

1-1-1986

Adult learning outcomes and critical success factors in corporate efforts at management development : a case study of a Regional Bell Operating Company.

Charles N. Bent

University of Massachusetts Amherst

Follow this and additional works at: https://scholarworks.umass.edu/dissertations_1

Recommended Citation

Bent, Charles N., "Adult learning outcomes and critical success factors in corporate efforts at management development : a case study of a Regional Bell Operating Company." (1986). *Doctoral Dissertations 1896 - February 2014*. 4062.
https://scholarworks.umass.edu/dissertations_1/4062

This Open Access Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by ScholarWorks@UMass Amherst. It has been accepted for inclusion in Doctoral Dissertations 1896 - February 2014 by an authorized administrator of ScholarWorks@UMass Amherst. For more information, please contact scholarworks@library.umass.edu.

UMASS/AMHERST



312066007302466

ADULT LEARNING OUTCOMES AND CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS
IN CORPORATE EFFORTS AT MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT:
A CASE STUDY OF A REGIONAL BELL OPERATING COMPANY

A Dissertation Presented

By

CHARLES NORMAN BENT

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

February, 1986

Education

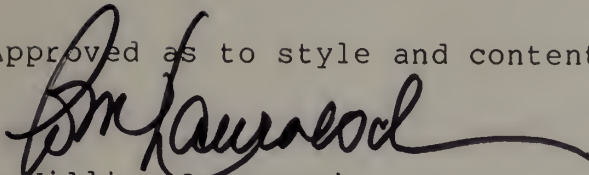
ADULT LEARNING OUTCOMES AND CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS
IN CORPORATE EFFORTS AT MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT:
A CASE STUDY OF A REGIONAL BELL OPERATING COMPANY

A Dissertation Presented

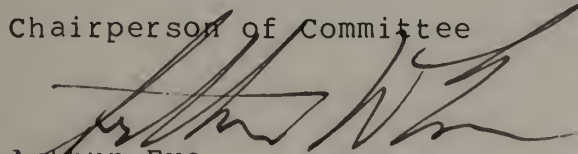
By

Charles Norman Bent

Approved as to style and content by:


William Lauroesch

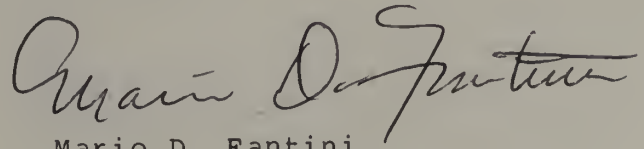
Chairperson of Committee


Arthur Eve

Member


Anthony Butterfield

Member


Mario D. Fantini

Dean, School of Education

ABSTRACT

ADULT LEARNING OUTCOMES AND CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS
IN CORPORATE EFFORTS AT MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT:
A CASE STUDY OF A REGIONAL BELL OPERATING COMPANY

February, 1986

Charles Norman Bent, B.A. Boston College
M.A. Yale University, Ed.D. University of Massachusetts

Directed by: Professor William Lauroesch

Five important issues regarding the nature and character of the management development function remain unresolved in the literature. How does the development function relate to the training and education functions? Which employees constitute the primary target population for corporate efforts at management development? Which specific management competencies can be significantly improved through participation in formal management development programs? Where should the locus of responsibility for managing the management development process be assigned? What are some of the more important personal, situational, and environmental conditions that shape the final outcomes of corporate efforts at management development? A qualitative case study analysis of 53 subjects representing the interests of four major stakeholder groups in a Regional Bell Operating Company provides a phenomenological description of the manner in which the management development process actually operates under field conditions in a large corporate setting. The constituency groups surveyed included HRD staff specialists, program participants, immediate supervisors of those enrolled in formal development programs, and graduates of earlier management development programs within the company. In-depth personal interviews conducted with each of the subjects produced three sets of findings. First, the study

provided answers to four out of the five questions that occasioned the research. Second, it surfaced five distinct forms of adult learning associated with the development function which serve to differentiate it from training and education. Third, it generated a useful checklist of critical factors or conditions that must be put in place if real growth and development as a management person is to occur. While no profound new insights into the process emerge from the study, the findings may prove to be of value to decision-makers, key players in the process, and other parties with a vested interest in the results of corporate efforts at management development insofar as they put the component parts into sharper focus, heighten awareness of the forces that shape the process under field conditions, and contribute to the increased understanding needed to derive maximum benefit from efforts at management development.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER I	INTRODUCTION TO THE PROBLEM	1
CHAPTER II	THE PROBLEM IN HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE	27
Part One:	A Look at the Field of HRD	28
Part Two:	AT&T's Approach to Human Resource Management	66
CHAPTER III	DESIGN OF THE STUDY	96
CHAPTER IV	DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS	126
Part One:	Group Profiles	129
Part Two:	Corporate Efforts At Development	138
Part Three:	Findings and Implications	143
CHAPTER V	SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS	216
BIBLIOGRAPHY		262
APPENDIX		276

C H A P T E R I

INTRODUCTION TO THE PROBLEM

Professional educators, training and development specialists, and laymen alike have all recently demonstrated a growing interest in a rapidly expanding phenomenon within the field of continuing adult learning. Over the past two decades, the corporate sector has become extensively involved in the business of conducting a wide array of adult learning programs under the general rubric of 'Training, Development, and Education.' Estimates of the capital investment in Human Resource Development (HRD) activities on the part of business and industry range from a conservative low of two-to-three billion dollars a year to an extremely optimistic high of one hundred billion dollars a year.¹ The most widely accepted estimate falls in the vicinity of thirty to forty billion dollars a year.² Whatever the actual figure, it is very clear that the business and industrial communities have decided to invest considerable amounts of

¹Lusterman, S. (1977). Education in industry. New York: The Conference Board, p. 2. Gilbert, T. (1976). Training: The \$100 billion opportunity. Training and Development Journal, (Nov.), p. 3.

²Craig, R.L. & Evers, C.J. (1981). Employees as educators: The shadow educational system. In G. Gold (Ed.), Business in higher education: Towards new alliances. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass, (1985). p. 30.

money to support their own efforts at adult learning and there is every indication that this practice will increase rather than diminish.

Recent statistical data relating to the extent of corporate involvement in the domain of adult learning suggest that the educational system within the United States is currently being managed, in large part, by learning specialists employed by private and public enterprise. The figures show that corporations are training and educating nearly eight million people, a figure that approximates the total enrollment in America's four year colleges and universities.³

Indeed, so pervasive has the corporate instructional network become that a decade ago it earned the appellation "Shadow Educational System," an expression coined by John Dunlop who was Secretary of Education at the time.⁴

One of the earliest attempts to put the emerging phenomenon of the corporate classroom into a meaningful per-

³Eurich, N. (1985). Corporate classrooms: The learning business. Princeton, NJ: The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.

⁴Dunlop, J.T. (1975). Human resources: Toward rational policy planning. New York: The Conference Board.

spective was made by Leonard Nadler, a respected pioneer in the fields of adult learning and Human Resource Development. In an address at the annual convention of the American Society of Trainers and Developers (ASTD) in 1969, Nadler developed the thesis that corporate efforts at Human Resource Development are best understood in terms of the effective integration of three major forms of adult learning, each with its own distinctive set of objectives and strategies.⁵ These three distinct types of adult learning are cultivated under the separate titles of 'Training,' 'Development,' and 'Education.'

If one uses Nadler's proposed tripartite adult learning taxonomy as a starting point for examining the published views of other HRD theorists and practitioners over the past fifteen years, it soon becomes clear to the interested investigator that only two of the three terms, namely training and education, appear to be used with any degree of consistent meaning in the literature. The concept of development remains extremely vague and ambiguous and the label is used to refer to a broad range of adult learning activities.

⁵Nadler, L. (1980). Defining the field: Is it HRD or OD? Training and Development Journal, (June), p. 66.

A detailed review of the literature regarding the nature and character of all three functions will be presented in the next chapter. For the moment, it is possible to use some of the general findings to define the boundary conditions of the problem faced in attempting to establish some degree of semantic clarity in exploring the world of corporate training, development, and education. The term 'training,' as it is generally used in the literature, refers to a type of short-term learning that focuses primarily on the acquisition of job-specific knowledge and skills. Two hallmarks of this particular form of adult learning are its very narrow scope and its immediate task-relevant character. An investigation into the nature of training function indicates that business and industry use training primarily as a learning device for mastering specific work operations at bridge points in an employee's career, such as initial entry into the company and subsequent vertical and horizontal moves within the company. Training is also used to update employees when significant changes occur within the industry, in technology, in product and service offerings or other shifts requiring employee adjustments.

The learning outcomes associated with the training function are precisely defined and measurable in nature. As

a means of maintaining strict quality control over the function, the majority of corporate training organizations employ what may be termed a 'systems engineering' approach to the design, development, delivery, and evaluation of instructional programs. The first step in the process is a detailed task analysis of the job to be performed to identify the particular skills and knowledge needed to perform the tasks in an acceptable manner. The prerequisite competencies are then translated into learning objectives and grouped functionally or logically into meaningful patterns. Next, a detailed blueprint of instruction is drawn up, specifying the sequence of learning activities and the instructional methods to be employed at each step in the program. The criterion used to measure the effectiveness of a given program is generally stated in terms of task mastery. As a rule of thumb, training programs are judged to be effective when 90% of the trainees demonstrate mastery of at least 90% of material covered.

The education function, for its part, is viewed by the majority of commentators as occupying a position at the opposite end of the adult learning spectrum. The education process, as carried out in either a corporate or university setting, is generally understood to represent an essentially

open-ended form of adult learning. In marked contrast to training, this function is broadly focused and is grounded in the pursuit of long-range objectives. Education deals with concepts, opinions, general principles, and contrasting points of view. Its primary goal is to provide the individual learner with a wide range of skills and abilities, competencies needed to confront an indefinite and unpredictable future. The main thrust of this particular function is to prepare the learner to operate effectively in a variety of situations and circumstances. One of the salient features of this form of adult learning is its essentially unfinished nature.

A difficult situation arises, however, when one attempts to narrow down the focus on the nature and character of the development function with the same precision. An investigator soon discovers that the term 'development' means different things to different people. Beyond the fact that the majority of commentators view management development as a process aimed at preparing individuals to handle a variety of management assignments, there is little agreement regarding the distinctive nature and character of the management development function. The notion of management development encountered in the literature remains extremely vague and

nebulous.

The problem is not simply lack of semantic clarity. A comprehensive review of the literature surfaces a number of important unresolved issues regarding the very essence of the management development function. In the final analysis, it is possible to identify at least five critical aspects of the development function that warrant closer examination.

One unresolved issue centers around the relationship that development bears to the other two functions in the HRD taxonomy. Where should the line of demarcation be drawn between training and development, on the one hand, or between development and education, on the other? One group of commentators argues that training and development are virtually indistinguishable functions and should therefore be dealt with under a single title, while another group asserts that development bears a strong kinship to education and should be dealt with accordingly. Still others insist that, while development includes elements of both training and education, the process transcends both functions and therefore warrants a separate label.

A second issue relates to identifying the proper target

population for corporate efforts at management development. Professionals within the HRD field are divided on this matter. One school of thought maintains that management development programs should be restricted to high potential employees who give evidence of being able to move within the ranks of the management hierarchy. Another school of thought adopts the position that all new management employees, particularly those with supervisory responsibilities, should be enrolled in a management development program during the first 12 to 18 months in a management position. A third school of thought insists that development is an ongoing process requiring attention beyond initial efforts at development and should therefore be aimed at all management employees.

A third unresolved issue revolves around the question of which specific competencies, generally deemed to be essential for success in a management position, can or cannot be significantly improved by participating in formal management development programs. One group of commentators contends that certain core management competencies, such as leadership ability and decision-making and problem-solving skills, are essentially innate qualities that cannot be developed to any significant degree through formal instruction

and practice. On the other hand, there are some who argue that individuals of average intelligence, with a strong desire to learn and succeed in a competitive business environment, are able to acquire the skills needed to be successful managers.

A fourth issue relates to establishing the ultimate locus of responsibility for managing the development process. Some commentators, firmly convinced that all development is self-development, insist that the ultimate responsibility rests with the individual manager. Others believe that the immediate supervisor of the person under development bears primary responsibility for managing the process. A third group defends the view that the final responsibility rests with the corporation in general and the HRD organization in particular. Finally, there are those who contend that it is impossible to assign a single locus of responsibility for managing the development process. The responsibility is, in their view, a shared responsibility, with the individual, the immediate supervisor, and the corporation assuming responsibility for different dimensions of the function.

A fifth issue centers around the identification of some of the more important personal, situational, and environ-

mental factors that prove to have a strong bearing on the ultimate success or failure of corporate efforts at management development. What one encounters in the literature, for the most part, is a profusion of normative or prescriptive models for establishing, managing, and evaluating management development programs, with a heavy emphasis on the structure, form, and content of such programs but with little attention paid to critical process factors that influence the outcomes. While a number of commentators stress the importance of certain conditions such as personal drive and ambition, the role played by the first boss, and the nature of the assignments given to the management trainee as playing a critical role in the process, little effort has been devoted to identifying other personal, situational, and environmental factors that strongly influence the outcomes of corporate development programs.

Problem Statement

A detailed investigation into corporate involvement in the sphere of continuing adult learning reveals a problematic situation. On the one hand, the amount of money, time, and energy spent by business and industry on HRD activities proves to be considerable and increasing every year. On the

other hand, while there appears to be general agreement among HRD professionals regarding the nature and character of company-sponsored training and education programs, the concept of management development remains vague and extremely ambiguous. As noted above, commentators are deeply divided over answers to some very basic questions regarding the fundamental nature and character of the management development function, questions relating to the relationship of development to training and education, the proper target population for efforts at development, the possibility of improving management skills and abilities, responsibility for managing the development process, and various conditions that promote or hinder corporate efforts at management development.

Given the fact that the experts cannot agree on the answers to such questions, it would appear that the most promising approach to the problem of management development lies in adopting a non-traditional approach to the subject. For want of a better term, the conventional approach to management development may be described as being basically 'rationalistic' insofar as numerous attempts have been made to identify the structure, form, and content of efforts at management development based on a set of scientific, abstract,

and objective assumptions about how the process should function. What is conspicuously absent from the literature on the subject, however, are detailed case studies which seek to comprehend the essence of the development function from the perspective of those most intimately involved in the process on a day-to-day basis under field conditions. What is lacking are phenomenological descriptions of the inner dynamics of the process expressed in the subjective, experiential, concrete, and impressionistic terms of the major stakeholders in the development process. What is needed is a more 'naturalistic' approach to the subject. Detailed qualitative accounts of how the process actually operates under field conditions in a large corporate setting would provide decision makers and information users in business and industry with the kinds of insight needed to derive increased benefits from efforts at management development.

Significance of the Problem

It is possible to cite a number of reasons for launching a more detailed investigation into the elusive nature of the management development function. One of the primary reasons for wanting to pursue the problem centers around the notion of professionalism. It is generally agreed that man-

agement is a profession and that managerial performance, individually and collectively, plays a critical role in determining organizational effectiveness. It is also generally agreed that efforts at management development, however loosely the concept is defined, aim at improving the performance of individuals in management positions at various levels in an organization. Corporations, business units, and individual managers, therefore, have a strong vested interest in learning more about the what, why, and how of the management development process as it operates under field conditions.

A second reason for wanting to obtain a better fix on the management development function is grounded in a set of important economic considerations. Business and industry are currently investing considerable amounts of capital in the development of human resources. Due to upper management's legendary concern with the bottom-line impact of staff support functions, a growing number of Personnel Managers today are finding themselves under increasing pressure to justify large expenditures for efforts at management development. Whatever additional insights can be gained, therefore, into the elusive nature of the development function and the factors that contribute to its success should

facilitate the task of demonstrating the economic worth of this kind of corporate investment in human resources.

A third reason for pursuing the subject in greater depth centers around the relationship that the development function bears to two other key functions in business organizations, namely the staffing and planning functions. For a company to operate effectively and efficiently and to plan for the future, it is important that key management positions be filled by the most qualified candidates available when vacancies occur. The staffing and planning functions, therefore, prove to be heavily dependent on the outcomes of the management development function. Hence, any improvements made in the control of the development function as a result of additional light being shed on the nature of the development process should aid in the management of the staffing and planning functions.

Project Aim and Scope

The main thrust of the research effort in this study is to surface meaningful qualitative data regarding the management development process that will enable decision-makers and information-users in corporations to derive increased

benefits from efforts at management development. The study aims primarily at shedding light on some of the inner dynamics of the management development process as it actually operates under field conditions as perceived by those most directly involved in the process on a day-to-day basis.

The end result of the study is an impressionistic picture of management development as painted by representatives from four groups with a strong vested interest in the outcomes of the development process. The four stakeholder groups canvassed included current program participants, program graduates, immediate supervisors of individuals currently enrolled in a formal program, and HRD staff specialists charged with the responsibility for establishing corporate policy and practice in this arena.

The investigation centered around the manner in which a large Regional Bell Operating Company with 10,000 management employees and 30,000 non-management employees, currently addresses the issue of initial management development. No attempt was made to examine at length the efforts made in the direction of middle management development or executive development because the study aimed at surfacing some new insights into the fundamental nature and character of the man-

agement development function as such. To have extended the study to include these higher-level domains of the function would have broadened the investigation beyond manageable bounds.

The Regional Bell Operating Company chosen as the locus for gathering and analyzing the data sought is located in the northeast part of the country. Historically, the company had experimented with a variety of initial management development programs, some developed by AT&T and some developed internally. The purpose in undertaking an examination into its policies and practices was not to conduct a program evaluation of any or all of the programs employed but rather to study the process itself. The structure, form, and content of these programs were of interest, therefore, only insofar as they provided clues to those conditions that promote or hinder the development process under actual field conditions.

The selection of a Regional Bell Operating Company as the primary data source for the study was based on three considerations. One reason was the fact that the Bell System has long enjoyed a reputation for being on the leading edge of improvements in the field of Human Resource Develop-

ment. The Bell System, largely under the guidance of the AT&T Corporate Staff, has been noted for its pioneering efforts in refining the college recruiting process to identify promising candidates, in employing the assessment center concept as a means of identifying management potential, in applying the principles of job enrichment to a wide variety of work functions, and in using university-based instructional programs as a means of fostering middle management and executive development.

