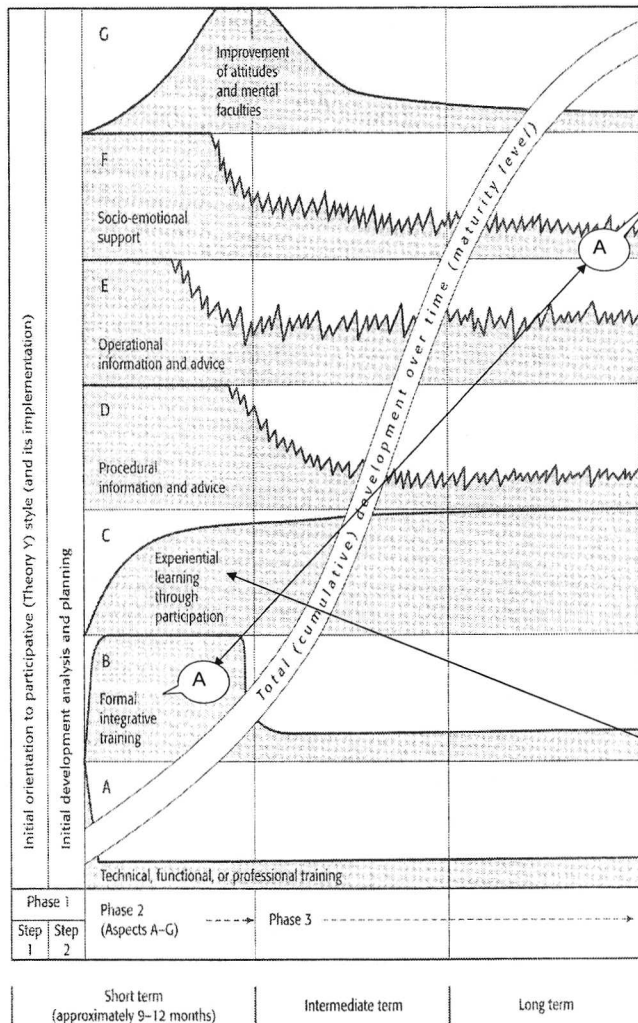
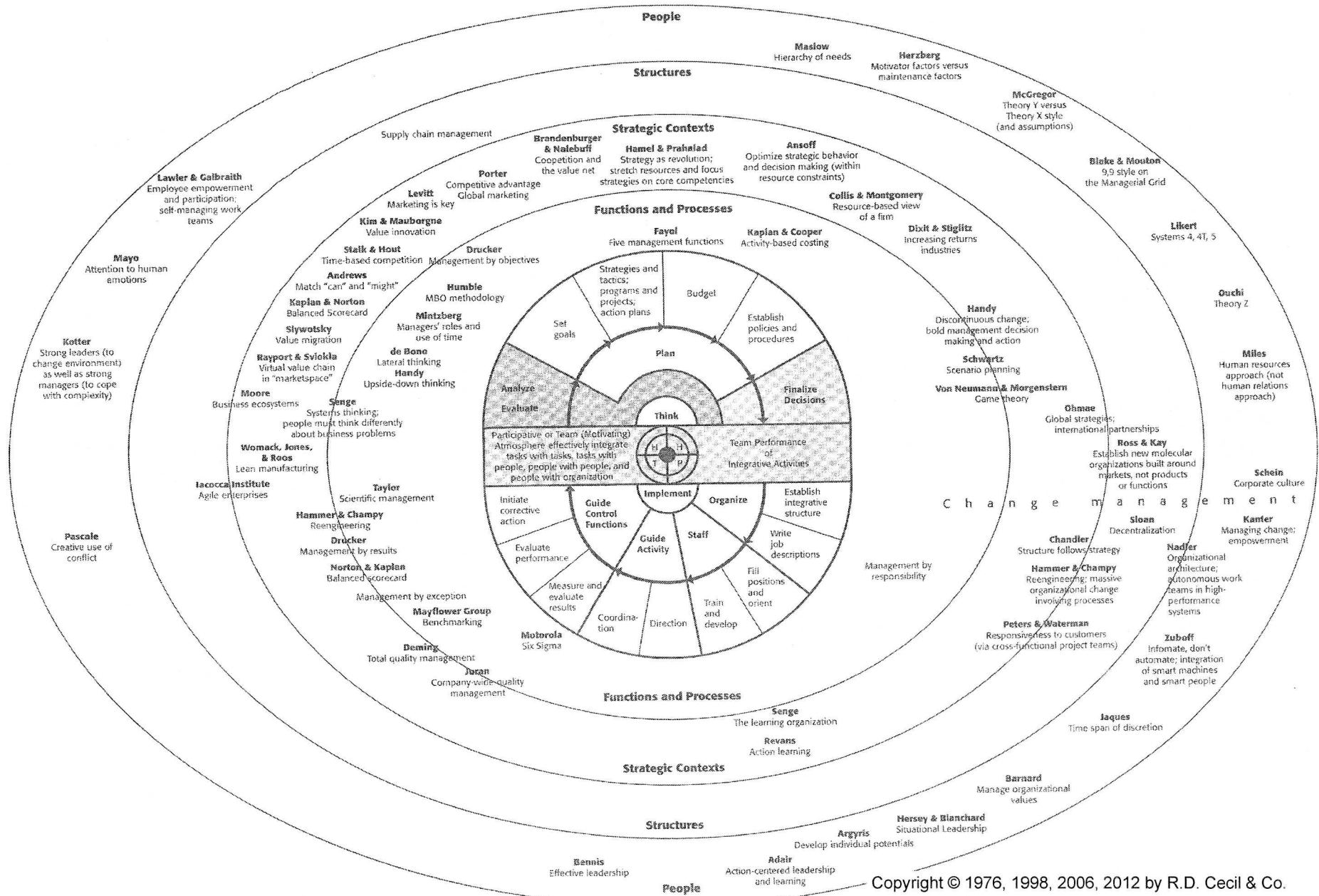