A second reason for choosing a Regional Bell Operating Company as the setting for the study is grounded in the fact that the Bell System has played a prominent role in the evolution of the corporate classroom in this country. Some evidence of the leadership role played by the Bell System in the domain of adult learning can be found in the fact that in 1971 AT&T was chosen by the Department of Labor to represent the United States at an International Conference on Training and Education held in Copenhagen. Also, in 1979 Frank Blount, Vice President-Human Resources at AT&T, was invited to address a Senate Committee on Labor and Human Resources to describe the various ways in which the Bell System sought to address the learning needs of its clerical,

technical, professional, and management employees.⁶

Prior to the breakup of the Bell System on January 1, 1984 as a result of court-ordered divestiture, the Bell System operated one of the largest networks of continuing adult education in the United States. In 1983, the year before divestiture, Bell System companies spent over \$1.1 billion to support an extensive training, development, and education curriculum designed to improve the competencies of close to one million management and non-management employees. In addition to maintaining a small number of centralized instructional facilities dedicated to special disciplines at strategic locations around the country, Bell System companies also managed hundreds of local learning centers across the 22 regions served by the system.

The main reason for selecting the northeast Regional Bell Operating Company in question centered around the fact that this researcher, currently an organizational consultant with the company, was previously involved for more than 12

⁶Blount, F. (1980). The corporate university: Training and education in the Bell System. Testimony presented to the Senate Committee on Labor and Human Resources, June 6-7, 1979. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

years with the design and delivery of generic management training programs sponsored by the company, and hence had direct and immediate access to all of the data sources needed to complete the project.

Project Design and Research Methodology

The research for the project was conducted in two stages. Phase one involved an extensive review of the literature on the subject of management development published during the past ten to fifteen years. The two main topical areas explored were current trends in the field of management development in general and the particular policies and practices adopted by the Bell System with respect to the development function.

Phase two involved a four-dimensional case study analysis of the workings of the management development process as it is carried out under actual field conditions in the company selected as the observation site. In-depth personal interviews were conducted with 53 subjects representing all four major stakeholder groups identified above. The questions contained in the interview guide were based on the considerations raised in the set of five unresolved issues

surrounding the development function that led to the original formulation of the problem. The ultimate goal of the research effort in phase two was to study the phenomenon of management development in its natural setting and in its full context as experienced by those closest to the process. Intra-group and inter-group analyses were made of the comments offered by those canvassed in the study with a view to discovering patterns, themes, and areas of convergence or divergence that might help to gain new insights into the inner dynamics of the management development process.

The case study methodology used to collect and analyze the data was chosen because of its relevance to the project objectives. Given the fact that conventional research methods have tended more to underscore the problematical nature of the development function than to resolve some of the basic issues, and given the fact that a number of professionals in the field of research analysis have recently advocated the use of qualitative methods in the domain of program evaluation, it was decided to employ the techniques of naturalistic inquiry as the primary means of gaining increased understanding and comprehension of the management development process.

The data was collected over a three month period using three proven qualitative research techniques:

- o Content analysis of existing documentation (corporate policy statements, program materials, internal studies and reports etc.)
- o In-depth, semi-structured personal interviews
- o On-site observation of program administration and immediate work environments

While the use of qualitative methodologies has long been recognized as a valid and valuable research tool in such humanistic disciplines as history, sociology, religious studies, anthropology, political science, ethnology, and psychology, its extension into the domain of program evaluation is relatively new and somewhat controversial. In chapter three, therefore, a detailed examination will be conducted into the epistemological roots of qualitative analysis in nineteenth and twentieth century German intellectual history as a means of demonstrating the legitimacy and validity of employing this methodology in studying adult learning processes.

While the main thrust of this project was supported by a qualitative approach to the subject, more traditional,

quantitative techniques were also used to analyze and report the findings. It should be noted, however, that the numbers and percentages that appear in the data presentation section are intended to represent orders of magnitude rather than degrees of statistical significance.

Some Assumptions

Qualitative analysis, by its very nature, excludes the formulation and testing of hypotheses as a necessary precondition for conducting a research project. Rather, it relies on a 'grounded theory' approach to the interpretation of data, requiring that the researcher make sense of the data collected entirely from within, without using any external models or paradigms. Qualitative analysis relies on inductive rather than deductive reasoning. In principle, whatever theoretical statements or empirical generalizations are made as a result of a qualitative study, should be grounded solely in the phenomenon under investigation and not influenced by outside considerations.

It should be pointed out that, while a qualitative study is expected to be free of hypotheses, it is not expected to be free of assumptions. The following set of as-

sumptions underly this particular research effort.

First, it was assumed that the subjects selected for the study were truly representative of the larger universe of the four stakeholder groups within the company, in spite of the fact that the individuals chosen were not selected using strict random sampling techniques.

Second, it was assumed that an increased comprehension of the inner dynamics of the management development process as it actually operates under field conditions will enable decision-makers and information-users in large corporations, both inside and outside of the Bell System, to derive maximum benefits from efforts at management development.

Third, it was assumed that this researcher's previous experience with management training and development activities would prove to be both an advantage and a handicap in carrying out this kind of study. On the positive side, familiarity with the process would make it possible to appreciate subtle nuances in the subjects' responses to the questions asked. On the negative side, personal biases would serve as a filter in the collection and analysis of the data. A strong effort was therefore made to capitalize on the

positive aspects and to minimize the subjective aspects of this background experience.

Project Outline

Chapter one has underscored the fact that, while there is rather widespread agreement among HRD professionals regarding the distinctive forms of adult learning associated with the training and education functions as carried out in a corporate setting, the underlying nature and character of the management development function remains elusive. A cursory review of the literature shows the concept of management development to be extremely vague and nebulous in most instances. A comprehensive review of the literature reveals that there are at least five important unanswered questions relating to the fundamental nature and character of the management development function. As a means of resolving the problem and obtaining some meaningful answers to these questions, it was determined that a case study of the management development process under actual field conditions in a large corporate setting should be undertaken.

Chapter two represents an attempt to put the problem into its proper historical context. It contains a detailed

review of the literature on the subject published over the past decade and a half since Nadler first offered his interpretation of the adult learning taxonomy. The first half of the chapter focuses on the views of HRD professionals regarding the nature of training, development, and education, with particular emphasis on the development function. The second half of the chapter contains a detailed analysis of the policies and practices of the Bell System with respect to management development over the past fifty or sixty years.

Chapter three presents a detailed explanation of the principles and techniques behind the overall design of the project, including an extended investigation into the epistemological roots of qualitative analysis to illustrate the validity of using this methodology to research the problem.

In chapter four the results of intra-group and inter-group comparisons of responses to the questions contained in the interview guide are presented. The end result is a comprehensive, four-dimensional picture of the management development process as perceived by those closest to the process.

Chapter five contains a summary of the findings and ex-

plores some of the implications for policy and practice with respect to corporate efforts at management development.

C H A P T E R I I

THE PROBLEM IN HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

Chapter one outlined the problematical character of the management development function as it currently operates in business and industrial settings. This chapter attempts to put the problem into proper historical perspective and set the stage for a qualitative investigation into the nature and character of the development process.

In part one the results of a comprehensive review of the literature on the subject published over the past fifteen years will be presented. A case will be made to show that the evidence indicates that, while most professionals in the field of Human Resource Development are in fundamental agreement regarding the essential nature of the learning outcomes associated with training and education activities, they are deeply divided over the question of the nature of the management development function. In part two a detailed analysis will be offered of the policies and practices of AT&T with respect to the management development function from the 1920s up to the present. This will provide background information necessary for interpreting some of the

case study data to follow.

PART ONE: A LOOK AT THE FIELD OF HRD

Corporate involvement in the domain of continuing adult learning, as noted earlier, is very extensive. Recent statistical data suggest that a significant part of this nation's educational system is currently being managed by private industry, a condition that has led some commentators to refer to this learning network as a "Shadow Educational System." In the opinion of some observers, this situation poses a serious threat to the dominant role that traditional institutions of higher learning have always played in this arena.¹

Whether or not corporate adult learning programs constitute a serious threat to the influence of traditional institutions of higher learning is a debatable issue. What is not subject to debate, however, is the fact that business and industry are deeply involved in the management of adult learning and there is every indication that this involvement

¹Doll, R.C. (1980). Speculations on the meaning of the trend toward corporate education. Phi Delta Kappan, (Jan.), p. 336.

will increase rather than decrease in the future. If maximum benefit is to be derived from the various adult learning programs conducted in a corporate setting, then it is important to narrow down the focus on exactly what the business community is attempting to accomplish in this area.

One person who has tried to put the issue of corporate learning into proper perspective is Leonard Nadler, a well known figure in the field of adult learning. Nadler has suggested that corporate HRD efforts are best understood in terms of the dynamic interplay of three adult learning subsystems labelled 'Training,' 'Development,' and 'Education.'²

The training function, in Nadler's scheme, is distinguished from the other two by the fact that it focuses on the acquisition of job relevant knowledge and skill. The responsibility for managing this function, he contends, rests with the first-level line organization in the corporation.³

²Nadler, L. (1980). Defining the field: Is it HRD or OD? Training and Development Journal, (June), p. 66.

³Nadler, L. (1981). Implications of the HRD concept. Training and Development Journal, (June), p. 14.

The education function, in Nadler's view, is distinguished from the other two by the fact that it aims at preparing individuals to handle wider areas of responsibility on future assignments in the company. Middle management is responsible for managing this function.

The development function, Nadler contends, is distinguished from the other two by the fact that it operates on two levels. It has both an organizational dimension and a personal dimension. The development function focuses on general growth, seeking to prepare both the organization and the individuals within it to meet the challenges of an indeterminate future. The responsibility for managing this function is entrusted to the executive level within the corporation.

Reaction among professionals within the HRD field to Nadler's proposed learning taxonomy covers a wide range --- from enthusiastically positive to neutral to decidedly negative. At one end of the spectrum of opinion, one finds a number of experts in the field who agree that it is possible, and perhaps even necessary, to make certain gross, meaningful distinctions regarding these three basic forms of adult learning. At the opposite end of the spectrum, one

encounters the position that any attempt to draw clear lines of demarcation between various forms of adult learning is meaningless and futile. One proponent of this view, W. Sparks, compares the current dispute regarding the establishment of an adult learning taxonomy to the medieval scholastic debate over the number of angels who could stand on the head of a pin, and concludes:

By whatever method, whether we consider ourselves to be involved in training, teaching or educating, the ultimate objective is the same: to impose new patterns of behavior, new habits, upon the narrow patterns and/or the muscle responses of the students.⁴

The ancient Greeks, Sparks points out, used the terms 'education' and 'training' interchangeably. The modern attempt to separate the two appears to parallel Aristotle's attempt to distinguish what one acquires by habit (practice) and what one acquires by reason (comprehension). In the final analysis, he suggests, a great deal of energy could be conserved by using the more generic term 'learning' and abandoning the quest for semantic clarity in this matter.

Somewhere in between the two extremes of portraying the

⁴Sparks, W. (1976). Should we educate the trainer---Or train the educator? Training, (Feb.), p. 33.

search for semantic clarity as being either necessary or futile, one encounters the view that, as a practical matter, there is no pressing need to establish definitional clarity beyond the virtually synonymous use of the three terms. The following quotation, taken from the preface of a recently published study of developing alliances between corporations and educational institutions, reflects this conviction:

For purposes of this study, no distinctions were made regarding the terms training, education, and development. Training and Development was defined as 'any educational activity or opportunity made available to employees'.⁵

In spite of the fact that Nadler's tripartite learning model has met with less than universal acceptance, his thesis that training, development, and education be viewed as discrete forms of adult learning can nevertheless serve as a useful starting point for launching a detailed investigation into the management of adult learning activities in a corporate setting.

⁵Darkenwald, G.G. (1983). Perspectives on business and industry on cooperative programs with educational institutions. Adult Education Quarterly, (Summer), pp. 231-232.

Training

A comprehensive review of the literature on the subject of training indicates that the vast majority of experts within the field agree that one of the hallmarks of this particular form of adult learning is its job-relevant character. Duggan Laird, a respected practitioner within the field of HRD, defines training as "the acquisition of the technology which permits employees to perform to standard."⁶

As the following set of quotations clearly illustrate, one of the salient features of the training function is the job-specific character of this particular form of adult learning:

Training objectives focus on the development of specific skills that will be used back on the job and can be observed and measured in terms of improved performance... Training is concerned with specific, job related behaviors expressed in terms of procedures, rules and techniques.⁷

⁶Laird, D. (1978). Approaches to training and development. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, p. 9.

⁷Parry, S. & Robinson, E. Management development: Training or education? Training and Development Journal, (May), p. 8.

Training relates to learning experiences that facilitate or strengthen job performance.⁸

Learning activities designed to improve current job performance are what we call training. Training objectives can be stated in specific behavioral terms. Training pays off starting with day one back on the job. It deals with current needs.⁹

Training is primarily concerned with the improvement of immediate on-the-job performance. Learning associated with training tends to be narrower in scope and more readily measurable at employee levels below supervisor than is learning associated with education. At the supervisor level and above, it becomes progressively more difficult to distinguish training from education and development.¹⁰

The training technologist is not out to educate anyone (except perhaps his/her client), only to enable trainees to perform specific job tasks under specific conditions, and to retain what they have been taught to do.¹¹

Training equates with technical or manual skill development. Almost always, it relates directly to the job.¹²

⁸Olson, E. & Berne, E. (1980). Academic preparation of HRD practitioners. Training and Development Journal, (May), p. 80.

⁹Nichols, M. (1982). Distinguishing between education and training---And selling them both. Training, (May), p. 32.

¹⁰Phillips, M. (1981). The education/training of trainers. N.S.P.I. Journal, (Feb.), p. 14.

¹¹Bollettino, R. (1980). Why the training consultant need not be a subject matter specialist. N.S.P.I. Journal, (May), p. 28.

¹²Peterfreund, S. (1976). Education in industry---Today and in the future. Training and Development Journal, (May), p. 31.

While some commentators are inclined to restrict the notion of training to the acquisition of narrowly-defined craft, technical, and clerical skills, others extend the concept to include the acquisition of interpersonal skills and other abilities required to perform certain job functions.¹³ Indeed, some see the training function as encompassing supervisory and administrative skills. Hawrylyshyn, for example, comments:

The objective of management training is to develop highly specific and immediately useful skills. It is intended to prepare people to carry out well-known tasks in well-defined job contexts. While management training can be given in external programmes, to develop skills common in many forms, training programmes are normally organized internally when company-specific practices must be taught. The whole activity can be described as being task oriented in so far as people are being prepared through it to accomplish specific tasks.¹⁴

In the final analysis, it is possible to draw three general conclusions regarding the nature and character of the

¹³Springer, J.W. (1981). Education and training programs in the Bell System. In P. Doeringer (Ed.), Workplace perspectives on education and training. Boston, MA: Martinus Nijhoff, pp. 105-106.

¹⁴Hawrylyshyn, B. (1975). Management education---A conceptual framework. In B. Taylor & G. Lippitt (Eds.), Management development training handbook. Maidenhead, England: McGraw-Hill, p. 170.

training function as perceived by experts within the field. First of all, there is a strong consensus that the training function is distinguished by the job-relevant character of its learning outcomes. Training is universally viewed as a set of carefully planned, organized, and controlled learning activities designed to improve some aspect of current job performance. The training function is distinguished by the fact that it has precise goals and objectives and its learning outcomes can be easily measured in terms of quality and productivity.

Secondly, it is clear that the training function has evolved into highly specialized discipline within the HRD field, a discipline with a distinctive body of knowledge, principles, and concepts. In many circles today, the training function is often referred to as 'Instructional Technology.' One of the hallmarks of this function is the widespread use of what can be termed a 'systems engineering approach' to the design, development, delivery, and evaluation of learning programs. Many training specialists today, building on the pioneering efforts of their predecessors in the late 1940s and early 1950s, employ a very structured approach to skill development. The process begins with a detailed task analysis of the job function to be performed.

The next step is to sketch out a behavioral blueprint or a skill-knowledge map of the competencies needed to carry out specific work operations step-by-step. Then a complete training program is designed and appropriate delivery systems are selected in order to insure the acquisition of the necessary competencies. Perhaps two of the best-known applications of a systems engineering approach to the overall management of the training function are to be found in the five-step ISD (Instructional Systems Design) model employed by all the major branches of the military and the seven-phase TDS (Training Development Standards) model used throughout the Bell System.¹⁵

Thirdly, a comprehensive review of the literature discloses that there are two schools of thought vying for supremacy. In one camp, one finds the proponents of what may be termed a 'behavioristic' approach to learning. In the opposing camp, one encounters the advocates of what may be

¹⁵For a comprehensive overview of the ISD model see A handbook or designers of instructional systems. Washington, DC: Department of the Air Force, 1974. The TDS model is considered by AT&T to be proprietary information and hence not to be disclosed outside of the Bell System. For a brief sketch of the TDS model see C.R. MacDonald, Performance based supervisory development. Amherst, MA: Human Resource Development Press, 1982.

called a 'humanistic' or 'cognitive' approach to the structuring of learning activities. Both sides operate from a strong epistemological base. The behaviorist school, for its part, carries on the Lockean tradition which views all learning, whether animal or human, as essentially a conditioning process. The humanist or cognitive school, on the other hand, continues the Leibnizian tradition wherein learning is understood to be essentially a self-directed, heuristic process.¹⁶ Each school tends to predominate in different spheres of adult learning as managed under the rubric of training. The behavioral approach plays a predominant role in the area of craft, clerical, and technical training, while the humanist approach plays a predominant role in human relations training and sales training.