Figure 11: A Next Generation, Integrated MD/OD Project

OD PROJECT (includes Preparation Phase, Each Module's Training and OD Sessions, and MD/OD Aspects of Planning Process)							
Time ----> MD/OD PROGRAM							
PREPARATION PHASE	MODULE 1 (Book's Part 1) Management Functions & Process(es)	MODULE 2 (Book's Part 2) (Managerial) Behavior	MODULE 3 (Book's Part 3) Problem-Solving & Decision-Making	MODULE 4 (Book's Part 4) Interpersonal Relations & Skills	MODULE 5 (Book's Part 5) Team Think-Work	MODULE 6 (Book's Part 6) Individual & Organizational Learning	MODULE 7 (Book's Part 7) Summary and Synthesis
Orient Employees to Project							
Research & Analyze the Organization							
Conduct Individual Interviews							
Conduct Attitude Survey							
Do Unit and Individual Development Planning							
	TRAINING	TRAINING	TRAINING	TRAINING	TRAINING	TRAINING	TRAINING
	Study Materials: Book's Part 1 (Chapters 2 - 7)	Study Materials: Book's Part 2 (Chapters 8-12)	Study Materials: Book's Part 3 (Chapter 13)	Study Materials: Book's Part 4 (Chapters 14 & 15)	Study Materials: Book's Part 5 (Chapter 16)	Study Materials: Book's Part 6 (Chapter 17)	Study Materials: Book's Part 7 (Chapter 18)
	Seminar / Class Sessions cover / discuss: Managerial Functions and Process; Relationships with Problem-Solving; Time Management	Seminar / Class Sessions cover / discuss: Analytic Frames of Reference on Individual & Organizational Behavior; and Factors that Influence Managerial Behavior	Seminar / Class Sessions cover / discuss: (Individual) Problem-Solving and Decision-Making	Seminar / Class Sessions cover / discuss: Interpersonal Relations; Effective Communication; Conflict Resolution	Seminar / Class Sessions cover / discuss: Guiding and Participating in Group Think-Work Processes (Analyze Problems)	Seminar / Class Sessions cover / discuss: Personal Development Principles and Methods; Learning in Organizations	Seminar / Class Sessions cover / discuss: Summary and Synthesis of Program Concepts, Models, Methods, Practices
# Training Days:	3 Days	3 Days	1 Day	1.5 Days	1.5 Days	1 Day	0.5 Day
Cumulative Days:	3 Days	6 Days	7 Days	8.5 Days	10 Days	11 Days	11.5 Days
After all Participants have covered a particular module's Training Sessions, immediately conduct that module's Top/Down OD Sessions							
	SUPERIOR-SUBORDINATES DISCUSSION, OD APPLICATION & TEAM-BUILDING SESSIONS	SUPERIOR-SUBORDINATES DISCUSSION, OD APPLICATION & TEAM-BUILDING SESSIONS	SUPERIOR-SUBORDINATES DISCUSSION, OD APPLICATION & TEAM-BUILDING SESSIONS	SUPERIOR-SUBORDINATES DISCUSSION, OD APPLICATION & TEAM-BUILDING SESSIONS	SUPERIOR-SUBORDINATES DISCUSSION, OD APPLICATION & TEAM-BUILDING SESSIONS	SUPERIOR-SUBORDINATES DISCUSSION, OD APPLICATION & TEAM-BUILDING SESSIONS	SUPERIOR-SUBORDINATES DISCUSSION, OD APPLICATION & TEAM-BUILDING SESSIONS
	Discuss, & Plan How to Improve:	Discuss, & Plan How to . . .	Discuss, & Plan How to . . .	Discuss, & Plan How to Deal with:	Discuss, & Plan How to . . .	Discuss, & Plan How to . . .	Discuss, & Plan How to . . .
	Practices re: Management Functions	Establish Participative Practices; Enrich Jobs; Improve Managerial Styles throughout Organization	Solve Unit/Work-group Problems; Clarify/Reformulate Responsibilities & Authority (within Unit)	Sources of Inter-departmental Conflicts	Solve (Specified) Organizational Problems	Reinforce Subordinates' (and Colleagues' & Superiors') Developmental Efforts	Establish Development-Reinforcing Organizational Policies, Practices, Procedures
	Goal-Setting Parameters						
	Management Functions and Practices (Task / Org'l) (Now start Mod 2)	Superiors' & Colleagues' Styles; Natures of Tasks (Org'l / Task) (Now start Mod 3)	Unit Relationships (Task / Org'l) (Now start Mod 4)	Inter-Unit Relationships; Social Norms (Org'l / Social) (Now start Mod 5)	(Any, Incl. Outside) (Now start Mod 6)	Reinforcement of Personal Development; Org'n Devel. (Now start Mod 7)	All Socio-Technical Factors as System; Org'n Devel.

Figure 15: Unified Practice of Management™ Model: Management Gurus



Again, **Figure 2** is the basic model. It outlines *what* managers and their organizations *should do* to maximize organizational effectiveness. It interrelates, equates, and unifies all the processes, regardless of context: the managerial and leadership functions and process; time management; planning processes; change management; conflict management; problem-solving and decision-making processes; communication processes; and learning processes. It unifies all those processes with team or participative management. It unifies a participative management approach with individualized (situationalized) development of subordinates. And it puts MBO, MBE, and all the other “management bys” into an overall, integrated perspective.

Further Implications for Developing Managers, Leaders, Their Personnel, and Their Organizations

Figures 3, 6, and 7 show many of the inputs that developmental efforts are aimed at improving. These inputs include the following: impressions in memory of well-formulated organizational, unit, and individual goals and plans; habituated use of the analytic approach; increased repertoire of knowledge and experience; further developed thinking abilities; adjusted personal characteristics and behavior patterns; and further developed implementation skills (for example, learning and communication skills). Note that **Figure 8** is a summary of those three earlier figures.

Figure 9 shows the pyramidal model, “Training Foundations of Long-Term Organizational Success.” **Figure 10** indicates “Basic Inputs and Activities for Developing Managers and Organizations.” **Figure 11** illustrates the organization-wide, “Next-Generation Integrated MD/OD Project” presented in this series. **Figure 12** is the model illustrating “Synergistic Inputs and Phased Developmental Activities for Developing Subordinates and a Participative Unit (or Organizational) Atmosphere.” **Figure 13** shows the four capabilities and motive/attitudinal traits quadrants of The Managerial Target®.

Figures 14-A and 14-B summarize and put into perspective **Figures 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13**, and several other key illustrations in this series. These contain many of the same points, but points presented within slightly different contexts.

The “A” Callouts

The “A” callouts on both pages indicate a General Management/Leadership/Supervisory/Employee Development

Program such as illustrated in **Figure 11**. As shown in summary **Figure 14-B**, the project outlined in **Figure 11** is essentially the same as the “Formal Integrative Training Program” (“Aspect B”) illustrated in **Figure 12**. As shown in **Figure 14-A**, it is also a large part of the “Managerial, Supervisory, Employee Education and Training” level at the bottom of the pyramid in **Figure 9**. In addition, it is the “Comprehensive Systematic Training Program” at the top right corner of **Figure 10** (here in **Figure 14-A**).

Note that the superior-subordinates discussion, OD application, and team-building sessions following the training portions of the seven modules play a major role in providing opportunities for “Experiential Learning through Participation” (“Aspect C”) in **Figure 12**.

The “B” Callouts

The Education/Development Program indicated by “A” callouts is aimed at further developing the knowledge and skills indicated by the “B” callouts. These are shown in several places. They are the “Integrative and Interpersonal Attitudes and Behavior Patterns” and “Task- and People-Related Motive/Attitudinal Traits and Capabilities” in the top left box of **Figure 10** (in **Figure 15-A**). As shown by the four arrows pointing both ways between **Figure 10** and **Figure 13** (in **Figure 14-A**), those same four groups of personal inputs to greater managerial/leadership effectiveness are on The Managerial Target®. They are also the developing basic inputs shown in the left column of **Figure 8** (in the top right corner of **Figure 14-A**). In addition, they can learn the many management concepts and principles that they should think about when performing think-work functions. These are illustrated in **Figure 15** and will be discussed shortly.

The “C” Callouts

Programs for further developing the knowledge and abilities involved in thinking, learning, communicating, and relating more effectively are ultimately aimed at preparing participants to do two things: First, during the program itself, begin identifying and improving or dealing with socio-technical variables listed/illustrated in (a) the bottom left box of **Figure 10** (in **Figure 15-A**); and (b) the increasingly higher levels of the pyramid in **Figure 9** (in **Figure 15-A**). Second, following the development program, perform an extraordinarily effective *strategic/long-range planning process*, during which they can also formulate and implement plans for bringing about (a) further socio-technical changes in **Figure 10**, and (b) more organizational improvements illustrated in **Figure 9**.

[Note: It was necessary to describe the relationships in the paragraphs above. However, a reader will probably be able to make more sense of them simply by looking at the figures in **Figures 15-A** and **15-B** and following the arrows between them.]

Implications for *When* to Do What It Takes to Maximize Managerial, Leadership, and Organizational Effectiveness

Now the question becomes, *when* (in what situations or using what processes) can an organization do the most to maximize managerial and organizational effectiveness? As shown in the pyramid in **Figure 9**, it takes maximizing people's effectiveness (bottom level) in order to achieve the upward succession of improvements necessary to maximize organizational effectiveness. So the *when* can actually involve two processes: first, an integrated MD/OD program; second, a full strategic/long-range planning process.

First, if it has not already done so, an organization should begin by planning and conducting an MD/OD program (such as in this series and illustrated in **Figure 11**) in order to further develop all the inputs shown in **Figure 10**—at least throughout the managerial/supervisory team if not the entire organization. These inputs include: (a) knowledge of management and leadership concepts and practices; (b) knowledge of and ability to use think-work methods and tools; (c) knowledge of behavioral concepts, terms, and phenomena; and (d) interpersonal or “soft” skills (such as interpersonal awareness and sensitivity, communication skills, conflict resolution skills, and group process skills). These and other inputs better prepare managers, leaders, and their personnel to more effectively lead and/or participate in the organization's integrative processes. They also prepare managers and their personnel to more effectively participate in the next major process.

Second, with more developed capabilities and more functional attitudes, managers and their personnel are able to *maximize the effectiveness of think-work processes, which, in turn, results in maximized plans for vastly increasing if not maximizing an organization's operational effectiveness*. When can this best be accomplished? Based on discussions in previous chapters and their experience, the author concludes that *a strategic/long-range planning process offers the best opportunity* to do the following: (a) scope out the organization's meta-system (the whole); (b) identify sub-systems of variables (parts) and their interrelationships; (c) dig down into more finite factors (parts) and identify their relationships (using checklists of marketing, socio-technical, production, financial, and other variables);

(d) collect associated facts or information (parts); (e) diagram the major aspects of the analysis; (f) analyze the entire qualitative/quantitative construct to identify what can be changed or improved (in order to, for example, maximize competitive advantages, manage change, and manage conflict); and (g) plan how best to proceed.

Granted, doing this the first time takes both time and effort. But once accomplished, the organization is “over the hump” and the initial diagrams, information bases, forecasts, analyses, goals, and plans can be updated during subsequent planning, problem-solving, and decision-making processes. Furthermore, once they have been developed, qualitative information bases, diagrammatic knowledge bases, and other data sources can be accessed in real time to determine the status of any variable or phenomenon in the meta-system. That in itself is an extremely powerful managerial capability.