Education

When addressing the question of the nature and character of the education function, many commentators are in-

^{16A} concise presentation of the epistemological foundations of the two leading schools of thought can be found in F. Milhollan, From Skinner to Rogers. Lincoln, NEB: Professional Educators Publications, 1972.

clined to begin by contrasting it with the training function. Training and education are viewed as occupying positions at opposite ends of an adult learning continuum, a continuum that runs from the concrete to the abstract, from the practical to the theoretical. The attempt to define education by contrasting it with training is clearly evident in recent testimony offered by Frank Blount, Vice President HRD at AT&T, before a Senate Committee on Labor and Human Resources. Blount noted that, while training activities are usually aimed at helping employees learn specific job-related or work activities, education is generally understood to mean learning experiences designed to provide an individual with the general knowledge, the skills, and the attitudes needed for living in today's world and coping with a wide range of situations.¹⁷

Branscomb and Gilmore make use of a similar bi-polar model in attempting to define education:

At one end of the scale, which we may regard as more typical of training, lies measurability, narrowness of subject matter, relevance to a particular time and

¹⁷Blount, F. (1980). The corporate university: Training and education in the Bell System. Testimony presented to the Senate Committee on Labor and Human Resources, June 6-7, 1979. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

place, well defined range of use, and the efficiency of information transfer. At the other end of the scale, more characteristic of what we mean by education, lies exposure to contrasting assumptions and points of view, the involvement of personal intellectual initiative, less constrained range of use even to uncertainty about its specific utility, and the general impossibility of measuring on a quantitative scale the degree and quality of acquisition of insight.¹⁸

The bi-polar relationship between training and education is also highlighted by Harmon who writes:

Training is concerned with modifying observable behavior... Education, on the other hand, is concerned with cognitive skills. Education is appropriate if we want our students to be able to perform in open-ended environments where they will be called upon to respond to unpredictable configurations of stimuli. In such circumstances, the instructional purpose shifts toward teaching the student generalized principles, theories or models that will allow the student to predict the likely outcomes of various courses of action. In effect, the student gets heuristics instead of algorithms and is expected to develop unique solutions for problems that he or she will encounter.¹⁹

Lusterman attempts to summarize the essential difference between these two forms of adult learning by stating that training activities focus on skill acquisition through practice, while education activities center around informa-

¹⁸Branscomb, L.M. & Gilmore, P. (1975). Education in private industry. Daedalus, (Winter), pp. 226-227.

¹⁹Harmon, P. (1981). The conceptualization of instructional design. N.S.P.I. Journal, (June), p. 20.

tion, concepts, and the development of broad intellectual abilities.²⁰ The notion that education has a broadening effect on the intellectual development of the learner is clearly orchestrated in the following set of quotations:

Education is concerned with the development of the mind, the transmission of knowledge, the ability to reason. Industry's efforts to 'educate' are less directed to the immediate job surroundings and more to the growth of the individual's knowledge base. It is 'liberal' whereas training is almost purely vocational.²¹

Education is concerned with broad, general objectives that are often expressed in terms of values, attitudes and perceptions... Like our past courses in history, government, economics or literature, we gained understanding. We did not acquire skills.²²

²⁰Lusterman, S. (1975). Education in industry. New York: The Conference Board, p. 5.

²¹peterfreund, S. (1976). Education in industry---Today and in the future. Training and Development Journal, (May), p. 30.

²²parry, S. & Robinson, E. (1976). Management development: Training or education? Training and Development Journal, (May), p. 8.

Education refers to the development of the whole person---socially, intellectually and physically.²³

The function of education is to provide the student with the capacity for analyzing and solving problems that confront him in his occupation, in his society and within himself.²⁴

Finally, in commenting upon the distinctive character of the learning outcomes associated with the education function, Hawrylyshyn observes:

Management education aims at developing a broad range of abilities, based on appropriate knowledge, attitudes and skills, to enable managers to cope with a large variety of organizational contexts. It is not, therefore, task or organization specific. It is broader in scope and has a longer time scale of utility than has training. It is more man than task or job oriented.²⁵

²³Freeman, R.D., Cooper, G.L. & Stumpf, F.S. (1982). Management education: Issues in theory, research and practice. Chichester, England: John Wiley & Sons, p. 89.

²⁴Luxemberg, S. (1978/79). Education at AT&T. Change, (Dec.-Jan.), p. 35.

²⁵Hawrylyshyn, B. (1975). Management education---A conceptual framework, In B. Taylor & G. Lippitt (Eds.), Management development training handbook. Maidenhead, England: McGraw-Hill, p. 170.

Some commentators, however, see education programs conducted under corporate auspices as having a somewhat narrower focus. Such programs, they argue, are intended to enable individuals to assume higher levels of responsibility within the company. Olson and Berne, for example, maintain that "education relates to learning experiences that prepare people for different or new jobs in the future."²⁶ A similar view is expressed by Nichols, for whom education includes:

activities that, we hope, will improve employee competence beyond that required for the job now held. This is knowledge acquisition in preparation for a higher place in the organization. There may be no immediate benefits. It deals with possible future needs.²⁷

The extensive involvement of business and industry in the management of continuing adult learning programs has led some commentators to speculate on the reasons why corporations would want to move into a domain traditionally viewed as the exclusive province of institutions of higher learning. Robert Rehder suggests that the main catalyst in this move has been the serious failure on the part of business and

²⁶Olson, E. & Berne, E. (1980). Academic preparation of HRD practitioners. Training and Development Journal, (May), p. 80.

²⁷Nichols, M. (1982). Distinguishing between education and training---And selling them both. Training, (May), p. 32.

management schools to offer a more balanced curriculum.²⁸ The majority of business and management schools, he contends, place too high a premium on the technical and vocational aspects of higher education and have failed to heed the advice offered in two important studies in the field of higher business education. A recent Ford Foundation Study Report, he notes, concluded that collegiate business education should be geared toward enabling individuals to manage their entire careers and not simply toward landing a first job. At the same time, a recently published Carnegie Report recommended that the primary emphasis in business education programs should be placed on the development of those abilities and strategies needed for confronting problems and situations in later life, rather than on mastering detailed aspects of a particular subject matter. It is primarily the failure on the part of the educational community to meet the real needs of the adult learner, Rehder argues, that has forced American corporations to attempt to meet the educational needs of their employees by sponsoring their own con-

²⁸Rehder, R.R. (1982). American business education---Is it too late to change? Sloan Management Review, (Winter), p. 63.

tinuing adult education programs.

Some commentators on the growing phenomenon of corporate involvement in the management of adult education programs insist that corporate adult learning programs and collegiate liberal arts programs should be viewed as complementary and mutually supportive of one another, rather than as antithetical, as many contend. At the adult level, Norman Smith suggests, it is possible to identify two different kinds of education which can be labelled 'liberal' and 'useful.'²⁹ Drawing on the ideas of John Henry Newman, an influential 19th century educator, regarding the transition from the world of the university to the world of the corporation, Smith develops the thesis that the domain of liberal education has been entrusted solely to the colleges and universities, while corporations are charged with the responsibility for assisting adults in the acquisition of useful knowledge. The ultimate goal of company-sponsored adult education programs, he maintains, is not the pursuit of knowledge in general, as it is in institutions of higher learning in liberal arts programs, but rather constructive and effec-

²⁹Smith, N.R. (1980). Corporate training and the liberal arts. Phi Delta Kappan, (Jan.), pp. 311-313.

tive job performance. At the same time, however, although the primary emphasis is on the practical and the useful, corporate learning programs generally do exhibit a humanistic thrust. The one thing that corporate learning programs cannot provide for adults is a true liberal arts education or the kind of knowledge that is required if individuals are to push beyond what are currently perceived to be the ultimate limits of human potential.

In the final analysis, a detailed examination of the literature on the subject leads to three important conclusions regarding the state-of-the-art of the management of adult education programs in a corporate setting. First of all, there is a strong consensus that the distinctive character of the education function is perhaps best understood by contrasting the nature of the learning involved with that of the training function. Training and education are viewed as occupying positions at opposite ends of an adult learning continuum, a continuum that stretches from the concrete to the abstract, from the particular to the universal, from the practical to the theoretical. Training is narrow in scope and job-specific. Education is broad in scope and person-oriented.

Secondly, one of the hallmarks of this particular form of adult learning, most commentators agree, is its essentially open-ended and broadening character. In the final analysis, education involves the process of learning how to learn and how to prepare for the future. The education function focuses on information, concepts, opinions, general principles, and contrasting viewpoints. Its ultimate goal is to prepare the learner to operate in a wide range of situations, some of which may transcend the immediate work environment.

Finally, corporate education programs are generally viewed as having a strong business focus, in the sense of preparing individuals to function more effectively in business situations. Corporations are not really in the business of providing adults with a liberal arts education. This is still seen as the proper domain of the colleges and universities. Corporate education aims at preparing employees to meet the challenges of an indeterminate future. At times, however, corporations find themselves forced to become more deeply involved in the education process than they might want to be due to the failure of business and management schools to offer a balanced curriculum.

Development

While a detailed review of the literature reveals a strong consensus among HRD specialists regarding the distinctive nature and character of adult learning outcomes associated with the training and education functions, it soon becomes clear that there is very little, if any, agreement regarding the nature of the management development function beyond the fact that it focuses on the general growth and development of individuals within a given work environment. The researcher soon discovers that the term 'management development' means different things to different people. The literature reflects a wide range of philosophical approaches to the question of what constitutes management development and a number of diverse practices regarding the management of the function. It is possible to identify at least five different schools of thought on the subject of management development.

Relationship to Training and Education

One approach to defining the nature of the development function is to link it closely to either the training or the education function by underscoring the close affinity that

exists between the end products. Those who adopt this approach are divided into two camps. The members of one camp maintain that a close relationship exists between the learning outcomes of both the training and the development functions and that as a consequence all job-related learning experiences, whether formal or informal, should be grouped under the single heading of 'Training and Development.' Wexley and Latham defend this position and propose that the field of training and development be defined as "a planned effort by an organization to facilitate the learning of job-related behaviors on the part of employees."³⁰

The members of the other camp consider the development process to be more closely related to the education function. One commentator on the subject, Charles Bowen, explicitly rejects the view that management development should be equated with management training and contends that organizations do themselves a serious disservice when they confuse the two.³¹ Management development, he argues, is more

³⁰Wexley, K. & Latham, G. (1981). Developing and training human resources in organizations. Glenview, ILL: Scott Foreman, p. 3.

³¹Bowen, C.P. (1973). Let's put realism back into management development. Harvard Business Review, (July-Aug.), pp. 85-86.

closely related to the education function insofar as it is a process whereby individuals learn to make increasingly important decisions under pressure, and make them right.

In a similar vein, Phillips develops the thesis that the development function made a place for itself in the arena of adult learning by assuming some of the meaning once accorded to education.³² At some point along the learning continuum, he contends, the training function shades into the education function, and the education function, in turn, gradually shades into development. Corporate management development programs, he maintains, aim at character building, interpersonal skills, self-awareness, and other important dimensions of personal growth and development.

Parry and Robinson are also among those who view the development function as being more akin to the education function than the training function. They write:

Common to the parlance of training directors and personnel administrators is a dichotomy in the use of the words 'training' and 'development.' One trains non-ex-

³²Phillips, M. (1981). The education/training of trainers. N.S.P.I. Journal, (Feb.). p. 14.

empt employees, salespersons, and first-line supervisors. One develops managers and executives. Training is specific, well-defined, and measurable; development is often ill-defined and largely synonymous with education... Organizations must devote far more time and energy to determining the goals of management development than in the past. It is essential that top management articulate what combination of training and education is desired, and how the results will be measured.³³

A Unique Form of Adult Learning

A second approach to the question of management development adopted by a number of professionals within the HRD field is the view that the management development function transcends both training and education and consequently represents a wholly unique form of adult learning acquired within a corporate setting. In addition to embracing elements of both training and education as part of the process, the management development function includes a number of other learning activities such as job rotation, special assignments, developmental performance appraisals and coaching. One proponent of this view attempts to delineate the

³³Parry, S. & Robinson, E. (1976). Management development: Training or education? Training and Development Journal, (May), pp. 8-9.

transcendent character of this particular form of adult learning in the following terms:

Development, as it is used in the industry, is the broadest of the three terms. It not only embraces 'training' and 'education' but also contains efforts at developing character, interpersonal skills, self-awareness, and other dimensions of personal growth and behavior.³⁴

And Hawrylyshyn, another advocate of this position, writes:

Management development encompasses the whole, complex process by which managers as individuals learn, grow, and improve their abilities to perform professional management tasks. It involves, first and foremost, learning on the job through experience... Learning on the job can, and often is, enhanced and accelerated by a variety of instruments and activities such as development-oriented performance appraisals, career planning, job rotation, participation in task forces, project teams, junior boards, and special assignments. Occasional participation in formal training or educational programmes should be an integral part of the overall management development process.³⁵

³⁴Peterfreund, S. (1976). Education in industry---Today and in the future. Training and Development Journal, (May), p. 31.

³⁵Hawrylyshyn, B. (1975). Management education---A Conceptual Framework. In B. Taylor & G. Lippitt (Eds.), Management development training handbook. Maidenhead, England: McGraw-Hill, p. 170.

Relationship to Organizational Change

A third approach found in the literature reflects the view that one of the distinctive features of the development function is its dual focus. It aims at increasing the effectiveness of both the organization as a whole and individual managers within the organization. The main thrust of the management development process, the proponents of this position argue, can only be properly understood against the backdrop of the specific needs and objectives of the corporation. While training and education clearly have a primary focus on the individual learner, the management development process exhibits an additional organizational dimension. The twin focal points of the development process are highlighted in the following quotation:

Management development is a term much bandied about in supervisory literature and usually refers to almost any training program conducted in an industrial or business setting... Management development, however, is more than a series of general programs; it is a growth process which includes the exposure of individuals to material of both general and specific interest. Precise and relevant information is necessary for individual growth, and it must be tailored to meet specific company and individual needs.³⁶

³⁶Jobe, E.D., Boxx, W.R. & Howell, D.L. (1970). A customized approach to management development. Personnel Journal. (Mar.), p. 150.

Indeed, one group of commentators on the subject contends that the management development function derives its primary impetus from the widespread phenomenon of continuous organizational change and the corresponding need to prepare both the organization and individuals within it to adapt to changing circumstances. This theme is clearly orchestrated in the following set of quotations:

Management development programs are based on the understanding that continuous organizational adjustment requires a parallel continuous development of the managerial staff through planned learning activities. Thus, management development programs are vital components in the process of organizational change, since they are responsible for preparing the managerial staff to cope successfully with environmental and internal changes... The major objective of management development programs is to change managerial behavior in order to facilitate the achievement of present and future organizational goals.³⁷

Development relates to learning experiences that build on workers' potential to respond to new organizational needs or goals.³⁸

³⁷Zeira, Y. (1974). The systems approach to management development. Organization Dynamics, (Fall), p. 65.

³⁸Olson, E. & Berne, E. (1980). Academic preparation of HRD practitioners. Training and Development Journal, (May), p. 80.

Activities that increase the competence and ability of employees to progress within the organization as it changes and grows can be classed under development. Specific, required behaviors have not yet been identified because the future conditions and proficiency standards are unknown. Development may pay off sometime in the future. It deals with predicted needs.³⁹

... development is concerned with preparing the employees so they can 'move with the organization as it develops, changes and grows'... The development activity often takes the form of university enrollments for top executives. They can thus acquire new horizons, new technologies, new viewpoints. They can lead the entire organization to newly developed goals, postures and environments. This is perceived as a way to maintain growth and development for the entire organization, and not just for the individual.⁴⁰

³⁹Nichols, M. (1982). Distinguishing between education and training---And selling them both. Training, (May), p. 32.

⁴⁰Laird, D. (1978). Approaches to training and development. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, p. 9-10.

The two-dimensional character of the management development function is also reflected in the writings of those HRD specialists who adopt a systems view of the personnel function and stress the importance of integrating the management development process with both individual career planning and organizational succession planning. Devanna, Fobrum, and Tichy, for example, note:

Activities designed to insure that individuals are properly equipped with skills and knowledge to carry out their jobs fall into the management development category. These activities range from simple job training for lower-level employees to long-term development of senior executives. The three major areas of the development process are: (1) job improvement: the development of specific job skills and competencies; (2) career planning: a longitudinal focus on individual growth and development in relation to organizational opportunities; (3) succession planning: the organizational focus on insuring an adequate supply of human resource talent for projected needs in the future based on strategic plans.⁴¹

⁴¹Devanna, M.A., Fobrum, C.J. & Tichy, N.M. (1981). Human resource management: A strategic approach. Organization Dynamics, (Winter), p. 55.

All Development is Self-development

A fourth approach to defining the essential nature of the management development process is to adopt the position that all development, in the final analysis, is self-development. The proponents of this view maintain that the real key to managing the management development function lies in recognizing the fact that all development is dependent upon the intentions and motivation of the individual being developed. Kur and Pedlar, after noting the pioneering efforts of John Gardner and Chris Argyris to lay the foundations for a self-improvement approach to the development process, develop the thesis that all efforts at management development are wholly dependent on the individual manager and that, as a result, the responsibility for managing that function can in no way be relegated to either the corporation or the immediate supervisor.⁴²

⁴²Kur, E.C. & Pedlar, M.J. (1982). Innovative management development. Training and Development Journal, (Jan.), p. 19.

A similar view is expressed by Livingston who argues forcefully that the individual management person has the primary responsibility for recognizing the need to adapt to changing circumstances by taking the initiative and embarking on a program of self-development.⁴³

A common theme expressed in this approach to management development is the notion that no one can develop someone else. This principle is clearly evident in the view expressed by Roy Walters, a former Director of Employment and Development at AT&T. Walters believes that experience has shown that those managers who are successful at developing subordinates recognize that all development is self-development and therefore seek to provide opportunities for their reporting people to grow and develop themselves on the job.⁴⁴ Effective managers, he argues, do not attempt to

⁴³Livingston, J.S. (1983). New trends in applied management development. Training and Development Journal, (Jan.) p. 19.

⁴⁴Walters, R.W. (1978). You can't develop another. Training and Development Journal, (Sept.), p. 38.

develop others. Rather, they provide the means whereby their subordinates develop themselves.

Mandt, another advocate of this view of management development, insists that, while the process of management development involves the interaction of the individual manager, the nature of the job, the style of supervision, and the total work environment in which the process occurs, it is the individual manager who must assume full responsibility for the management of the process.⁴⁵ Desatnick also notes that, while the management development process always occurs within a specific corporate context and with company support, the nature of the learning involved is such that the individual manager must assume complete responsibility for managing his or her own growth and development.⁴⁶

⁴⁵Mandt, E.J. (1979). A basic model of management development. Personnel Journal, (June), p. 395.

⁴⁶Desatnick, R.L. (1972). Innovative human resource management. New York: American Management Association, p. 15.

Selective Recruitment versus Formal Development

A fifth approach to management development found in the literature reflects the paradoxical view that the key to management development lies in resisting the temptation of trying to develop people. The real secret to management development, some HRD specialists assert, is selective recruitment. There is strong evidence, they point out, which suggests that managerial skills tend to remain relatively stable over time. Corporations therefore, are well advised to channel their energies in the direction of improved recruitment and placement techniques rather than attempting to improve the competence of veteran employees using formal development programs.

One of the leading proponents of the view that corporations should selectively recruit talented individuals with management potential and then place them in an environment that will allow them to find their appropriate level in the organization is Douglas Bray. Bray, a former Bell System psychologist, comments:

Private industry is replete with development programs for management trainees, and these efforts find their counterparts in the government and the military. Development efforts include rotation between assignments, coaching, and formal courses both inside and outside

the organization. The effects of these efforts are still debatable. A recent comprehensive evaluation of research on the results of management development programs (Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler and Weick, 1970) has concluded that their value is still very much in doubt. It is possible to assert without fear of scientific contradiction that managers merely find their proper level, given the opportunity, and that there are no significant changes in management ability after graduation from college.⁴⁷

Bray goes on to note that, while the possibility remains open that more deliberate and concentrated efforts at development might be more successful, it is best to proceed on the assumption that fundamental managerial abilities, such as organizing, planning, decision making, problem solving, and leadership skills cannot be expected to improve as the result of participation in structured management development programs.

Douglas and Francine Hall, career development specialists who have worked on a number of HRD projects for the Bell System, noted that the prevailing philosophy at AT&T has always reflected the belief that carefully sequenced job assignments have a far greater impact on an individual's man-

⁴⁷Bray, D.W., Campbell, R.J. & Grant, D.L. (1974). Formative years in business: A long-term AT&T study of managerial lives. New York: John Wiley & Sons, pp. 3-4.

management development than any other kind of training experience.⁴⁸ A close examination of the policies and practices regarding the management development function at AT&T, they observe, reveals a three-fold strategy:

1. Emphasize the development of high potential individuals identified through the management assessment process.
2. Set specific departmental performance objectives based on the competencies needed to hold a given management position.
3. Train immediate supervisors to provide management trainees with learning experiences designed to facilitate individual growth and development.

In a similar vein, Digman calls attention to the fact that AT&T has withdrawn its sponsorship of formal in-house management development programs across the Bell System and has scaled back drastically on its support of university programs for the development of executives.⁴⁹ The cardinal

⁴⁸Hall, D.T. & Hall, F.S. (1976). What's new in career management? Organizational Dynamics, (Summer), p. 20.

⁴⁹Digman, L.A. (1978). How well-managed organizations develop their executives. Organizational Dynamics, (Fall), p. 65.

principle underlying the management of the management development function at AT&T, he notes, is to recruit and place well rather than devote time, money and energy to formal management development programs.

Summary and Conclusion

A detailed examination of the published views of HRD theorists and practitioners regarding the essential nature of adult learning programs conducted by corporations under the headings of Training, Development, and Education enables one to draw a couple of conclusions regarding the current state-of-the-art.

First, specialists in the field are generally agreed that training and education represent distinctively different forms of adult learning. The training function is generally viewed as being very narrow in scope and focused on the acquisition of job-specific knowledge and skills. The education function, on the other hand, is generally seen as an open-ended process which aims at providing the learner with a broad range of competencies needed to confront an indeterminate future. Training and education are seen as having a bi-polar relation, occupying positions at opposite ends

of an adult learning continuum.

Second, commentators are deeply divided over the question of what constitutes management development. The term 'management development' means different things to different people. A comparison of the various approaches taken to defining and managing the development function surfaces at least four unresolved issues that warrant further investigation. Four major questions remain unanswered, namely:

1. What is the precise relationship between management development and the training and education functions? Is development inseparably tied to one or the other or does it represent a wholly unique type of adult learning in a corporate setting?
2. What group or groups of employees constitute the primary target population for corporate management development programs? Should management development programs be geared to new college hires, to those recently promoted into management from the non-management ranks, to high potential candidates, or to the management population in general?
3. What specific competencies are needed in order for an individual to be successful in a management po-

sition? Are these skills innate or can they be acquired? Are they stable over time or can they be improved to a significant degree through training and practice?

4. Where should one assign the primary locus of responsibility for managing the development process? Does the responsibility reside with the individual manager being developed, the immediate supervisor, the corporation, or a combination of all three?

Third, the literature is replete with normative models and paradigms for designing and administering management development program and with narrative descriptions of what steps particular companies have taken to refine the management development process. There is, however, little qualitative data available regarding the various personal, situational, and environmental forces that shape and mold the management development process under actual field conditions.

The four unresolved issues outlined above, together with the scarcity of useful qualitative data regarding internal and external forces that strongly influence the management development process, provided a clear focus for the case study that served as the cornerstone for the research

project. Since the case study was conducted within a Regional Bell Operating Company, it will be helpful at this point to examine more closely the approach taken by AT&T to human resource development in general and to the management development process in particular.

PART TWO: AT&T'S APPROACH TO HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

The corporate staff at AT&T has long been recognized for its pioneering efforts in the field of human resource management. The famous Hawthorne studies of the 1920s and the more recent longitudinal study of managerial effectiveness are but two examples of the Bell System's long and deep involvement with the effective and efficient management of human resources. The four topical areas to be explored in this section cover major experiments conducted by AT&T in the field of human resource management over the past seven decades. They include:

- o The refinement of organized campus interviewing techniques
- o The development of university-based programs for executive education
- o The use of assessment centers to evaluate management potential

- o The completion of a twenty year longitudinal study of managerial effectiveness

Campus Recruiting

Organized campus recruiting on the part of large companies seeking qualified candidates for entry-level management positions has its roots in the early part of this century. History shows that prior to World War I the Bell System was in the vanguard of those companies that sought to refine the use of college recruiting techniques.⁵⁰ In 1922 a single, coordinated plan for the recruitment of promising new college hires was put in place across the entire Bell System. The plan called for a three-person team to visit college campuses in order to gather background data and conduct personal interviews with promising candidates for management training positions within the telecommunications industry. Each recruiting team was composed of a representative from Bell Laboratories (the research and development arm of AT&T), Western Electric (the manufacturing arm), and the local Bell Operating Company. The plan called for initial

⁵⁰Bridgemen, D.S. (1930). Success in college and business. Personnel Journal, (Jan.), pp. 1-19.

background information on potential new hires to to be obtained from the data contained on application forms, uncovered in brief personal interviews, and drawn from other on-campus sources such as faculty members or the registrar. The most qualified candidates were then scheduled for a second, or sometimes a third, in-depth personal interview before being offered an entry-level management position within the system.

Research into the effectiveness of the college recruiting techniques employed by the Bell System was conducted from the mid-1920s through the mid-1950s. This research was expanded during the late 1950s when Frederick Kappel, the Chairman of the Board at AT&T, commissioned an in-depth study into the effectiveness of the college recruiting program. A research team examined the careers of more than 17,000 management hires and eventually concluded that, as earlier studies had indicated, a strong correlation exists between the job performance of college graduates hired into the system and their academic or scholastic performance while in college. In Kappel's words:

The figures show that the single most reliable predictive indicator of a college graduate's success in the Bell System is his rank in the graduating class. A far greater proportion of high-ranking than low-ranking students have qualified for the larger responsibilities.

Forty-five percent of the men in the top academic third were in our top salary third; while of those in the lowest third of their graduating class, only 26 percent made the top salary third.⁵¹

While there is some evidence that college quality also makes a difference, Kappel notes, rank in class ultimately proves to be the most significant factor in predicting future success in a management position. There is also some indication that there is a correlation between achievement in non-academic activities while in college and later job performance in a management position, but only in those instances where there was real accomplishment and not simply participation in extracurricular activities.

The success of college recruiting programs, Kappel observes, has some important implications for the management development process.⁵² The primary goal of the educational system at all levels is the overall growth and development of the individual, whereas the primary aim of the business enterprise is to carry on the business and not to educate

⁵¹Kappel, F.R. (1964). Business purpose and performance. New York: Duell, Sloan & Pearce, p. 180. See also From the world of college to the world of work. Bell Telephone Magazine, (Spring, 1962), pp. 3-16.

⁵²Kappel, F.R., pp. 230-231.

people. Development, therefore, must be seen as something that occurs prior to assuming a management position. While this condition does not rule out later growth and development if placed in a favorable environment, Kappel argues, it underscores the fact that individuals are responsible for continuing to develop their own capabilities after they are placed in a management position. It also means that corporations should rely more on selective recruiting and placement and less on formal development programs in attempting to find qualified candidates for middle management positions.

University-based Development Programs

During the 1950s AT&T experimented with a novel and innovative approach to the process of management development, at the middle and upper levels in the management hierarchy, by sponsoring a set of university-based humanities programs as a means of promoting managerial growth and development.⁵³

⁵³Bowden, G.T. & Greenleaf, R.K. (1970). The study of the humanities as an approach to executive development. New York: AT&T. See also M.S. Viteles, Long-range impact of a programme of humanistic studies for business executives on management attitudes and behavior. International Review of Applied Psychology, (Aug., 1955).

The impetus for this experiment came from Cleo F. Craig who assumed the presidency of AT&T in 1951. Craig believed that something had to be done immediately to stimulate the growth and development of middle and upper managers in the business. Twenty years of austerity in the Bell System following the compression of the business after the Depression and the rapid expansion of the business after World War II, with no significant influx of managerial talent during that time, had taken its toll on the availability of capable people to assume top leadership positions within the industry. Craig's view of management development was strongly influenced by Chester Barnard. He was convinced that the study of the humanities, with its broadening effect, would provide a more long-range value for the development of high potential managers within the business than the study of day-to-day problems associated with the operation of a business enterprise. As a result, in 1952 he commissioned the AT&T staff to initiate a process of management development for Bell Operating Companies grounded in university-based programs in the study of humanities.

The first step in the creation of this new program of management development was the establishment of the Institute of Humanistic Study of the University of Pennsylvania

in 1952. This move was a very controversial one, because for the first time in history young business managers were to be placed in a university setting for ten months with the avowed purpose of studiously avoiding the mundane problems related to the daily management of the telecommunications industry.

Each Bell Operating Company was allowed to send one candidate a year to the University of Pennsylvania program. Between 1953 and 1960 one hundred and thirty-four high potential managers from across the Bell System participated in the program. Conferees attended lectures, participated in seminar discussions, and visited museums, theaters, and concert halls. Outside speakers were brought in to address the conferees on a wide range of subjects including the humanities, the social and physical sciences, philosophy, art, music, and drama. No examinations were administered and no academic credit was granted but Dr. Morris Viteles of the psychology department at the university conducted follow-up

evaluations of the program.⁵⁴

The initial success of the program at the University of Pennsylvania led to an expansion of the experiment at other locations around the country. Two members of the AT&T Personnel Relations staff responsible for the administration of these programs summarized the rapid expansion of the experiment of the following terms:

Under the impetus of this initial effort, Craig then encouraged his staff at American Telephone and Telegraph to arrange similar shorter programs at other institutions. There ensued a 14 week program at Swarthmore College in the Fall and Spring (1956-1961); an eight-week program at Northwestern University three times a year (1957-1961); and eight-week summer sessions at Dartmouth and Williams (1956-1961). In total 70 attended Swarthmore, and a total of 739 attended the three eight-week programs. At all five schools extensive discussions were held between faculty and administrators and Bell System representatives concerning the development needs of prospective students as perceived within the business. But each institution designed and staffed its own program--and each was quite different in content. All expenses were borne by the company.⁵⁵

⁵⁴Program of humanistic studies for bell system executives ---Univ. of Pennsylvania (1953-1960)---Long-range impact on managerial attitudes and behavior: A follow-up survey. Privately printed by Bell Telephone Company of Philadelphia, 1969.

⁵⁵Bowden, G.T. & Greenleaf, R.K. (1970). The study of the humanities as an approach to executive development. New York: AT&T, p. 5.

All of the programs shared a common goal. They were designed to assist responsible, mature, competent Bell System managers in learning and working in a future environment that could not be clearly defined. The main thrust of each program was to inculcate an analytical and experimental approach to dealing with issues. Each also aimed at developing a sustained interest in personal growth and development throughout one's entire career.

Some of the programs also addressed specific problems associated with the management development process. The Dartmouth-Williams experiment, for example, focused on the phenomenon of waning interest in growth during the middle years of life. There was evidence that suggested that the normal incentives which proved to be adequate for sustaining interest, responsibility, and competence in the early years often failed to provide sufficient momentum to continue the search for development during the critical middle years. The Dartmouth-Williams experiment was geared toward exploring what additional impetus is needed to sustain interest in continued growth and development during the middle years. Specifically, these programs aimed at broadening the range of interest and expanding the habit of inquiry, at sharpening awareness of current social, political, and economic

trends, and at laying the groundwork for a sustained program of self-development.

Preliminary evaluations of the experiment with employing the study of the humanities as a management development tool, based mainly on interview and questionnaire data, indicated that the vast majority of those who participated in the programs felt that they had benefited from the experience. Most indicated that they had improved their critical thinking with respect to social, economic, and political issues, read more widely and selectively than before, pursued cultural interests, and exhibited more understanding, tolerance, self-confidence, and greater personal freedom in pursuing their careers.

The experiment with humanities programs as a means of fostering management development, however, proved to be shortlived. In 1958 Frederick Kappel, the newly appointed President of AT&T, established a committee to review the entire area of upper management education in the Bell System and make recommendations regarding its improvement. The committee was charged with finding ways of bringing along the next generation of top managers within the business and devising an approach to management development that would be

challenging, business oriented, and geared toward stimulating an interest in continued self-development, with full regard at the same time for the broadening influence of the liberal arts.

After considerable study, the committee members concluded that, despite high-level support for the project and widespread acceptance on the part of program participants, the humanities experiment was too controversial and too inconclusive to be continued. As a consequence, the final committee report contained the recommendation that AT&T drop its sponsorship of the project but allow individual Operating Companies to continue to send managers to the programs if they wished: The report also recommended that future efforts at middle and upper management development be more selective, more incisive, and more focused on the foreseeable problems of the business.

The recommendations of the committee were accepted and implemented. The majority of the humanities programs were terminated in the early 1960s and management education within the system from that time on tended to follow the lines of corporate seminars that focused attention on the critical management issues facing the telecommunications industry.

The Dartmouth project, it should be noted, lasted for another ten years in a modified form. The new program offering, entitled "Management Objectives Project," represented a joint venture on the part of the AT&T Personnel Relations staff and the Dartmouth faculty. The curriculum contained three courses--The Language and Literature of Decision (conducted by a faculty member), Analytical Thinking (conducted by a faculty member), and Leadership and Goal Setting (conducted by a Bell Operating Company representative).

A summative evaluation of the controversial humanities experiment within the Bell System, which ended with the Dartmouth project, is offered by two members of the AT&T Personnel Relations staff directly responsible for overseeing the entire project:

In summary, the authors believe that the Management Objectives Program provided an unusual opportunity to exercise, and perhaps develop, qualities of foresight and imagination that sometimes are drilled out of a person by years of close attention to administrative detail. Our conclusion, in perspective, is that the one value of enlarging foresight and imagination is the chief justification for turning to able teachers in the human-

ities for a critical element of preparation for higher management.⁵⁶

Assessment Center Techniques

The mid-1950s also marked the beginning of a third foray into the domain of management development on the part of AT&T. During this period the Bell System began to experiment with a number of assessment center methods borrowed from the military to appraise the management potential of its employees. Between 1958 and 1979 over 200,000 Bell System managers were assessed in more than 70 assessment centers across the country. For a period of one to three days, depending on the nature of the program used, candidates were evaluated with respect to their ability to assume increased responsibility by a staff trained in the use of such assessment tools as psychological evaluations, peer ratings, interviews, and situational tests. Although the use of assessment center techniques to appraise management potential is commonplace today in the business and industrial world, it should be noted that the very first application of the assessment center concept in a corporate setting was made by

⁵⁶Bowden, G.T. & Greenleaf, R.K., p. 19.

an AT&T project team in 1956.

The assessment center concept traces its roots back to the use of war games (Kriegsspiele) by the military as a means of preparing troops for combat early in this century. The tactic of employing a number of situational tests to measure leadership ability, originally devised by the German military strategist von Reiszitz, was refined by German psychologists and later used as the primary means of selecting the most qualified officer candidates during the 1930s. In 1938 the British War Office introduced a modified version of the German assessment center process as a key part of its own officer selection process. In late 1943 the recently formed Office of Strategic Services (OSS) in the United States set up assessment centers in Washington, D.C. and on the west coast to process candidates. The psychological-psychiatric units established by the OSS employed essentially the same clinical assessment techniques developed by the German High Command and the British War Office. The primary aim of these assessment centers was to make a determination regarding the ability of military and civilian personnel to engage in dangerous intelligence work under wartime conditions, often behind enemy lines. While the program was in operation over 5,000 individuals were assessed at these two

centers.⁵⁷

In 1956 AT&T hired Douglas Bray, a Columbia University psychologist, to undertake a longitudinal study of the effectiveness of established Bell System procedures regarding the recruitment, selection, and placement of qualified management candidates. The primary tool used by Bray and his staff to create a yardstick for measuring the potential of new management hires into the system and making predictions regarding advancement was a version of the military assessment center modified to suit a business environment.⁵⁸

The aim of the research project was to make an initial determination regarding the management potential of a group of new hires based on performance in assessment center exercises, predict the rate of advancement within the Bell System management hierarchy based on assessment center results, and then track the careers of those involved over a twenty year period.

⁵⁷For a complete account of the use of assessment center techniques by the military in the early 1940s see The assessment of men: Selection of personnel for the Office of Strategic Services. New York: Rinehart, 1946.

⁵⁸Bray, D.W., Campbell, R.J. & Grant, D.L. (1974). Formative years in business: A long-term AT&T study of managerial lives. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

In its military form the assessment process was a one-to-three day affair conducted by a team of industrial psychologists who used a variety of individual and group exercises and employed a set of multiple criteria for measuring qualities and traits deemed necessary for carrying out difficult intelligence assignments successfully. The key personal and interpersonal variables measured in the process included the following:

- o Energy---a measure of one's activity level; effort, initiative, and involvement.
- o Effective Intelligence---ability to select strategic goals and the most effective means of attaining them; quick, practical thought; resourcefulness, originality; good judgment in dealing with people, things, or ideas.
- o Emotional Stability---ability to govern disturbing emotions; steadiness and endurance under pressure; tolerance for ambiguity and uncertainty; freedom from neurotic tendencies.
- o Social Relations---ability to get along well with others; goodwill, team play, and tack; freedom from disturbing prejudices; freedom from annoying traits.
- o Leadership---social initiative; ability to evoke

the cooperation of others; acceptance of responsibility; organizing and administering ability; initiative and forcefulness in guiding others toward the achievement of a common objective.

To insure that these and other variables were measured objectively and consistently, all candidates were placed in identical situations and observed by a staff of industrial psychologists trained in the use of clinical and non-clinical assessment techniques. A variety of structural designs were used to elicit the desired behaviors, including leaderless group exercises, improvisation tests, group discussion exercises, projective tests, and in-depth personal interviews.