Because of all the operationally oriented information that can be collected, organized, and digested during a strategic/long-range planning process, and also because of all the methodological knowledge and skills that can be further developed or reinforced at the same time, this planning situation could be called a *hyper-learning process*.

Implications for *Where* to Maximize Managerial, Leadership, and Organizational Effectiveness

Many organizations have training rooms for training and separate conference rooms for planning, problem solving, and decision making. Since both types of processes should involve team learning and thinking (and communication as well), and should also involve the application of all the related concepts, principles, and practices, we recommend integrating the capabilities of both types of facilities in order to simultaneously maximize thinking, learning, and communication effectiveness—especially during planning processes.

Unified Practice of Management™ Model: Management Gurus Portion

The previous section discussed *what* managers, leaders, and their subordinates *should do*—think, learn, interrelate, and communicate—and how to do so most effectively. **Figure 2** illustrates all those *processes and their interwoven relationships*. The model described next, **Figure 15**, is the second portion of the Unified Practice model. It indicates various operationally-oriented concepts, ideas, principles, and issues that managers and leaders *should*

learn and then think about as they perform the think-work aspects of planning and other management- and leadership-related processes.

Figure 15 is the “final 2/5” of the *Unified Practice of Management* model. (**Figure 2** constitutes the first 3/5.) It shows the theories or concepts of about fifty management and leadership gurus. According to Huczynski (1993), some of these are “academic gurus” such as Michael Porter (Harvard Business School) and Peter Drucker (New York University Business School and Claremont Graduate School), some are “consultant gurus” such as Tom Peters (*In Search of Excellence*) and John Naisbitt (*Megatrends*), and some are “hero managers” such as Lee Iacocca (Chrysler) and Jack Welch (General Electric). The concepts of various gurus are described in considerable detail in books written by Clutterbuck and Crainer (1990), Kennedy (1991), Norton and Smith (1998), Gibson (1999), and Boyett and Boyett (2000). The concepts of gurus mentioned in **Figure 15** are described briefly in the Appendix at the end of this booklet.

As mentioned in this booklet’s introduction, some guru’s concepts have undoubtedly helped to improve managers, leaders, and organizations, while others have probably “steered American industry wrongly” (Hoopes, 2003). Indeed, Jackson (2001) has been critical of the re-engineering movement led by Hammer and Champy (1993, 2003), the effectiveness movement championed by Covey (1986, 2004), and the learning organization movement initiated by Peter Senge (1990). However, neither this booklet nor the Appendix will explore the pros and cons of each concept. Neither will they advocate one over another. The concepts are mentioned here simply to edify managers concerning ideas and perspectives that they might consider when performing managerial and leadership functions and related processes.

Figure 15 shows how these gurus’ concepts relate to each other within the context of the managerial and leadership (integrative) process. Note that the figure’s design is based on the core of **Figure 1**. If there were a large enough page, there would be a single model, with the rings of **Figure 15** positioned outside the rings of **Figure 2**. The various process rings in **Figure 15** have simply been replaced with four different rings around the core.

The inner ring indicates concepts that deal with integrative *Functions and (related) Processes*. The second ring indicates concepts that relate to *Strategic Contexts* (such as marketing and strategic planning). The third ring indicates concepts involving organizational *Structures*. The outer ring indicates concepts regarding *People*.

The names of these gurus, and a word or phrase that describes his, her, or their concept(s), have been placed at a point where the following intersect: (a) the most appropriate ring, and (b) the “wedge” that extends outward from the management function with which we most directly associate the concept. For example, Peter Drucker’s “management by objectives” concept lies in the Functions and Processes ring at a point within the Set Goals area. Hersey and Blanchard’s Situational Leadership concept lies in the People ring at a point within the Train and Develop area. However, most of the other concepts that deal with people do not necessarily relate to any one particular function or group of functions. Therefore, they have been spaced fairly even around the right-hand arc of the outer People ring.

A few gurus and their concepts were more difficult to place on the model. For example: Ohmae’s “global strategies” relates to Strategic Contexts, but the concept of “international partnerships” relates to Organize. Also note that Ohmae’s concepts straddle the rings for Strategic Contexts and Structures, because they “have a foot in each.” The same applies to Ross and Kay, Chandler, and Peters and Waterman. It is also the author’s view that Handy, VonNeuman and Morgenstern, and Schwartz straddle the rings for Functions/Processes and Strategic Contexts.

These two portions of the Unified Practice of Management™ model are meant to serve as *frameworks for helping managers and their personnel to better understand and mentally organize (a) what they have already learned about management and leadership, and (b) whatever new management concepts, methods, practices, and points of view they may encounter in the future.*

The author earnestly hopes that the concepts, models, insights and perspectives presented in this series will contribute to organizations’ design of more effective next-generation MD/OD programs, and will enable managers and leaders to utilize what they have learned about management and leadership in more synergistic, powerful ways.

APPENDIX

Basic Descriptions of Major Management Gurus' Concepts

The following management experts relate to, and are listed in, at least one major category or circle of **Figure 15**—functions/processes, strategic contexts, structures, or people. Within each category, they are listed alphabetically (rather than in the order they appear in a particular circle).

Functions and Processes

De Bono, Edward. (1967, 1971). **Lateral Thinking**

To increase their creativity (generation of new ideas), people must look at things in new and different ways. It is not enough to think vertically, which is the traditional (logical, linear, continuous) approach. People must also think laterally—that is, in a less traditional, more illogical, more discontinuous manner. Each of these two approaches complements the other. Lateral thinking helps turn up new ideas. Vertical thinking helps develop those ideas.

Deming, W. Edwards. (1982, 1988). **Total Quality Management**

The consumer is king of the production line. Consumers want quality products. The key to increasing quality is reducing variation in output quality. This, in turn, requires improving people's ability to understand and manage statistical variation. It also requires effective planning, implementation, evaluation of output, and follow-up action.