In employing the assessment center concept as the cornerstone for establishing a methodology for measuring the effectiveness of AT&T recruiting and placement procedures, Bray and his staff modified both the content and the process of the military assessment center approach. Among some of the more important changes introduced by the project team for the AT&T study were the following. First, instead of using industrial psychologists as staff members, he trained line managers from the Bell Operating Companies to observe

and measure the performance of program participants. Second, projective-type tests requiring the clinical interpretation of trained professionals were eliminated. Third, specific variables considered essential for success in a management position within the Bell System, such as knowledge of the organizational structure, career orientation, and written and oral communication skills were added to the list of competencies being measured. Fourth, in order to put the process in a business setting, an in-basket exercise involving the handling of a set of typical business-related situations were added to the program.

A summary of the results of the AT&T longitudinal study on managerial effectiveness will be presented in the next section. It should be pointed out here, however, that the assessment center concept developed by Bray and the project staff for the AT&T experiment soon proved to have a far wider application than that of a research tool for carrying out one particular project. Over the past three decades the assessment center approach to identifying management potential has been used extensively both inside and outside of the Bell System.

The first documented field application of the assess-

ment center concept developed by Bray and his staff was in Michigan Bell. In 1957 the Plant Department of Michigan Bell incorporated an assessment center program into the decision-making process for promoting craft technicians into first-level management positions within the organization. Assessment center results were used to supplement traditional promotional criteria such as technical skill and competence, motivational ability, and job performance.

Michigan Bell's success with the process soon led to its adoption by many Bell Operating Companies across the country. AT&T assumed responsibility for coordinating the process and gradually tailored the programs to evaluate management potential at different levels in the management hierarchy and in different functional areas. In 1961 a program was developed to measure the potential of first level managers to assume second level positions. In 1964 a program was introduced to assess the potential of candidates for marketing and sales positions. In 1968 a program was developed to measure the potential of second level managers and to assume the responsibilities of a district level position. And finally in 1971 a program designed to identify and assess high potential in the field of engineering was introduced across the system.

In reviewing the genesis and evolution of the assessment center concept here, it is not necessary to conduct a detailed examination into the question of the validity of the process. For purposes of this study, it is sufficient to note that there is evidence of a significantly high correlation between the predictions of success based on assessment center results and later performance in a management position. In statistical terms, the assessment center process proves to be roughly twice as effective as conventional methods of identifying and evaluating management potential. Data from the Michigan Bell experiment, for example, indicated a success rate of 62.5% for those promoted into a management position after assessment versus an earlier success rate of only 33% prior to the introduction of the program.⁵⁹

The application of the assessment center concept within the Bell System, it should be noted, has been primarily as a selection and promotional tool. Outside of the Bell System, however, a number of corporations have used the process as a management development tool. Those candidates who do not score high on some of the more important variables are en-

⁵⁹Unpublished report circulated within the Bell System.

rolled in management development programs designed to help them improve in weak areas.

Managerial Effectiveness Study

The longitudinal study of management effectiveness conducted by Douglas Bray and his staff, as indicated earlier, aimed at determining the effectiveness of AT&T policies and procedures in recruiting, selecting, and placing talented new hires in entry-level management positions. The study team assessed and then tracked the careers of 274 new management hires, one-hundred percent of whom were male and two-thirds of whom were recruited from the college campus. Thirty-five percent of the college graduates had majored in the social sciences or humanities; 30% in science or engineering; and 35% in business administration. The subjects were hired into five Bell Operating Companies and placed in various entry-level management positions in a number of disciplines, including Plant, Operator Services, Commercial, Accounting, and Engineering.

The original study plan called for the project team to assess the management potential of each of the subjects, predict how far and how fast each would move within the man-

agement ranks, and track individual progress by means of in-depth yearly interviews conducted by a group of professional interviewers. It also called for all of the subjects to be assessed a second time at the eight year mark. Before that particular milestone was reached, however, 100 of the subjects had left the Bell System (80% voluntarily). The planned annual interviews were still conducted, however, even with those who had left the system.

In the original assessment, 40% of the candidates were judged to possess the talent and ability to move to a middle management position (third or district level) within a period of five to ten years. Individual results were not revealed either to the subjects or their immediate supervisors in order to prevent a 'Pygmalion' or 'self-fulfilling prophecy' effect.

After being assessed at a central location the subjects reported to work in their respective Bell Operating Companies. The orientation programs conducted by the Operating Companies were basically the same, consisting of personal interviews, formal orientation sessions, on-the-job discussions, training on administrative and departmental matters, job rotation in a variety of non-management positions, infor-

mation on other departments, and some formal in-house management development activities.

At the end of eight years, 32% of the subjects had reached district or third level in the management hierarchy. The data collected up to that point supported a number of conclusions. First, the progress of the new management recruit tends to be strongly influenced by the organizational setting in which he was originally placed. Second, the use of the assessment center concept to identify and measure management potential makes it possible to improve substantially on the selections made in the ordinary recruiting process. Third, the aptitudes displayed at the time of employment are definitely related to later success in a management position. Fourth, the two major determinants of progress within the ranks of management appear to be the set of individual abilities and the total set of advancement opportunities that arise.

The individual variables that seem to play a critical role in determining managerial effectiveness, the study team concluded, are the following:

1. INTELLECTUAL ABILITY

2. MANAGEMENT FACTORS

- o Administrative skills
- o Interpersonal skills

3. MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS

- o Stability of performance
- o Work motivation
- o Career orientation
- o Independence of others

At the eight year mark all of the subjects participated in a second assessment program identical to the first. The results of the second assessment, when compared with the results of the first program along the three dimensions of managerial effectiveness outlined above, showed that:

- o On average, the subjects scored higher on intellectual ability.
- o After eight years of corporate experience, there was no significant difference in the rating of administrative and interpersonal skills.
- o The average manager proved to be better adjusted and more independent than when first assessed.

In the judgment of the staff, the study data collected during the project contained important implications for the

management of the management development function. The data clearly indicated that the individual management recruit took an active role in his own growth and development as a manager and was not a passive participant in the process of advancement in the management ranks. Management development, the study team concluded, is more than a corporate conditioning process. In the opinion of the staff:

The recruits were not developed, trained and motivated by 'Ma Bell' so much as they tended to further the promising implications of an ongoing life style formulated long before they came to the System recruiter.⁶⁰

The final results of the proposed twenty-year study were published in 1974, eighteen years after the project was initiated. Among the major findings were the following:

- o Conventional college graduate employment procedures do not afford an adequate basis for evaluating potential recruits on those variables shown to be strongly related to success in a management position.
- o The assessment center process proves to be an effective means of identifying and measuring management potential.

⁶⁰Bray, D.W., Campbell, R.J. & Grant, D.L. p. 185.

- o The two most important success factors appear to be leadership ability and administrative skills. Next in the order of importance are intellectual ability, stability of performance, work motivation, and career orientation.
- o Managerial talents are generally developed during the college years and tend to remain relatively stable over time.
- o The key to effective management development lies in the recruiting and selection techniques employed rather than in the use of formal management development programs once a recruit is placed in a management position.

In the opinion of the study team, the primary reason why many corporations continue to rely on formal management development programs in filling management positions rather than making use of the assessment center concept is that many businesses cannot afford the expense of maintaining a trained staff to run an assessment center.

Overall Summary and Conclusion

A review of the literature on the subject of corporate

adult learning programs in the first half of this chapter revealed a couple of things regarding the present state-of-the-art. First, HRD professionals are in general agreement regarding the essential nature and character of the training and education functions. Training is viewed, almost universally, as a form of learning associated with the acquisition of the skill and knowledge required to perform a particular work operation or task. Education, on the other hand, is seen as a distinctive form of adult learning that aims at preparing one to confront an indeterminate and unpredictable future through the development of a wide range of intellectual competencies.

At the same time, professionals within the field are widely divided over the question regarding the fundamental nature and character of the management development function. All are in basic agreement that the concept of management development includes the notion of growth and development beyond one's present assignment, but the agreement ends there. A detailed analysis of the literature indicates that it is possible to identify at least five different schools of thought on the subject of management development. In the final analysis, five important issues remain unresolved. What is the relationship of the development function to the

training and education functions? Who is primarily responsible for managing the development process? To what extent can specific management skills be developed and improved? Which employees should be considered to constitute the primary target population for company-sponsored management development programs? What are some of the more important personal, situational and environmental factors that shape the results of efforts at management development?

Third, there is a dearth of qualitative data regarding the nature and character of the development process. Published materials on the subject tend to fall into one of two categories---normative models for structuring and administering management development programs or simple descriptive narratives of the efforts of particular companies to refine the management development process.

In the second half of the chapter, a detailed analysis of AT&T's involvement in the area of human resource management disclosed some important facts. First, the predominant philosophy and policy at AT&T with respect to the management of the management development process over the past few decades has clearly been that of advocating the refinement of recruiting and selection procedures rather than channeling

efforts into formal management development programs as the primary means of planning to fill middle management positions in the Bell System. The key to management development at AT&T lies, paradoxically, in careful selection and placement of new recruits rather than in formal efforts to develop management competencies after an individual has been placed in a management position. Second, personnel specialists at AT&T are firmly convinced that there is strong evidence to suggest that most managerial competencies are developed prior to employment, usually in an academic setting, and these abilities tend to remain stable over time. They are also convinced that the management development process remains the primary responsibility of the individual recruit throughout his or her entire career.

It should be pointed out, that, despite the official policy of AT&T in this regard, the Bell Operating Companies have always enjoyed the freedom of setting their own policies with respect to the management of the management development function. In actual practice, a number of Bell Operating Companies have made use of both assessment center techniques and formal management development programs designed to promote individual growth and development.

The next step in the investigation, therefore, was to conduct an examination into management development practices at a large Regional Bell Operating Company using the methodology of naturalistic inquiry to surface qualitative data regarding management of the development process under actual field conditions. In chapter three the research methodology used to gather, summarize, and analyze the data will be described in detail.

C H A P T E R I I I

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The main thrust of this research project is to clarify the five unresolved issues surrounding the underlying nature and character of the management development outlined in chapter one and expanded upon in chapter two. The five problem areas identified center around the relationship of development to training and education, the proper target population for corporate efforts at management development, the specification of which management competencies can or cannot be significantly improved, the locus of responsibility for managing the development process, and the identification of the more important personal, situational, and environmental forces that shape the process. The study aims at providing some meaningful answers to these questions by gaining insights into the inner dynamics of the development process as it actually operates under field conditions in a large corporate setting.

As noted at the outset, the most promising means of acquiring some meaningful insights in the what, why, and how of the development process appeared to be a phenomenological

investigation into the world of management development as experienced by those currently participating in a formal program, by those responsible for supervising participants in a program, by those who completed a management development program earlier in their career, and by those responsible for setting corporate policies and overseeing the administration of management development programs.

If one applies the research classification scheme employed by M. Patton and other professionals within the field of research design to the project objectives, then the study might be labelled as a form of 'process' evaluation. What distinguishes process evaluation from other forms of program evaluation is a central focus on the manner in which a given program actually works, i.e., on the inner dynamics of the process itself, rather than on the end results or final outcomes of the program.¹ Process evaluation aims at uncovering key success factors, operational strengths and weaknesses, critical human interactions, and other program determinants that shed light on how a given program actually operates in its natural setting.

¹Patton, M.W. (1983). Qualitative evaluation methods. Beverly Hills, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc., pp. 60 ff.

The project can also be classified as a form of "utilization-focus" evaluation. This form of evaluation derives its name from the fact that in many evaluation projects there are a number of interested constituencies, a condition that provides a highly specific and pragmatic focus to the research effort.² As noted above, it is expected that the results of this study will be of value to decision-makers and information-users in business organizations when determining future policy and practice with respect to the development function.

Finally, the nature of this research project is such that it exhibits many of the characteristics of what Michael Scriven terms a "goal-free" approach to program evaluation.³ In adopting a goal-free approach to program evaluation, the researcher gathers data across a broad spectrum relating to the program's ability to meet the needs of individual learners, without being constrained by a narrow concentration on stated goals and objectives. Judgment is suspended with respect to what the program is designed to do or

²Patton, M.Q., pp. 59-70.

³Scriven, M. (1972). Pros and cons about goal-free evaluation. Evaluation Comment, 3, pp. 1-7.

trying to do, while full attention is given to what happens in the actual administration of the program in terms of satisfying specific needs of the learners.

Qualitative versus Quantitative Methods

Given the phenomenological nature of the data sought in this study, it was determined that the most appropriate means of gathering, analyzing, and presenting the data would be through the application of qualitative rather than quantitative research methods. Before delineating in detail the data collection and analysis plan used in the project, it might be helpful to offer additional justification for employing a qualitative approach to the subject since the notion of research is virtually synonymous, in the minds of many, with a scientific, detached, objective, analytical, and quantitative investigation into a problem.

As a first step in establishing the validity and utility of employing a qualitative methodology in a research project of this type, it will be helpful to highlight some of the essential differences found in qualitative and quantitative research methods. The classical model or paradigm for conducting research in many disciplines is a quantitative

methodology. Quantitative techniques are firmly grounded in a conceptual framework that stresses the need for the researcher to collect empirical data, run correlation studies, and report findings that are statistically significant. Strong emphasis is placed on precise definitions, objective data collection techniques, systematic procedures for analyzing the data, and findings that are replicable. Quantitative methodology also underscores the importance of accurate measurement, reliability, and validity as indispensable attributes of serious research in the quest for truth and understanding.

While the quantitative approach serves as the predominant research model in many disciplines, particularly in the physical and exact sciences, it should be noted that the use of qualitative methods for conducting research in the human sciences has a long and respected history. Qualitative analysis, which aims at a holistic understanding of social phenomena, has been used extensively in psychology, history, anthropology, political science, religion, sociology, and other humanistic disciplines.

The fundamental difference between a quantitative and a qualitative approach to research can perhaps best be por-

trayed as the difference between a 'rationalistic' and a 'naturalistic' approach to truth and understanding. A detailed comparison of the two methodologies suggests that they represent complementary rather than conflicting modes of understanding. If the notion of complete understanding reflects an integration of conceptual and experiential knowledge and a balance between objective and subjective knowledge, as appears to be the case, then it is to be expected that there be at least two different approaches to research design. In practice, this means that experimental control designs that employ quantitative measurements and hypothetico-deductive reasoning need to be balanced by heuristic designs involving qualitative measurements and holistic-inductive reasoning. Naturalistic inquiry, in marked contrast to rationalistic inquiry, seeks to understand social phenomena in holistic terms. It represents a discovery-oriented approach to truth and understanding, an approach free of the control systems associated with experimental research projects.

Qualitative analysis aims at understanding the world as directly experienced and perceived by the human subjects being studied. Attention is focused on people, events, situations, behaviors, feelings, and social interactions as they

occur in their natural settings. Naturalistic inquiry seeks to gain new insights into the inner dynamics of social phenomena by adopting a subjective rather than an objective perspective. Research findings are generally presented in the format of a case study narrative rather than in the format of statistically-grounded reports.

Another significant difference between the two approaches lies in the fact that naturalistic inquiry seeks meaning rather than measurement. One of the salient features of qualitative approach is a strong emphasis on inductive reasoning. Qualitative analysis attempts to make sense of the data collected entirely from within, without imposing any preconceived expectations on the results. It seeks to uncover categories, patterns, and themes which help to explain a given phenomenon from an internal perspective. Qualitative methodology employs a 'grounded theory' approach to understanding. The principal of grounded theory states that any theoretical statements or empirical generalizations made regarding the results of a research project must be grounded solely in the nature of the phenomenon being studied and not influenced by external considerations.

The two methodologies are found to be rooted in two

very different sets of epistemological assumptions. The rationalistic model, for its part, relies exclusively on objective, quantitative, and statistical methods of inquiry. The driving force behind rationalistic inquiry is either to verify or to disprove a given hypothesis, or set of hypotheses, regarding the subject under investigation. Quantitative inquiry has proven to be an indispensable research tool in the physical and exact sciences. The naturalistic model, on the other hand, relies on the collection of subjective, qualitative, and impressionistic data as a means of arriving at an understanding of complex social phenomena. The driving force behind naturalistic inquiry is to gain insight into the inner dynamics of a social event from the perspective of the participants in the event. This mode of inquiry has proven to be a valuable tool for gaining new insights in the social sciences and in the humanities.

In commenting on the epistemological principles underlying the qualitative approach, Filstead notes;

Qualitative methods are based on the premise that social reality is the shared creativity of individuals. Consequently, one needs to develop data gathering techniques which tap the perspectives of participants engaged in social interaction. In doing so, one develops a sense of the meaning of events grounded in the realities and considerations which shape them. Evaluators as well as policy makers are realizing, more than ever before, that the 'natural science' model of qualifica-

tion lacks the ability to tap the contextual understandings about the processes and structures involved in social interventions. The turning to qualitative methods or to multiple methods which provide the contextual grounding to the 'hard data' has been employed in a wide array of substantive areas.⁴

Patton, another leading commentator on the use of qualitative methodology in designing and carrying out research projects, writes:

Qualitative measurement has to do with the kinds of data or information that are collected. Qualitative data consist of detailed descriptions of situations, events, people, interactions, and observed behaviors; direct quotations from people about their experiences, attitudes, beliefs, and thoughts; and excerpts or entire passages from documents, correspondence, records and case histories. The detailed descriptions, direct quotations, and case documentation of qualitative measurement are raw data from the empirical world. The data are collected as open-ended narrative without attempting to fit program activities or people's experiences into predetermined, standardized categories such as the response choices that comprise typical questionnaires or texts.⁵

A comprehensive delineation of the distinctive character of naturalistic inquiry is offered by Guba and Lincoln

⁴Filstead, W.J. (1981). Using qualitative methods in evaluation research: An illustrative bibliography. Evaluation Review, (April), p. 260.

⁵Patton, M.Q. Qualitative evaluation methods. Beverly Hills, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc. 1983, p. 22. Italics in original.

who highlight five facets of a qualitative approach to research:

Reality, as it is lived by the subjects of research is not fragmentable into variables and processes, but is rather experienced holistically and mediated heavily by values, attitudes, beliefs, and the meanings which persons ascribe to their experiences, and as a result, inquirers must approach human subjects and human phenomena holistically rather than in piecemeal fashion; Inquirer and subject invariably interact; it is not possible to maintain a discrete and inviolable distance between the inquirer and the subjects of the research; and the appropriate response of inquirers to this natural and unavoidable interactivity is to both 'track' it and exploit the insights it lends by becoming 'smarter' instruments themselves;

Truth statements expressed as generalizations---enduring, context-free laws, particularly about human behavior---are not possible except in the hard sciences, and human behavior, bounded as it is by time and context, is best described by means of 'working hypotheses,' temporary assertions about context-specific situations;

The search for direct, highly 'tied' and systematic cause-effect relationships in human affairs is of little utility when human beings are caught up to interactive webs and patterns of factors, events, processes, and ascribed meanings, so that it is more important to search for factor patternings than for 'if-then' casual chains;

And finally, inquiry is always value bound and is never in the social sciences (and rarely in the physical sciences) value free, rather the choice of a problem, a substantive theory and procedures to guide collection and analysis of the data, and the context in which to conduct the research are all arenas where values enter into the empirical inquiry. Along these assumptions, we have argued, there can be no compromise between paradigms. The inquirer must choose one set of assumptions (axioms) or other to undergird his or her in-

quiry.⁶

Qualitative analysis has been proven to be particularly well-suited to conducting the type of process evaluation attempted in this study. One reason why it is appropriate for conducting this type of an investigation is that program processes are usually sufficiently complex and interdependent that they can rarely be sufficiently represented along a set of one-dimensional quantitative scales. The data surfaced as a result of naturalistic inquiry provide decision-makers and information-users in an organization with an understanding of how a given program actually functions on a day-to-day basis, why it functions as it does, and what impact the process has on those involved.

The Roots of Naturalistic Inquiry

While the use of qualitative methods as a valid research tool has long been recognized in humanistic disciplines their extension into the domain of program evaluation

⁶Guba, E.G. & Lincoln, Y.S. (1982). Epistemological and methodological bases of naturalistic inquiry. Educational Communication and Technology Journal, (Winter), pp. 249-150.

tion is relatively new and not without controversy. Some additional justification for employing a qualitative approach to projects of this type can be found in tracing the intellectual history of naturalistic inquiry back to its 19th century roots.

First, however, it is important to note that qualitative methodology was not originally devised as a means of overcoming certain deficiencies of the rationalistic paradigm. Rather, as seen earlier, both paradigms have a validity and utility of their own; each is grounded in a different set of epistemological principles. The two models stem from very different ways of attempting to understand the world. Each represents a different kind of knowing.

A strong statement of the priority value of naturalistic inquiry is offered by Guba and Lincoln who claim:

As we shall demonstrate, the motivation for considering naturalistic inquiry as an alternative paradigm to rationalism is not founded simply on the desire to avoid the shortfalls of that latter model. Naturalistic inquiry has many characteristics to recommend it on other grounds. For example, it offers a contextual relevance and richness unmatched by any other paradigm. It dis-

plays a sensitivity to process virtually excluded in paradigms stressing control and experimentation. It is driven by theory grounded in the data; the naturalist does not search for data that fits his or her theory but develops a theory to explain the data. Finally, naturalistic approaches take full advantage of the not inconsiderable power of the human-as-instrument, providing a more than adequate trade-off for the presumably more 'objective' approach that characterizes rationalistic inquiry.⁷

It is a gross oversimplification, it should be noted, to equate quantitative methods with objectivity and qualitative methods with subjectivity. Figure 1 (after Scriven, 1972) illustrates the proper relationship among the four terms:

⁷Guba, E.G. & Lincoln, Y.S. p. 235.

	SUBJECTIVE	OBJECTIVE
QUANTITATIVE	What an individual experiences (n = 1)	What a number of individuals experience (n > 1)
QUALITATIVE	Unreliable, biased, a matter of opinion	Reliable, factual, confirmable

Figure 1

One of the hallmarks of naturalistic inquiry is its heuristic character. While the rationalistic model seeks to determine the causes and measure the consequences of social phenomena, naturalistic inquiry aims at surfacing new insights into their inner nature. Qualitative analysis emphasizes the value of impressionistic data and the need for the researcher to view social phenomena from the frame of reference used the subjects being studied.

In terms of its epistemology, the naturalistic paradigm has deep roots in two closely related movements in 19th cen-

tury German philosophy. The first of these movements, generally referred to in the literature as the verstehen tradition, developed the idea that human beings can be understood in a manner that other objects of study and investigation cannot.⁸ People set goals and objectives for themselves; they experience a wide range of emotions; they adopt different perspectives for viewing the world around them; they establish value systems. The world they experience has meaning for them. Due to these added dimensions, human beings can be understood in a manner other than that used to understand purely natural phenomena.

The verstehen approach to research emphasized a mode of understanding that focused on meaning, context, and an empathetic response on the part of the researcher. It involved the extensive use of detailed descriptions, introspection, and reflection on the part of the subjects being studied. The verstehen method relied on the careful observation of behavior as a means of penetrating beyond the surface characteristics of social phenomena and gaining deeper insights into their inner nature. It sought understanding

⁸Patton, M.Q. (1983). Qualitative evaluation methods. Beverly Hills, CA: SAGE Publications Inc. pp. 44 ff.

rather than factual information, emphasizing the importance of perspective, value, meaning, and intelligibility in investigating social events. One of the cardinal principles of the verstehen tradition was that it is necessary to focus on context and insight if one is to understand human activity completely.

One of the leading strategists within the verstehen tradition was Wilhelm Dilthey, a German philosopher of the late 19th and early 20th century. Dilthey's chief contribution to intellectual inquiry, it is generally acknowledged, was the development of a distinctive methodology for conducting research in the area of humanistic studies, a methodology set forth in his Einleitung in die Geisteswissenschaften published in 1983. Reacting strongly to the pervasive influence of the methodology of the physical sciences in research design, Dilthey advanced the view that human science constitutes a unique form of inquiry because it deals with subjective meaning as well as objective facts. He stressed the importance of Erleben (experience) in deriving meaning from a given social event.

In the end, Dilthey developed a philosophy of understanding that perceived man in his essential historicity,

that is, in terms of his radical contingency and changeability, his treatment of history from an essentially cultural perspective, it should be pointed out, has had a strong influence on the study of the humanities, particularly the study of literature.

The second movement which served to lay the epistemological groundwork for the naturalistic paradigm was Edmund Husserl's phenomenology. Husserl, an Austrian-born German philosopher, was firmly convinced that Dilthey's doctrine of *Weltanschauung* (world view) as a fundamental frame of reference for determining meaning was incapable of achieving the rigor required for a truly scientific approach to knowledge and understanding. Consequently he set out to establish a new method for acquiring a truly scientific knowledge of facts, a methodology which he termed "phenomenological inquiry."⁹ The primary objective of intellectual inquiry, he argued, are pure data uncontaminated by scientific assumptions or metaphysical theories.

The term 'phenomenology,' as it is used today, refers

⁹Husserl, E. (1913). Ideen zu einer reinen Phänomenologie und phänomenologischen Philosophie.

to the philosophical tradition started by Husserl and carried on by those who share his conviction that the primary objective of understanding is the direct investigation into phenomena (phainesthi, to appear) as consciously experienced, without theories about their causal explanation and as free as possible from unexamined preconceptions and presuppositions. The ultimate aim of phenomenological inquiry, in other words, is a scientific knowledge of essential structures.

Phenomenology attempts to understand human behavior from the subject's own frame of reference. Primary emphasis is placed on the immediacy of the experience. Every effort is made to isolate it from all assumptions of existence or causal influence and to lay bare its actual intrinsic nature. Phenomenological analysis, in other words, is grounded in a descriptive account of the essential structure of the directly given.

A review of the *verstehen* and the phenomenological intellectual traditions, therefore, shows clearly that the naturalistic paradigm has long been used to guide research projects involving a study of man and his world. Thus, while the application of qualitative methods to program eval-

uation is relatively new, the naturalistic model used to guide the process is part of a respected intellectual tradition.

Finally, strong support for extending the methodology of naturalistic inquiry into the domain of program evaluation, as Robert House points out, is to be found in the recent endorsement of the use of qualitative methods in this arena by Cronback and Campbell, two highly respected authorities in the field of experimental research design who previously served as the major spokesmen for the rationalistic paradigm.¹⁰

Research Objectives

The main objective of the study, as previously noted, was the processing of qualitative data relating to the inner dynamics of the management development process as a means of providing some meaningful answers to five unanswered questions regarding the nature and character of the management development function. The five unresolved issues centered

¹⁰House, R.H. (1977). The logic of evaluative argument. Los Angeles, CA: Center for the Study of Evaluation, UCLA, p. 18.

around the following considerations:

1. What relationship does the management development function bear to the management training and education functions?
2. Which group or groups of employees should be considered the primary target population for corporate efforts at management development?
3. Which specific competencies, judged to be essential for success in a management position, can or cannot be improved to a significant degree through formal instruction and practice?
4. Where should the locus of responsibility be assigned for managing the development process?
5. What are some of the more important personal, situational, and environmental factors that foster or hinder management development under actual field conditions?

Research Strategy

The overall approach chosen to accomplish this objective was a detailed case study investigation into the manner in which the development process operates in its natural setting and in its full context in a corporate environment.

The main thrust of the entire research effort was to use qualitative data to create a comprehensive, four-dimensional image of the inner workings of the development process as reflected in the first-hand experiences of key players in the process. The four major stakeholder groups singled out for study were HRD staff specialists, program participants, program graduates, and immediate supervisors of program participants. By canvassing subjects in each of these four constituencies, it seemed, it would be possible to gather information that would illuminate the process from within and from four different vantage points.

Members of the HRD staff group, charged with the responsibility for determining corporate policy and overseeing efforts at management development, would be in a position to comment on how the development process operates across the entire company. Members of the supervisory group, considered by most to play an extremely critical role in the development process, would be in a position to reflect departmental priorities and comment on day-to-day involvement in the process. Members of the participant group, presumably the least experienced of all in the development process, would be in a position to offer a novice's view of the process. And finally, members of the graduate group would

be in a position to comment on the process from a time-lapse point of view.

Relevant Data

The data required to complete this project fell into two categories---primary and secondary data. Primary data included the first-hand experiences, reactions, reflections, and impressions of some of the key players in the management development process, those most directly involved in the process as it actually occurs under field conditions in a large corporate setting. Specific topical areas explored with subjects in the four major stakeholder groups included the following:

- o The essential nature of the management development function and its relationship to management training and education
- o The role played by the boss-subordinate relationship in the process
- o The role played by peer interactions in the process
- o Important personal, situational, and environmental factors that serve to help or hinder the process
- o Benefits to be derived from participation in a formal program as opposed to an informal arrange-

- ment between boss and subordinate
- o The primary locus of responsibility for managing the process
 - o Specific management competencies that can or cannot be significantly improved by means of formal instruction and practice
 - o The primary target population for corporate efforts at management development
 - o Specific program strengths and weaknesses
 - o Critical incident examples of extraordinary success or failure with respect to efforts at management development

The secondary data included such items as background information on the different programs offered, program components, and previous program evaluation studies. More specifically, the data included:

- o Corporate policy and practice with respect to the management development function
- o Program objectives and rationale
- o Program contents
- o Selection criteria
- o Tracking mechanisms
- o Previous evaluation results

Data Sources

To collect the primary data sought, a decision was made to canvass between 12 and 15 subjects in each of the four major stakeholder groups in order to obtain a reliable and representative sample. In the end, a total of 53 subjects were interviewed, a relatively high number for a qualitative study.

With the exception of the HRD staff specialist group, the selection process was conditioned by a number of variables that limited and restricted choices. In the case of the HRD staff specialists, the entire team responsible for corporate policy and practice with regard to the management development function, from the Assistant Vice President-Human Resources to the program administrators, was interviewed. In the case of the program graduate group it was difficult to find a large pool of potential subjects due to the relatively small number of candidates enrolled in the earlier programs and a poor record-keeping system. Finally, in the case of both the program participant group and the immediate supervisor group, the number of potential subjects was limited by the fact that, as a result of divestiture, fewer people were being promoted into management positions

and there were fewer new college hires being recruited.

Another set of considerations that influenced the selection process included the goal of achieving a mix of disciplines and the need to impose a limit on travel while gathering the data. In the end, a good blend of disciplines was achieved, and with a few exceptions, the interviews were conducted at the work locations of the subjects within a fifty mile radius of metropolitan Boston.

The tactic used in approaching potential subjects in the HRD group and the graduate group was a face-to-face meeting to enlist their cooperation in the project or a phone call in two or three cases.

The main tactic used to solicit the participation of subjects in the program participant group and the immediate supervisor group was only slightly different. All new entrants into the programs were scheduled to attend a day-long joint planning meeting with their bosses at the Corporate Learning Center in Marlboro, Massachusetts at some time during their first few months in the program. During these sessions, a personal meeting was arranged with pairs that met the departmental and geographical requirements noted

above and both members of the team were asked to participate in the study. Without exception, every single person invited to participate demonstrated a willingness to be interviewed at his or her work location.

Figure 2 on the following page provides a group profile of the number of subjects interviewed in the study and their departmental affiliation. Additional demographic and background information on each group will be provided in the next chapter.

I <u>HRD GROUP</u>		II <u>GRADUATE GROUP</u>	
AVP-Human Resources	1	Engineering	6
Div. Mgr.-Development	1	Instal./Maint.	3
Dist. Mgr.-Development	1	Operator Svcs.	1
Mgr.-Development	9	Information Svcs.	1
		Accounting	1
7 Males		9 Males	
5 Females		3 Females	
III <u>PARTICIPANT GROUP</u>		IV <u>SUPERVISOR GROUP</u>	
Accounting	3	Accounting	3
Information Sys.	3	Information Sys.	3
Marketing	2	Marketing	2
Bus. Marketing	2	Bus. Marketing	2
Revenue Matters	2	Revenue Matters	2
Network	1	Network	1
Real Estate	1	Real Estate	1
Personnel	1		
4 Males		9 Males	
11 Females		5 Females	

Figure 2

Secondary sources used in the data collection process included published corporate policy statements regarding the management development function, company brochures explaining the programs, program materials, and internal evaluation reports.

Data Collection Techniques

The data was collected over a three month period using three widely accepted qualitative analysis techniques. Content analysis techniques were used to extract pertinent information from documentation available within the company regarding corporate policy and practice and the findings of previous program evaluation studies. Field observations were conducted to observe first-hand the administration of various program activities and the immediate work environment of those who participated in the study. However, the primary data gathering technique used in the process was semi-structured, in-depth personal interviews with subjects in each of the four stakeholder groups.

The interviews, which took an average of 75 minutes to complete, were conducted using an interview guide. The questions contained in the guide were based on the five unresolved issues surrounding the nature and character of the development function formulated in the original problem statement. Two slightly different versions were used in the process. The one used with the participant group and the graduate group contained an additional question regarding personal expectations (see Appendix A and B). Both versions

were developmentally tested and refined at the outset.

A conscious decision was made not to employ a tape recorder during the interview sessions. In the opinion of this researcher, while there are times that a tape recorder should be used to collect data, a skilled interviewer with highly developed listening skills and an effective shorthand method for transcribing information, is generally able to capture the verbatim responses of subjects without having to rely on a back-up recording system.

Data Summary and Analysis

Once the data collection process had been completed, the results were summarized and analyzed using the thematic outline of the interview guide. A matrix was then constructed for each of the four groups, matching the responses of individual subjects to the same question. This format for viewing the data provided a useful framework for identifying patterns and themes in the various responses and for determining areas of strong convergence or divergence.

A second matrix was then created, matching the responses of subjects across all four groups against each of

the questions asked. This technique allowed for a detailed inter-group comparison on any given question.

Data Presentation Format

The results of the study are presented in chapter five. The format used in presenting the findings is identical to that used in summarizing and analyzing the data, namely the thematic outline contained in the interview guide. The topical sequence used in reporting the findings will follow the order in which the questions were asked in the interview.

C H A P T E R I V

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

In keeping with the basic principles of case study methodology, the approach taken to presenting the findings of this research effort is both descriptive and analytic. On the descriptive or phenomenological side, the main thrust of this chapter is to project a four-dimensional, stereoscopic image of the manner in which the management development process actually operates in a large corporate setting, an image grounded in the reflections of 53 individuals intimately involved in the process on a day-to-day basis. On the analytic or inductive side, an attempt is made to penetrate beyond the surface data to discern meaningful patterns and themes in the information as a means of gaining some insight into the inner dynamics of the management development process as it operates under field conditions. An attempt is also made to explore some of the implications of these findings in terms of corporate policy and practice with regard to the management of the development function.

The analysis was conducted following the guidelines set forth in a cardinal rule of qualitative analysis, namely the

principle of "grounded theory." As noted earlier, naturalistic inquiry is firmly rooted in the conviction that any meaning derived from an analysis of the data must be grounded solely on internal considerations. All meaning, therefore, must arise from within and cannot be imposed from without.

The results of the study are presented in three parts. The first part contains a group profile of the subjects in each of the four constituency groups canvassed. These group profiles furnish important demographic and background information needed to interpret some of the responses made to questions contained in the interview guide. The second part offers a brief overview of the various management development programs sponsored by the company in question over the past two and one half decades. This short historical sketch provides important background information for understanding both the responses of subjects in the study and corporate efforts, past and present, at management development within the company.

Part three contains two segments. The first segment contains the results of detailed intra-group and inter-group comparisons of the various responses given to each of the

questions asked during the interviews. The categories used to summarize and analyze the data are based on the themes or topical areas explored in the interview sessions. The specific dimensions of the management development process addressed include:

1. The essential difference between management development and management training
2. The role played by the boss-subordinate relationship
3. The role played by peer interactions
4. The identification of critical personal, situational, and environmental factors influencing the outcomes of efforts at management development
5. Specific benefits to be derived from formal program versus informal arrangements
6. The ultimate locus of responsibility for managing the development process
7. Particular managerial skills that either can or cannot be significantly improved through instruction and practice
8. The identification of the primary target population of corporate efforts at management development
9. Perceived strengths and weaknesses of current programs
10. Examples of extraordinary success or failure in the sphere of management development
11. Personal expectations of program outcomes
12. Additional insights into the nature and character of the development process

The second segment in part three deals with some of the implications the findings have for corporate decision-makers and information-users. The findings and implications for each of the twelve dimensions explored in the study are presented in thematic fashion under each of the twelve topic headings.