Drucker, Peter. (1954, 1964, 1974, 1976, 2004). **Management by Objectives and Management by Results**

Setting objectives is a key principle of management. Effective management also requires getting organized, communicating, fostering a motivating atmosphere, establishing performance measurements, and developing personnel.

Performance objectives should cover these areas: standing in the marketplace; organizational innovativeness; productivity; effective, efficient use of physical, human, and financial resources; profitability; personnel's performance, attitudes, and development; and public responsibility.

Fayol, Henri. (1949). **Managerial Functions**

Industrial management involves five elements: planning; organizing; commanding (maintaining productive activity); coordinating people's/units' efforts; and controlling operations (to assure results that correspond to plans, policies, rules, and procedures).

Humble, John. (1967, 1971). Development of **Management by Objectives** into a practical methodology

Corporate aims should be translated into unit and individual objectives down through the organization, starting with the management team.

Juran, Joseph M. (1951, 1988). **Company-Wide Quality Management"**

Quality is everyone's responsibility, from the very top of an organization all the way down to the bottom. Quality objectives are as important as other business measurements. Quality is maximized where the workforce has been empowered to participate in planning, implementing, and improving quality.

Kaplan, Robert S., & Cooper, Robin. (1998). **Activity-Based Costing**

A cost-assessment system involving a thorough examination of a business's processes, customer relationships, and budgeting. It breaks down all manufacturing activities and identifies the portion of overhead used to make each product. It enables better determination of how to apportion funds and which are the most profitable customers.

Mayflower Group. (since 1971). **Benchmarking**

A practice initiated in 1971 by a group of large companies, benchmarking began as a survey of information and attitudes concerning topics such as job satisfaction, rewards and recognition, training and development, product quality, group and team phenomena, empowerment, and diversity. The collected data formed a normative database often used to benchmark attitudes, behavior, and performance. Around the mid-1980s, benchmarking evolved into a process of measuring practices, services, and products against the most successful, competitive industry leaders. Today, these and many other processes are benchmarked: marketing/sales tactics and performance; inventory control; distribution; and collection of receivables.

Mintzberg, Henry. (1973, 1975, 1980). **Managers' Roles**

(See the booklet on Time Management, which discusses what managers actually do with their time, their tendency to think superficially, and, as a result, *satisfice* rather than *maximize* solutions and decisions.

Motorola (mid 1980s). Six Sigma

A statistical methodology for measuring the percentage of defective products. Based on defect data, companies can constantly improve product quality by redesigning and improving production processes so as to reduce variations that cause product defects. The term *sigma* refers to the percentage deviation from a desirable zero level of defects. “One Sigma” refers to 690,000 defects per million units of output (or 31% of perfection). “Six Sigma” indicates only 3.4 defects per million units (or 99.99966% of perfection).

Schwartz, Peter. (1992). Scenario Planning

This planning methodology involves outlining scenarios that indicate chains of acts, subsequent, events, and eventual outcomes—just like gaming diagrams. Outlining possible scenarios helps test various alternative business strategies against possible futures involving opportunities, competitive threats, competitor reactions, and various other contingencies.

Taylor, Frederick W. (1947). Scientific Management

Work and time-and-motion studies can be used to find ways for performing factory tasks most efficiently. Organizations should emphasize (a) utilizing scientific methods, (b) developing workers, (c) dividing work and responsibilities among managers and workers, and (d) vertical and horizontal cooperation throughout the organization.

Strategic Contexts

Andrews, Kenneth R. (1971). Corporate Strategy
(Match “Can” and “Might”)

During corporate planning, formulating strategies involves reconciling what the organization would like to do in terms of opportunities and threats with what it can do given its strengths and weaknesses.

Ansoff, H. Igor. (1965, 1986, 1990). Optimization of Strategic Behavior

Strategic management involves planning how to optimize an organization’s performance by matching its competitive strategy and actual capabilities to the turbulence of the external business environment. Anticipating trends is key to identifying competitive advantages; and identifying competitive advantages is key to strategic planning.

Brandenburger, Adam M. and Nalebuff, Barry J. (1995). Competition and Value Network — the use of Game Theory to shape corporate strategy

Applying game theory in business is aimed at creating,

capturing, and maintaining value. It involves looking at possible actions and events from competitors’ viewpoints. It also necessitates putting enough into the game to get the most out of it.

Coopetition: Implementing strategies involving both win-win and win-lose opportunities (the latter of which often backfire). Several advantageous win-win strategies are (a) identify and capitalize on previously unrecognized opportunities; (b) get competitors to resist less by not forcing them to give up ground; and (c) let competitors imitate, because it benefits all.

Value Network: *Cooperation* occurs when “players” (customers, suppliers, sellers of substitute products, and sellers of complementary products or services) each bring something of value to the game, play fairly, and work together to create value. Players use various tactics to influence how others understand and play the game. *Competition* occurs when the players are vying for their piece of the pie.

Collis, David J., and Montgomery, Cynthia A. (1995). RBV: Resource-Based View of the Firm

Strategic planning involves analyzing the external industry and competitive environment and internal organizational phenomena. An organization’s competitive advantage is its competitively distinct combination of tangible and intangible resources (assets and capabilities that enable it to perform more effectively and/or efficiently than competitors) deployed in a well-conceived strategy. Degree of “competitive distinctiveness” depends on (a) how difficult it is to imitate or duplicate a resource’s (patented or otherwise protected) uniqueness; (b) how quickly the resource loses its competitive value over time; (c) who gains the most value/profit from the resource; (d) how easily a competitor can substitute a product or service; and (e) the degree to which an organization’s skills, resources, or combination thereof are better than those of competitors.

Dixit, Avenash, & Stiglitz, Joe. (1977). Increasing Returns vs. Decreasing Returns Industries

Increasing returns industries are knowledge-based, have unstable markets, and can face a number of potential (and unpredictable) outcomes. Those that get ahead and garner hefty profits are the ones that can develop technological advantages, and get to market first. Decreasing returns industries basically process resources.

Hamel, Gary, & Prahalad, C.K. (1994).

Strategy As Revolution: Strategic planning should be inquisitive rather than ritualistic, expansive rather than reductionist, forward-looking rather than backward-looking,

inventive rather than conventional, inclusive/democratic rather than elitist, and demanding rather than easy. It should give organizational revolutionaries a voice, give responsibility for engendering change to all personnel, change industry rules, and create industries of the future.

Core Competencies & Strategic Intent: Organizations' strategic intent should be to adopt operating goals that invent a new company and industry future and stretch the organization's people and resources. They should strategize around their core competencies—that is, their key corporate (competitive) skills. They should focus on utilizing and further developing competencies rather than on products and markets. They should emphasize competencies that help develop products and markets in which other producers will have difficulty competing. And they should strategically expand resources and gain competitive advantages by developing licensing arrangements, alliances, and supplier relationships.

Handy, Charles. (1976, 1986, 1990). **Discontinuous Change; Upside-Down Thinking**

Effective managers must make bold decisions and take bold actions. Lifetime employment in a single company is increasingly being replaced by less secure but more fulfilling "portfolio work." New organizational forms are evolving. One is the "shamrock company," which is a core of basic staff supplemented by contracted specialists and part-timers. Because information, intelligence, and ideas are gaining greater importance, managers will be increasingly challenged to supervise knowledge workers, who have far different aspirations from traditional hierarchy- and territory-conscious personnel.

Iacocca Institute (1991). **Agile Enterprises**

Companies should have the ability to act or react more quickly in the face of accelerating technological change, more timely sales information, and more rapid responses to marketplace conditions by competitors.

Kaplan, Robert S., & Norton, David P. (1996, 2001). **The Balanced Scorecard**

A goal-setting/evaluation approach aimed at balancing traditional measures of corporate success with more modern, strategically-oriented measures. Traditional measures focused on financial results such as (sales) revenues, profitability, and return on investment. Newer measures on the scorecard greatly affect financial measures. These include levels of operational/productive efficiency, efficiency of resources utilization, innovation, customer service/satisfaction, organizational learning (personnel's development and growth).

Kim, W. Chan, and Mauborgne, Renee, Sr. (2004). **Value Integration & Value Innovation**

Thinking about how to stay ahead of competitors is not enough. Value innovation involves all the following: actually trying to make competitors irrelevant; shaping conditions rather than accepting them; emphasizing making quantum leaps in value rather than simply developing common competitive advantages; focusing on what mass markets commonly value rather than further segmenting markets; developing assets and capabilities rather than leveraging existing ones; and seeking to offer total solutions for customers rather than simply attempting to increase the value of present offerings.

Levitt, Theodore. (1962, 1974, 1991). **Marketing as a Key to Successful Business Management**

Selling and marketing are not the same. Selling is seller-focused; marketing is buyer-focused. The secret of success in marketing is being customer-oriented. It involves and constantly seeking to understand customer behavior (at a cognitive level) and developing greater sensitivity to customer feelings (needs, wants, fears). "Global branding" is a viable strategy when pursuing global markets.

Moore, James F. (1996). **Business Ecosystems**

Business is part of a larger environment. Although companies compete, they may also cooperate. One or more may work together to spawn innovations, create value, develop new products, extend market coverage, better serve customers, and even block alternative ecosystems.

Co-evolution is a process through which competitors, customers, suppliers, and others discover how to work together to envision the future and create new businesses, markets, and industries.

Ohmae, Kenichi. (1983, 1985, 1990). **Global Business Strategies and International Partnerships**

Customers, not just competitors, should be the focus of business strategies. Unlike traditional business planning, strategic planning seeks to employ competitive advantages that result from developing and utilizing corporate resources more efficiently and effectively than other producers. Doing so involves (a) identifying key factors for increasing market standing and profitability; (b) exploiting superior resources and capabilities; (c) challenging traditional assumptions and implementing bold initiatives; (d) more innovatively developing products and markets.

Peters, Tom, & Waterman, R.H. (1982). **Customer-Oriented and Excellent Organizations**

The "Seven-S" criteria for measuring excellence in-

clude strategy, structure, systems, style, shared values, skills, and staff. Excellent companies have these characteristics: (a) are proactive; (b) interact closely with customers to serve their needs; (c) foster innovativeness and nurture achievers; (d) emphasize obtaining higher productivity and quality through people; (e) have committed, hands-on managers; (f) stick with the business(es) they know; (g) maintain a lean staff; and (h) give workers greater autonomy within a common system of work-related values. Developing cross-organizational project teams (matrices) improves an organization's ability to design, produce, and market around customers' needs.

Porter, Michael E. (1980, 1985, 1986). Global Marketing; Linking Corporate Strategy to the Marketplace

An industry's structure influences how other producers employ various competitive strategies and actions, which in turn influence competitors' performance. Factors that affect competitive phenomena and the profitability of competitors include the rivalries that exist among competitors, threats to the industry from new entrants and substitute products/services, and the bargaining power of suppliers and customers.

Competitive advantages stem from either (a) being a/ the low cost producer while providing comparable value; or (b) producing at comparable cost, but creating more value for the buyer (differentiating the product so that it warrants charging a premium price).

Porter's strategic recommendations: (a) sell to the most sophisticated, demanding, and standard-setting buyers; (b) find buyers with challenging needs, who can interact closely in the company's R&D efforts; (c) force product and operational improvement by exceeding product standards and governmental standards and regulations; (d) use the most advanced and international but home-based suppliers; (e) foster steady, long-term employment; and (f) consider the most effective competitors as being challenging motivators.