PART ONE: GROUP PROFILES

HRD Staff Specialists

Twelve subjects were surveyed in the HRD staff specialist group. Included in the sample were the Assistant Vice President-Human Resources, the Division Manager-Development, the District Manager-Development, and 9 staff managers. Taken collectively, the members of this group constituted the entire management team responsible for setting corporate policy and practice with regard to efforts at initial management development across the entire company over the past two or three years. It should be noted in passing that, six months before this research project was undertaken, the name of the department within which all of these subjects work was changed from the Personnel Department to the Human Resources Department to convey a more enlightened approach to

the personnel function. Figure 3 provides a breakdown, by level, of those canvassed in the study.

HRD STAFF SPECIALIST GROUP	
Assistant Vice President	1
Division Manager	1
District Manager	1
Staff Managers	9

Figure 3

The level of formal education among the 7 males and 5 females in the sample proved to be well above average. All were college graduates. More than one half of the group members also held advanced degrees; one held a doctorate in adult education, three held a master's degree in human resource development, and two possessed an M.B.A. degree.

All but two of the group members had previously worked in other departments within the company. Each indicated that he or she wished to be viewed as a competent and dedicated professional working for an organization that is striving to be on the leading edge of corporate human resource development and human resource management.

The interviews with the members of this group proved to be very easy to conduct. Each of the subjects was extremely cooperative and provided reflective, articulate responses to the questions asked. Each also indicated a strong interest in the findings of the study and asked to be informed of the results.

The views of the members of this particular group were of special relevance to the research objectives of the study in at least two ways. On the one hand, those surveyed were in a position to provide insights into the inner dynamics of the development process from a professional point of view. On the other hand, they were also in a unique position to comment on company-wide, rather than departmentally-specific, efforts at management development.

Immediate Supervisors

Fourteen subjects were interviewed in the immediate supervisor group. The sample selected provided a representative cross-section of those departments that were promoting from within at that time or recruiting new college hires in relatively large numbers. One of the immediate effects of divestiture on Regional Bell Operating Companies, it should

be noted, was the need to reduce the work force as a means of projecting a cost-competitive image and improving earnings. As a result, most departments ordered a freeze on promotions and new hires. A few departments, however, which were considered to be in a growth stage in the new environment, departments such as the Information Services Organization and Business Marketing, were authorized to continue to promote from within and recruit new college graduates. Figure 4 shows a breakdown of the various disciplines or departments represented in the sample of 9 male and 5 female supervisors surveyed.

SUPERVISORY GROUP	
Accounting	3
Information Systems	3
Marketing	2
Business Marketing	2
Revenue Matters	2
Network	1
Real Estate	1

Figure 4

The majority of those selected had some previous experience with developing new managers. Only two of the subjects in this group indicated that they were responsible for the direct supervision of management trainees for the first

time. Two of the veteran developers, moreover, had been enrolled in a management development program themselves earlier in their careers and therefore had first hand experience with the process on two different levels.

As in the case of the HRD staff specialist group, the immediate supervisors chosen in the sample proved to be extremely cooperative, reflective, and articulate in responding to questions regarding various facets of the management development process. The views of the subjects in this group were of particular value for this study for two reasons. First, they were in a position to comment on departmental values, priorities, and practices in regard to efforts at management development. Second, their views were of particular importance to this study due to the critical role played by the immediate supervisor in the development process. It is generally acknowledged by professionals and laymen alike that the immediate boss has a determining influence on the outcomes of efforts at management development. Consequently, the opinions of the subjects in this group were of particular relevance in gaining some new insights into the process as it actually operates under field conditions.

Program Participants

Fifteen subjects in the program participant group were interviewed in the study. All but two were enrolled in more than one management development program sponsored by the company. Eleven members of this group were new college hires; the remainder were veteran employees with a high school diploma who had been promoted into a management position for the first time. Two-thirds of the subjects were females, a ratio that clearly reflects the company's strong commitment to affirmative action in recent years.

Figure 5 provides a breakdown of the various industry disciplines represented in the sample. With the exception of the addition of a subject from the Personnel Department, it should be noted, the number of subjects from each organization matches that of the immediate supervisor group sample. This is due to the fact that the data collection plan called for canvassing boss-subordinate pairs whenever possible in order to cut down on the amount of travel needed to gather the data.

PARTICIPANT GROUP	
Accounting	3
Information Systems	3
Marketing	2
Business Marketing	2
Revenue Matters	2
Network	1
Real Estate	1
Personnel	1

Figure 5

Experience with formal management development activities on the part of the program participants ranged from four to six months. All of the subjects in this group had received some degree of technical and administrative training during that period but only two had been exposed to any generic management training.

Two common traits were found in virtually every one of the members of this group. Each was very much concerned with making a very good showing on his or her first management job. Each also expressed the need to compare his/her experiences with others in a similar position within the company.

The views of program participants or management trainees

were of special relevance to the study because they were in a position to offer a novice perspective on the development process. Of all of the stakeholder groups, program participants, it can be generally assumed, start out with the least amount of knowledge about the process.

Program Graduates

The sample included twelve veteran managers who had been management trainees when they first joined the company. Nine of the subjects in this group had participated in development programs specifically designed to facilitate the movement of high-potential management candidates within the corporate hierarchy. The other three had been enrolled in intensive development programs designed to facilitate the transition of new managers into non-traditional areas, such as females moving into construction or engineering. Two of the nine high potential candidates had reached third or district level in the company hierarchy when the study was conducted; the other seven held second level positions.

The ratio of males to females in this group sample was three-to-one, a figure that reflects earlier AT&T policy and practice with respect to management development activities

when females were excluded from consideration as management trainees. It was not until 1973, as a result of the signing of a consent decree by AT&T, that Bell Operating Companies established affirmative action goals and strategies in the area of management development.

The views of program graduates were of particular interest in this study because they were in a position to provide an important time-perspective on the development process. It had been more than ten years since any of the individuals in this group had participated in a formal management development program. Those interviewed, therefore, were in a position to comment on what their initial expectations were and the degree to which these expectations were realized or not over time.

Figure 6 provides a breakdown of the departments or disciplines represented in the sample.

GRADUATE GROUP	
Engineering	6
Installation/Maintenance	3
Operator Services	1
Information Systems	1
Accounting	1

Figure 6

PART TWO: CORPORATE EFFORTS AT DEVELOPMENT

The primary objective in undertaking this research project, as noted earlier, was not to evaluate the effectiveness of past or current management development programs sponsored by the company in question. Rather, it was to identify internal and external conditions which shape the outcomes of corporate efforts at management development. The following historical overview of six formal management development programs sponsored by the Regional Bell Operating Company chosen as the locus for studying the development process is designed to serve a two-fold purpose. First, it provides a capsule view of efforts at management development within the company over the past three decades. Second, it furnishes background information necessary for understanding some of the references made by the subjects in responding to

some of the questions contained in the interview guide.

Junior Executive Training (JET)

The Junior Executive Training program was a prototype management development program developed by AT&T and used in a number of Bell Operating Companies prior to 1962 when the first definitive management development program was introduced across the entire Bell System. The JET program was designed to provide high-potential new college hires with a fast track to a second level management position in the management hierarchy after a year of participating in a set of structured development activities such as rotational assignments to different departments and coaching by a seasoned manager.

Initial Management Development Program (IMDP)

In 1962 AT&T introduced the Initial Management Development Program to the Bell System. This program was designed to accelerate the movement of high-potential new college hires into middle management positions. After a one year trial period during which the trainees were assigned a number of first and second level management jobs at AT&T, in one

of the Operating Companies, in Western Electric, or in Bell Labs, successful candidates were guaranteed a second level position; unsuccessful candidates were terminated. It was expected that successful candidates would advance to third or fourth level within five to ten years. This particular program, which was restricted to male candidates, was used extensively throughout the Bell System until 1973 when AT&T agreed to abolish sexual discrimination in placing and developing management trainees.

First Management Job (FMJ)

In 1973 the company serving as the focal point for this case study introduced a new development program, grounded in a highly structured management-by-objectives approach to the process. This new program, entitled First Management Job, replaced the Initial Management Development Program. In marked contrast to earlier programs, FMJ was open to all new management people, including all new college hires and those promoted from within into a management position for the first time. This program was still in operation when the study was conducted.

Intensive Development Program (IDP)

In the mid-70s the company introduced an accelerated management development program designed to facilitate the transition to supervisory positions in non-traditional fields. This new Intensive Development Program, as it was called, was intended to provide new supervisors in new fields with the technical, administrative, and supervisory skills needed to handle these management assignments in a compressed period of time. In addition to intensive classroom training, candidates receive coaching from experienced managers in the field. This program was still operational when the study was conducted but only on a very small scale.

General Management Candidates Program (GMC)

Another company-initiated management development program was the General Management Candidates Program introduced in 1979. This program aimed at identifying a pool of promotable people made up of high-potential first and second level managers. This experiment, which lasted only three years, relied heavily on quarterly performance appraisals and feedback reports to higher management in the candidate's department. Although participant feedback tended to be

strongly positive, the program was dropped because some department heads felt that it was not meeting their needs.

Initial Corporate Development Program (ICDP)

The most recent corporate management development program, introduced in 1983, is a two-track program available to all new management hires and those promoted from within into a management position. The track A version of the program is geared for new managers with no supervisory responsibilities. The general objective of this track, as stated in the brochure describing the program, is to develop the best possible management employees. This track, which is followed by about 90% of new managers in the company, involves orientation sessions, relevant job training, meetings with corporate officers, periodic performance feedback, and experience-sharing sessions.

The track B version of the program was designed to foster the development of the special skills needed by first level supervisors to manage job results effectively and interact with reporting people. In addition to participating in the same developmental activities contained in the track A version, management trainees in track B receive additional

training in supervisory skill-building and problem-solving.

PART THREE: FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

The results of the study will be presented using the same topical headings or categories employed in the interview guide during the data gathering phase of the project. The findings derive from detailed inter-group and intra-group comparisons of the various responses made by individual subjects to the same question.

The analysis, as noted earlier, is heavily weighted toward the qualitative rather than the quantitative side. It focuses more on anecdotal data than statistical data. The primary goal of the study is to gain some new insights into the inner dynamics of the management development process as it operates under actual field conditions in a large corporate setting. The main thrust of the analysis, therefore, is the identification of areas of strong convergence or divergence of opinion, novel or unique perceptions, or other qualitative information that sheds light on the underlying nature and character of the management development function, in a holistic way. Percentages, ratios, and other numerical indicators used in reporting the findings are in-

tended to convey orders of magnitude rather than statistically significant figures.

Management Development versus Management Training

With one or two exceptions, those interviewed in the study indicated that it is possible to draw certain gross, meaningful distinctions between management development and management training. Indeed, a central theme orchestrated in the comments of the vast majority of those surveyed is the notion that these two functions bear an essentially bipolar relation to each other. The predominant image reflected in the language used to describe the outcomes of these two forms of adult learning is that of a continuum with training positioned at one end and development at the opposite end.

Management training, most subjects indicated, is generally understood in terms of formal, structured learning activities usually conducted in a classroom setting. One of the distinguishing features of this particular form of adult learning is a narrow emphasis on the acquisition of certain technical and administrative skills needed to succeed in a

given management job. The training function is identified with formal course offerings, seminars, conferences, and other structured learning activities designed to improve an individual's ability to handle the responsibilities associated with a particular management position. However, a number of subjects, especially in the HRD staff specialist group, stressed the fact that management training, by its very nature, should aim at providing basic management skills in addition to technical and administrative skills.

The concept of management development, it was generally agreed among the subjects in all four stakeholder groups, is much broader and more comprehensive. The management development process represents an overall approach to improve the manner in which management assignments are handled, with a strong emphasis on enhancing one's ability to advance within the management hierarchy.

In the opinion of the majority, the learning outcomes associated with the management development process represent a long-term type of adult learning that is generic in nature and broad in perspective. Management development aims at improving and refining competencies judged to be essential for success in any management position. While the develop-

ment process often includes elements of management training, it seeks to accomplish more than is possible through training alone. Management development aims at improving decision-making, leadership, and other managerial skills through the use of coaching, special projects, developmental performance reviews, rotational assignments, and other developmental activities. It aims at preparing an individual to perform well on a variety of assignments involving increasing degrees of management responsibility.

Figure 7 highlights the essentially bi-polar character of the learning outcomes and strategies associated with the training and development functions as reflected in the language used by the subjects in the study to describe the fundamental differences between the two functions.

MANAGEMENT TRAINING	MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT
o Narrow focus	o Broad focus
o Information-based	o Process-based
o Short-term objectives	o Long-term objectives
o Theoretical	o Practical
o Cognitive learning	o Experiential learning
o Learning about a job	o Doing a job
o Job-specific skills	o Generic management skills

Figure 7

Fully one half of the HRD staff specialists cautioned against viewing these fundamental differences as grounds for divorcing the two functions. The management training function, they argued, bears a special relation to the management development process. Indeed, it plays a critical role in the development process. In addition to improving the technical and administrative skills needed to be successful in a given management position, it lays the groundwork for engaging in a set of formal management development activities. It furnishes the basic tools needed to begin to operate in a context wider than the immediate job. Management training aims at establishing a managerial mind-set and developing the basic thought patterns of management, such as defining the job, establishing priorities, setting objectives, selecting strategies, and devising action plans. One of its primary objectives is to underscore the fact that being a manager involves much more than merely giving orders to subordinates.

In marked contrast to this view of the relationship between the two functions, the primary architect of the two-track management development program most recently introduced into the company saw training as playing a very minor role in the development process. In responding to the ques-

tion, he commented:

Training, in my mind, is a small component of management development. Development is a thing that happens to people which tends to be an inherently self-directed and self-initiated process. It has to do with learning and life experiences. Training, on the other hand, is not involved with learning. Learning has to do with what is important to a person. It has to do with what helped you most in your personal life, your job, your hobby, and so forth. Learning is how you get developed. Very seldom do people say 'I took a course to learn something.' The training mythology is that one trains to develop. But training is the smallest entry into the process. It helps one to think about the process, but it doesn't really provide the skills and knowledge. Development, in the operational sense, is a process or a program which enables people, in a structured and systematic way, to learn from experience. Training is involved only in a small sense---a very small sense. The real key is experience and involvement, not training.

A somewhat similar view of the nature of the development process was expressed by one of the program participants who stated:

Training means being trained for a specific job that carries a management title. It leaves no room for progress. Development gets into putting things into an educational perspective. It carries that implication. It is multi-dimensional. It means growth---professionally, personally, emotionally. It means growth as a thinker and as a decision-maker.

More than one quarter of the program participants called attention to the 'rite-of-passage' character of formal management development programs for the new management

person. Formal programs of this type serve to facilitate the difficult transition from a student to a corporate culture. They expose the new college recruit to a different set of values, a different set of behavioral assumptions, and different ways of setting priorities. Corporate development programs prepare new college hires to function in the business world by clarifying job expectations and exposing them to the philosophy and management style of the corporation that recruited them.

Three members of the immediate supervisor group noted the 'rite-of-passage' character of the development process and went on to stress the deeply internal nature of the outcomes of the process. The formative years in a management position, they pointed out, represent a period of maturation and growth as a management person. In stressing the deeply internal character of the development process, one subject observed:

Development, I think, has a great deal to do with self-expansion or internal expansion of the individual in addition to external expansion. Management training is always, I think, external. Development is almost a 50/50 split between what the individual does for himself and what others do for that person to help. My idea of what development is, is recognizing what people need in a growing assignment or changing environment.

A similar view regarding the idiosyncratic character of the learning outcomes of the development process was expressed by one of the program graduates who commented:

I would say that training is more an educational process of the new individual. It presents basic management techniques. It deals with such things as business writing and techniques of dealing with people. It's inculcating them with a management mind-set. Whereas management development, I don't know if you can train someone for it. It is growth as a person and as a management person. It's self-acquired. If one hasn't developed himself, he won't get much out of going to schools like the Sloan School. Development is not something you get out of a book or a class. It's judgment, savvy, and all that kind of thing that comes into play here.

Two immediate supervisors from two of the more technically-oriented departments within the company expressed some concern over the low status accorded management development activities in some quarters. In certain disciplines, such as Information Systems and Engineering, they noted, a much higher priority is often placed on the enhancement of technical competencies than on the improvement of generic management skills. Advancement in these departments, has historically depended more on technical expertise than on managerial ability. The best technician is generally selected to fill a group manager position when a vacancy occurs.

The majority of subjects in the program graduate group

indicated that, while virtually no effort was made to develop specific managerial abilities in the earlier programs, the exposure to the various company operations, such as engineering, operator services, plant, commercial and so forth provided a meaningful orientation to the telecommunications industry in general, and the Regional Bell Operating Company in particular. The strategy of placing new, high potential management candidates on brief rotational assignments in the various operating departments provided the new manager with a comprehensive understanding of the nature of the business to be managed.

A detailed analysis of the reflections of the subjects in all four stakeholder groups within the sample regarding some of the essential differences and similarities between management training and management development suggests that there are at least three ways that greater benefits could be derived from corporate efforts at management development. First, if the notion of management training includes the acquisition or enhancement of generic management abilities in addition to the development of technical and administrative skills, as many of the HRD staff specialists contend, then provision should be made for more generic management training to be included at the front-end of the management devel-

opment process. Only two of the fifteen subjects in the program participant group, as noted earlier, had completed a generic management course. Under current conditions, only those new managers with supervisory responsibilities who are enrolled in the track B version of the Initial Corporate Development Program receive skill training in such basic management competencies as leadership, decision-making, and problem solving.

If management training ultimately aims at providing the new management person with a conceptual framework for approaching management tasks and a solid grounding in the basic competencies needed to be successful in a management position, then it would seem that a generic management training curriculum should be an integral part of the design of any management development program.

Second, the data suggests that more conscious attention should be paid to the 'rite-of-passage' character of the management development process for the new college recruit. Despite a recent spate of books and articles that underscore the important role that corporate culture plays in the world of business and industry, it would appear that insufficient attention is often paid to the fact that corporate develop-

ment programs can be used as a vehicle for facilitating the transition from a student culture to a corporate culture. One way of improving the results of corporate efforts at management development would be to include this as one of the formal objectives of the program and add a seminar or two on the subject of corporate culture to the list of developmental activities.

Third, the observation that there exists a serious danger of downplaying the importance of efforts at management development in some of the more technically-oriented departments appears to warrant serious attention. If the prevailing climate in certain departments is such that a much higher value is attached to the enhancement of technical expertise, as opposed to the improvement of managerial skills as a means of advancing within the management hierarchy, then it is possible that both the corporation and individual managers will be losers in the end. The corporation, for its part, may fail to develop an adequate pool of promotable managers needed to meet management succession plans. Management trainees, on the other hand, may ultimately fail to realize their full potential if insufficient attention is paid to their development during their first few years in the business. Consequently, if the danger is real, then all

of the key players in the development process in these departments should be reminded of the critical role that efforts at management development play in determining the overall effectiveness of individual managers and the corporation as a whole.