Rayport, Jeffrey F., and Sviokla, John J. (1995). Creating a Virtual Value Chain in "Marketspace"

In the physical world of the *marketplace*, the value chain is a series of value-adding activities that begin at the company's supply side and at its demand side. In the virtual, information-oriented world of *marketspace*, a company must convert raw information into new *marketspace* services and products that are unique to the information world. Creating a virtual value chain involves (1) gathering information, (2) organizing it, (3) selecting appropriate data, (4) synthesizing it, and (5) distributing appropriate information to the appropriate people in the appropriate format at the appropriate time.

Revans, Reginald. (1966, 1980, 1983). Action Learning. (See page 17 in the booklet, *Individual and Organizational Learning*.)

Senge, Peter M. (1990). Systems Thinking and The Learning Organization

People must *think differently* about business problems. They must (a) avoid linear thinking; (b) understand subtle interrelationships among things, people, and activities; (c) envision how they are interconnected to the organization and outside world; (d) emphasize being proactive rather than reactive; and (e) be open-minded to new concepts regarding the workings of the world around them.

Several highly effective means can be used to improve managers' learning: (a) role-playing in business games; and (b) playing simulation games, where they can practice planning and decision-making skills, learn how their actions may affect others, and make mistakes with no risk to themselves or the organization. (See also page 17 of the booklet, *Individual and Organizational Learning*.)

Slywotsky, Adrian J. (1996). Value Migration

Value migration is the movement of growth and profit opportunities from one industry player to another. A company must focus on what customers want and need, or its value (growth and profit) will migrate to competitors.

Stalk, George, & Hout, T.M. (1990). Time-Based Competition

The effective and efficient use of time can be a competitive advantage. "Cycle-time reduction" or "time-compression management" emphasizes (a) reducing lead times for developing products and getting them to market ahead of the competition, or (b) more effectively and efficiently carrying out key processes, such as fulfilling orders. Such approaches require mapping, reengineering, measuring, and monitoring the processes involved.

Von Neumann, John, and Morgenstern, Oskar. (1980, 2004). Game Theory and Economic Behavior

Rule-based games have rules of engagement. Free-wheeling games have no external constraints. Business is actually a mix of both.

Womack, James, Jones, D.T., and Roos, D. (1990). Lean Manufacturing

"Operating lean" encompasses just-in-time inventory and delivery, continuous improvement of operations, and demand-driven production scheduling.

Structures (Organizational / Strategic)

Chandler, Alfred D. (1962). Structure Should Follow Strategy in Organizations

Before designing the organization's structure, an organization must create a strategic plan (with long-term goals and objectives, courses of action, and allocated resources). Structure, consisting of hierarchies and lines of (delegated) authority, is necessary to administer strategies. A hierarchical management structure best enables long-term success. Nevertheless, it is important that large corporations decentralize. An organization should coordinate its strategic planning process from the center, thereby allowing units and their managers to get on with the day-to-day tactics.

Hammer, Michael, & Champy, James. (1993). Organizational Reengineering

Rather than simply downsizing and flattening the organization, which often cause problems, what many organizations really need is massive change. This can involve not only restructuring the organization, but also reengineering (redesigning) various key processes such as customer service, order fulfillment, and product development. Restructuring should be accomplished around key organizational processes rather than traditional functions.

Nadler, David, et al. (1992, 1997). Organizational Architecture

Managers should think broadly about their organizations in terms such as how work, people, and formal and informal structures all fit together (the "Congruence Model of Effectiveness"). Managers should integrate strategic issues with the behavioral dynamics of organizations. As they do so, they will organize autonomous work teams in "high performance work systems" and form strategic alliances.

Ross, Gerald, & Kay, Michael. (1994). Establish new Molecular Organizations to help manage change

Restructure an organization around present and future markets, not around products or functions.

Sloan, Alfred P. (1963, 1986). Decentralization for Big Corporations

Big companies should break apart into large operating divisions, each having its own functional departments. Systems of checks and balances should be developed in order to put engineering, production, and finance on an equal footing. Organizations should promote "creative dissent" so as to foster change and improvement.

People (Organizational/Managerial/Leadership Behavior and Development)

Adair, John. (1983, 1989). Action-Centered Leadership

Leadership functions include planning, initiating, controlling, supporting, informing, and evaluating. Leadership can be defined as an overlap of three elements: task, team, and individual. There are relationships between leadership and decision making, communication, and ability to manage time. People can be trained to be leaders.

Argyris, Chris. (1962, 1965, 1996). Developing Individual Potential within an Organization

Every individual has potentials, the development of which would benefit both the individual and the organization. Many managers unconsciously behave in ways that do not encourage personal development, risk-taking, trust, and openness regarding thoughts and feelings, and cohesive group relationships—even though they genuinely believe that such things are crucial to good decision-making.

These are several basic, common, but dysfunctional values operating in many organizations: (a) the significant relationships among personnel involve performing jobs and meeting organizational goals; (b) logic and rationality should be emphasized, while attention to feelings and emotions should be minimized; (c) interpersonal relationships can be influenced most effectively by directing, coercing, and controlling people and by using rewards and penalties to encourage desired attitudes and behavior.

Barnard, Chester. (1938, 1948). Managing the Values of an Organization — and promoting cooperation within an organization.

The real roles of a top manager or leader are to manage the values of the organization and gain personnel's commitment. Playing these roles effectively requires performing these functions: (a) establishing and managing systems for effective communication; (b) motivating employees by instilling organizational goals in them; and (c) formulating well-stated goals for clear communication. Since communication is so important, managers can improve the effectiveness of communications by ensuring that all personnel (a) can communicate by the shortest and most direct channels possible; (b) are familiar with the available channels; and (c) have access to at least one formal channel.

Bennis, Warren. (1968, 1989). The Importance of Effective Leadership in Organizations

"Managers do things right. Leaders do the right things." The best leaders are ideas people (conceptualists). They are

able to create an inspiring vision and translate it into sustained action.

Many organizations will need to adopt “adhocracy” (flexible, autonomous project teams). Good leaders must have the abilities to (a) maintain personnel’s attention by providing a vision of how to move from the present into the future; (b) communicate effectively what they mean; (c) engender the trust that fosters a bond between them and their followers; and (d) manage themselves through self-awareness, commitment, persistence, commitment, and willingness to take risks and rise to challenges.

Blake, Robert, and Mouton, Jane. (1964, 1978, 1994). **Managerial Grid** (See pages 35 to 37 in the booklet, *Managerial and Leadership Behavior – Part I.*)

Hersey, Paul and Blanchard, Kenneth. (1969, 1993, 2001). **Situational Leadership** (See pages 46 to 48 in the booklet, *Managerial and Leadership Behavior – Part I.*)

Herzberg, Frederick. (1966, 1968, 1988). **Motivator Factors** are more motivating than **Hygiene Factors** (See pages 8 to 13 in the booklet, *Managerial and Leadership Behavior – Part I.*)

Jaques, Elliott. (1951, 1956, 1982). **Psychological and Social Factors in Group Behavior** - A Theory of the Value of Work

The “time span of discretion” is the amount of time that passes before one’s actions or decisions are monitored by superiors. This time span is shortest for the lowest-level workers.

One’s “real” boss is the person from whom one has a chance of getting a decision about oneself—and that person may not necessarily be one’s immediate superior.

Decisions are seldom made in the manner prescribed by hierarchical organization charts.

Any rational pay policy should be based on prior consideration of the implications of differences between discretionary levels that depend upon length of service.

Kanter, Rosabeth M. (1977, 1983). **Managing change:** Development of the post-entrepreneurial corporation; empowering human potential in organizations

A post-entrepreneurial corporation is (a) lean, flexible, and few-leveled; (b) able to work smarter and do more with less; (c) continually anticipating changes and trends; (d) open to opportunities involving, for example, mergers, acquisitions, and alliances; and (e) able to achieve synergies. Such organizations change their structures in the following ways: (a) open up promotions to women and clerical work-

ers; (b) improve performance appraisal systems and career development paths; and (c) use participative practices to empower personnel, flatten hierarchies, decentralize authority, and create autonomous work groups.

Future managers will need these essential abilities: (a) manage or lead without the use of position-based authority; (b) behave in ways that enhance cooperation; (c) use and promote high ethical standards; (d) be somewhat humble; (e) focus on processes and how to improve them; (f) be conscious of horizontal and vertical integration interrelationships in order to promote synergies; and (g) obtain satisfaction through results and be willing to have personal rewards tied to them.

Kotter, John. (1988, 1990, 1999). **Need More Leadership in Organizations**

Organizations need strong leaders to change environment; they also need strong managers to cope with complexity.

Lawler, Edward E., & Galbraith, Jay R. (1993). **Employee empowerment, participation, and self-managing work teams**

Managers should move power, knowledge, information, and rewards downward in their organization. In order to do so, they must change the whole organizational system by (a) creating small business units, (b) flattening the organization, (c) redesigning work systems, and (d) establishing self-managing teams. These teams can schedule production, reject products not meeting quality standards, and work together to earn performance bonuses.

Likert, Rensis. (1961, 1967, 1975, 1977). **Linkage Between Managerial Styles and Business Performance** (See pages 34 and 35 of the booklet, *Managerial and Leadership Behavior – Part I.*)

Maslow, Abraham. (1943, 1987). **The Hierarchy of Needs** (See page 5 of the booklet, *Managerial and Leadership Behavior – Part I.*)

Mayo, Elton W. (1933, 1945, 1992). **Importance of Human Emotions and Reactions**

Work is essentially a group activity. A sense of self-esteem and work-group cohesiveness are more important to personnel’s performance than their working conditions. Teamwork does not just happen. It results from good planning, effective management-worker communication, and the development of attitudes and practices that foster effective collaboration.

McGregor, Douglas. (1957, 1960, 1966). **Theories X & Y**. (See pages 20-21 and 20-25 in the booklet, *Managerial and Leadership Behavior – Part I*.)

Miles, Raymond. (1975, 2005). **Human Resources Approach** to managing people. (See pages 37-40 in the booklet, *Managerial and Leadership Behavior – Part I*.)

Ouchi, William. (1981, 1993). **Theory Z** (See pages 51 and 52 of the booklet, *Managerial and Leadership Behavior – Part I*.)

Pascale, Richard T. (1990). **The Creative Use of Conflict** in Organizations

An organization's successes can still lead to failure unless it has systems, policies, and practices that encourage constructive debate and conflict, and thereby foster continual renewal. Thus, it behooves managers to constantly create and replace the organization's operating, structural, and systems paradigms.

Schein, Edgar H. (1978, 1980, 1985). **Corporate Culture; The Psychological Contract Between Employer and Employee**

The psychological contract between employer and employee should involve not only pay, working conditions, and job security, but also how the employee is to be treated,

developed, and given further responsibilities and career opportunities. This contract should also outline organizational expectations concerning an employee's work-related behavior, dedication to the job, and loyalty to the organization.

Corporate culture is made up of (a) physical phenomena such as traditional work area layouts, and (b) intangibles (such as values, attitudes, assumptions, and norms regarding behavior inside and outside the organization) that have evolved since the organization's founding.

There should be *consensus* among the management team and the workforce regarding five areas: (a) the mission—what business the organization is in, and why; (b) how organizational goals can account for individual workers' goals; (c) plans for reaching goals; (d) ways and means for measuring performance; and (e) guidelines for what to do when problems occur.

Zuboff, Shoshana (1981, 1988). **Infomate** rather than automate

Model companies employ technology to change the nature of work. They have already begun to integrate smart machines with smart people. However, many companies have not yet made soft investments in educating personnel to use new (information/computer) technologies. As a result, much of their information is unused.