Boss-Subordinate Relationship

Subjects in all four of the major stakeholder groups were in fundamental agreement regarding the critical role played by the boss-subordinate relationship in shaping the outcomes of the management development process. The fundamental working relationship established between a boss---especially a first boss---and a subordinate, it was pointed out, has a determining influence on the ultimate success or failure of corporate efforts at management development. The pivotal role played by this relationship was summarized by one of the HRD staff specialists in the following terms:

The boss-subordinate relationship is major, critical, fundamental. It is a very sensitive relationship. The self-perception of each determines success or failure. Dialogue around the job is required. What is needed? How is it measured? How to get there? If the subordinate feels the need to defer to the boss, he won't probe and question. There will be no real dialogue and challenge. As a consequence, there will be little clarity as to how the subordinate will be evaluated. Some subordinates don't like to tell their boss they're not skilled in some area after conducting a needs as-

essment. Therefore this limits the value of the development planning. It puts restraints on it.

If the subordinate sees himself as an equal participant and wants to be clear about things, and it's alright to say he's not skilled in some areas, then this results in a team effort, dialogue and cooperation.

The boss has the responsibility to develop people. This means coaching, providing knowledge and information, sharing expectations, explaining how the subordinate will be held accountable, and encouraging the use of resources, that is, people, documents and so forth. The boss needs to provide feedback informally---daily, quarterly, whatever. It should be positive as well as critical. It should be a problem-solving approach.

A predominant theme encountered in the comments of HRD staff specialists, immediate supervisors, and program graduates regarding the boss-subordinate relationship focuses on the multi-faceted character of the role played by the immediate supervisor in the development process. Strong emphasis was placed on the fact that the boss is expected to play a number of different roles, or wear a number of different hats, in shepherding the new management person through a wide range of developmental activities during the first critical year in a management position.

The boss' role in the development process, a number of subjects in all three groups insisted, is multi-dimensional. To be effective in this role, the immediate supervisor must see his or her responsibility as involving much more than

the handing out of work assignments and the monitoring of job performance. The boss is expected to function as guide, teacher, mentor, coach, and evaluator in working with the new manager.

One of the terms most commonly used to describe the nature of the boss' role in the development process was 'coach.' As a coach, the boss is expected to set aside time to work with the new person, despite the pressing demands of the job itself. He or she is expected to provide the new person with a job description, define areas of responsibility and accountability, and explain the boundary conditions of the job. The boss is expected to be sensitive to individual needs, to be supportive, and to help the subordinate become more secure, more confident, and more imaginative in carrying out job responsibilities.

In the judgment of one quarter of the subjects in the HRD staff specialist group, the primary role of the immediate supervisor in the development process is to serve as a positive role model for the new management person. The first boss, it was noted, plays an extremely critical role in corporate efforts at management development. In the eyes of the new management person, the first boss is the company.

The immediate boss inevitably makes a powerful impression, either positive or negative, on the new management person.

A prominent theme orchestrated in the remarks of the majority of the immediate supervisors interviewed regarding the role of the boss-subordinate relationship is the central importance of the types of assignments given to the subordinate during the first year of development. It is imperative, they insisted, that the boss provide the new manager with challenging assignments designed to promote real growth and development as a management person. These assignments should be varied, challenging, realistic, meaningful, and of such a nature that the individual is forced to stretch beyond ordinary limits in order to succeed.

Conspicuous by its absence, was the failure on the part of the subjects in the program participant group to specify the precise role played by the immediate supervisor in the development process. Without exception, all of those interviewed tended to speak in global and very general terms in commenting on the nature of the boss-subordinate relationship. Not a single program participant attempted to delineate his or her expectations regarding the role of the boss

in concrete and specific terms.

Even a cursory review of the responses of the subjects in this group to the question reveals a sharp difference of opinion regarding the overall approach of the immediate supervisor in developing the new manager. Forty percent indicated that they expected the boss to adopt a very directive approach. The underlying rationale offered for adopting this position was that the boss is experienced and in the best position to lead and direct the new person. In attempting to describe the nature of the working relationship that should exist, one program participant used a teacher-student analogy.

Slightly more than one quarter of the program participants, on the other hand, indicated that they expected the boss to adopt an essentially non-directive approach to the relationship. The immediate supervisor, they observed, should be available when needed, but should basically provide a free hand in allowing the new person to carry out his or her job responsibilities. One subject remarked:

In terms of my own boss-subordinate relationship, Bill is tremendous. I'm very fortunate. He lets me do as much as I can on my own. He's willing to let me get involved in anything I want to take a stab at. If I have problems, I can go back to him for help. The key

to development is to take the ball and run with it. If you stumble, you get up and continue. The independence factor is the key. The more you get, the more you can handle. It's a reciprocal relation.

Finally, one third of the program participants in the sample gave no clue as to what general approach they expected the boss to take to the relationship. They did state, however, that they felt the boss plays an important role in the process.

One third of the immediate supervisors and one quarter of the program graduates expressed the view that the boss should be non-directive in his or her approach to development. The boss should not be directive and controlling in dealing with the new person. What the new manager needs, they argued, is guidance rather than teaching, support rather than instruction. And the guidance should come as direction and not as answers. The boss should allow freedom and latitude in the carrying out of job responsibilities. In the words of one immediate supervisor:

The boss is the subordinate's principle link to the overall organization and for the orientation and specific work efforts of that person. There's very little contact with the next level above the immediate supervisor. The boss is the primary interface. So the boss becomes very important. He provides guidance and direction, but he should allow the subordinate freedom and latitude. He needs to allow the subordinate to ac-

tually make decisions. You need to allow the subordinate to act. At the same time, you must try not to overmanage. You don't want to impose your own preconceptions on the new person.

In commenting on the centrality of the boss-subordinate relationship to the entire management development process, 25% of the subjects in the HRD staff specialist group underscored the fact that, although the critical nature of the boss' role in the process is universally acknowledged by upper management in all departments across the entire company, boss selection and boss training remain two of the weakest links in the process. This condition exists, it was suggested, because individual departments---and not the HRD organization---exercise full control over the placement of new managers and the selection of their immediate supervisors.

In the view of the majority of HRD staff specialists, immediate supervisors, and program graduates interviewed in the study, the overall effectiveness of the role of the immediate supervisor in the development process could be improved considerably. It is unrealistic, they contended, to expect that every boss, simply by virtue of being the boss, necessarily has the interest and the ability needed to develop subordinates. One way of remedying this situation,

they suggested, is to train, measure, and reward bosses with respect to their efforts at management development. If the development of subordinates was added to the list of variables contained on the yearly performance appraisal form, then one would expect that the quality of the results of efforts at management development would improve in every department.

A detailed analysis of all of the comments made by the subjects in the study regarding the role of the boss-subordinate relationship in the management development process allows one to draw at least three important inferences. First, in stressing the centrality of the relationship to the entire process and in highlighting the determining influence that the relationship has on the ultimate success or failure of efforts at management development, the majority of subjects confirm the findings of a number of studies that underscore the critical role played by the boss-subordinate role in the process.

Second, the fact that not a single subject in the program participant group attempted to delineate the precise role of the immediate supervisor in the process underscores the importance of making those under development consciously

aware of what the corporation expects of the boss in fostering the growth and development of the new management person as a means of clarifying role expectations. The observations of subjects in the other three stakeholder groups regarding the nature and character of the boss' role appear to be valid and important. The role of the boss in the process is a multi-faceted one involving much more than handing out work assignments and monitoring job performance. The immediate supervisor is expected to function in a number of different capacities---as guide, coach, mentor, judge, and so forth---in preparing the new management person to handle current and future management assignments. The immediate supervisor is expected to serve as a role model for the person under development. He or she is also expected to provide the subordinate with meaningful, challenging, and realistic assignments intended to promote real growth and development as a management person.

A closely related issue that appears to warrant closer attention is the sharp difference of opinion among subjects in both the program participant group and the immediate supervisor group regarding a directive versus a non-directive approach to the boss-subordinate relationship. Perhaps in the final analysis, it is possible to show that the differ-

ences boil down to a question of preferred management styles and the individual needs of those under development. One way of confronting the issue directly would be to encourage dialogue around role expectation at the very outset in order to establish a mutual understanding of the relationship.

Third, given the amount of time, money, and effort spent on corporate efforts at management development, it makes good business sense to try to build in some kind of quality control over the process in terms of immediate supervisor accountability. The suggestion that the results of corporate efforts at management development could be considerably improved if bosses were trained, measured, and rewarded in the area of subordinate development appears to have merit. It is possible to cite at least two distinct advantages to adding the development of subordinates to the list of variables evaluated on the annual performance appraisal form. On the one hand, both the corporation and the individual would benefit as a result of improved efforts on the part of the boss who is a key player in the process. On the other hand, bosses would also benefit from the move. Most would be inclined to seek out ways of developing expertise in this area; they would experience a greater sense of achievement in their jobs; and they would be rewarded for

their efforts in this direction.

Peer Interactions

The majority of those interviewed in the study indicated that in their opinion peer interactions function as a powerful force shaping the outcomes of efforts at management development, a force second only to the extraordinary influence exerted by the immediate supervisor. A number of subjects called attention to the strong inclusion and exclusion forces that are operative in all human interactions including those that occur among peers in a work environment. The newcomer to the work group is driven by a strong desire to do well on his or her first management job and soon experiences the need to gain the acceptance and respect of the peer group in order to do so. It is virtually impossible, therefore, for the person under development not to come to grips with the influence of peers on his or her development as a management person. A few of the HRD staff specialists expressed the view that peer influence remains an important consideration throughout an individual's entire career. At the same time, a couple of other subjects within the same group suggested that peer influence is most powerful during the formative years in business and tends to diminish with

the passage of time and the acquisition of new competencies.

A prominent theme reflected in the comments of HRD staff specialists, immediate supervisors, and program graduates was the notion that peer interactions represent an ambivalent force. They actually function as a kind of two-edged sword, in the sense that they can serve either to help or hinder efforts at management development. On the positive side, peers are in a unique position to contribute to the growth and development of the new person by sharing knowledge and experience, providing guidance and direction, and serving as emotional support systems. On the negative side, peers are in a position to undermine and sabotage efforts at management development by being uncooperative, serving as negative role models, creating roadblocks, and engaging in harmful competition.

One subject described peer interactions in terms of sibling rivalries and love-hate relationships. Another attempted to capture the ambivalence of such encounters in the following terms:

Peer interactions run the gamut. If they are jealous or feel threatened, they will hinder the process; otherwise they will help. The stronger people feel about themselves, the more helpful they will be to the new person. The more competitive people will hinder the

process and actually create roadblocks.

While acknowledging the possible negative impact that peer interactions might have on the development process, every one of the program participants interviewed stressed the essentially positive nature of his or her experience in working with peers.

A couple of subjects in each of the four stakeholder groups emphasized the importance of viewing peer resistance more as opportunities for additional growth and development than as strong impediments to development. This negative condition provides an opportunity for growth by challenging the individual to find ways of overcoming the resistance and ultimately benefiting from what peers have to offer. As one program participant observed:

During the course of interactions with the peer group you encounter both positive and negative feedback. Part of growth, I believe, is being able to deal with negative as well as positive attitudes. It's good for the individual as a growth thing. One can develop from it professionally. Sometimes peers provide you with information you might not get from higher management because they are closer to the job. They lay the groundwork for you. If the management trainee is a seed that will grow into a plant, then, to continue the analogy, peers provide the water. You can't develop without input from your peers.

In order for the new management person to derive maximum benefit from interactions with members of the peer group, one subject in the immediate supervisor group suggested, it is necessary for the boss to attempt to harness these forces and effect an integration of the vertical and horizontal influences on the development process. The management of peer interactions should not be left up to chance. In the words of this subject:

I see that as really my job---to create the situation, the growth situation, for the new person so it becomes an interaction with peers. You can't do development vertically. You couldn't give it enough time. You need to create a climate among the peers to support the growth. It's through working with other management people that they pick up the basics.

A detailed analysis of the data gathered around this aspect of the management development process reveals two areas of strong agreement regarding the role played by peer interactions in the development process. The first centers around the critical role that these interactions play in shaping the final outcomes of efforts at management development. Only two subjects, both from the program participant group and both with jobs requiring little, if any, contact with peers, contended that peer interactions have virtually no influence over the development process. The remaining fifty one subjects indicated that peer interactions put into

motion a set of powerful forces that serve either to promote or hinder development as a management person. The second area of strong agreement centers around the need to view negative peer situations as new opportunities rather than as threats. If those under development are to derive maximum benefit from these encounters, then it is important for the boss-subordinate pair to make conscious efforts to channel these forces in the proper direction. The fact that only one subject in the sample noted the need to integrate the vertical and horizontal influences that shape the development process suggests that this is an important, but frequently overlooked responsibility of the immediate supervisor.

Personal, Situational, and Environmental Factors

The majority of subjects surveyed in the study indicated that personal, situational, and environmental factors represent a third set of forces that have a direct bearing on the final outcomes of efforts at management development in a large corporate setting. In the judgment of most, however, these factors exert far less influence on the end results than that exerted by the immediate supervisor and

peers.

When asked to identify some of the more important personal factors that have some bearing on the process, one quarter of the subjects in the program participant group, as well as a couple of subjects in each of the other three groups, cited the importance of such individual variables as self-image, drive, initiative, ambition, and high personal goals. Generally speaking, they noted, those who are highly self-motivated and have a clear sense of purpose and direction tend to move faster and farther in the organization than those who lack these personal qualities.

Two subjects, one in the program participant group and one in the program graduate group, expressed the view that the personal qualities needed to enhance the positive results of the development process are found more frequently in college graduates than in those whose formal education stopped at the high school level. The collegiate experience, both argued, appears to help individuals fashion a strong self-image and clarify career goals and aspirations. It appears to have a broadening effect on life and career expectations. High school graduates, on the other hand, are inclined to be less career oriented. They tend to have low

aspirations and ambitions, and are frequently content to have a well-paying job that provides security and enables them to maintain an acceptable life style.

In attempting to summarize the importance of the role played by individual variables or personal qualities in shaping the development process from the boss' point of view, one of the immediate supervisors commented:

Personality factors within the person themselves are important, such as where they see themselves in five years. And innate ability to work well with people, particularly here in this department where teamwork is important, is important. It's easier to create growth situations if the individual is interested in developing. The process certainly slows down if the person wants to sit back and not grab the wheel and drive the bus. The boss must become more involved if the individual is not motivated. The boss needs to do a lot more coaching. Maybe 'personality' is not the right word. It may be bigger than that.

In addressing the issue of which situational factors have a bearing on the development process, the majority of subjects identified three main factors---the nature of the first job, the types of assignments given to the new person, and boss selection and preparation. One third of the immediate supervisors, together with a number of subjects in the other three groups, stressed the importance of a valid and meaningful job as a primary condition for engaging in manage-

ment development activities. Once that condition has been satisfied, it then becomes important for the new management person to be given meaningful and challenging assignments. The new person needs to be given opportunities to achieve, to do something significant, to demonstrate his or her ability to make a contribution to the organization. The new person also needs to experience the personal satisfaction and reinforcement that comes from achievement and success.

The third situational factor singled out for attention, namely boss selection and preparation, was reviewed earlier under the topic of boss-subordinate relationships. It should be noted, however, that when asked to comment on the role of personal, situational, and environmental factors in the process, however, the majority of HRD staff specialists and a number of immediate supervisors and program graduates returned immediately to the issue of boss selection and boss preparation as being a critical situational factor.

In a negative vein, two subjects noted that the lack of promotional opportunities within the company, occasioned by a concerted effort to shrink the company as a result of divestiture, tends to have a demoralizing effect on some individuals enrolled in corporate development programs. For, on

the one hand, management trainees are encouraged to engage in developmental activities with a view toward enhancing their chances of advancing within the management ranks, and yet at the same time they are reminded that as the corporation shrinks there will be fewer openings in the management hierarchy.

In reflecting on the role played by environmental factors in shaping the development process, very few of the subjects in the sample saw these forces as exerting much influence on the final outcomes. A few subjects in the immediate supervisor and the program graduate groups stressed the need for continued corporate support at the highest levels as being a critical factor in assuring the success of efforts at management development across the company. The only other environmental factors singled out by a couple of subjects as having some bearing on the process were the immediate physical environment, family background, and the credibility of the development programs currently offered.

It is possible to draw a couple of important inferences from the information provided around this particular aspect of the management development process. First, the evidence shows that personal qualities and situational factors play

an important role in shaping the final outcomes of the process. While the influence of these factors appears to be far less than that exerted by the immediate supervisor and members of the peer group, the effective management of the process requires that some attention be paid to these factors. Individual variables such as goal clarity, self-image, drive, initiative, ambition, and so forth appear to enhance the chance of success in this arena. Likewise, the situational factors of boss selection, the nature of the first management job, and the types of assignments given during the first year appear to have a strong bearing on the growth of the individual under development.

Second, environmental factors appear to play a relatively minor role in the process, particularly when compared to the influence exerted by the boss and the peer group, on one side, and personal and situational factors, on the other side.

Benefits of Formal Programs

The subjects in all four major stakeholder groups were in unanimous agreement that company-sponsored, formally-structured management development programs provide a number

of distinctive advantages over informal arrangements worked out between bosses and subordinates with respect to efforts at management development. The problem with adopting an informal approach to the development process, a number of subjects pointed out, is that it tends to be haphazard, unfocused, and generally ineffective in promoting real growth and development as a management person.

While the members of the four constituency groups surveyed tended to highlight sets of benefits to be derived from a particular stakeholder perspective, there was some agreement across groups regarding some of the benefits to be derived from a formal program approach. A central theme found in the comments of a number of the immediate supervisors and program participants is the notion that the structure, the mandatory boss-subordinate activities, and the third-party tracking mechanisms embedded in formal development programs serve as effective counterweights to boss inertia and procrastination in the area of subordinate development. Even with this external pressure, a few subjects observed, some bosses still resist getting involved. Nevertheless, while the leverage applied from outside cannot guarantee the universal participation of immediate supervisors in the process, the requirements of a formal program do

force things to happen and serve to insure that, in most instances, the new person will get the attention needed during this critical stage of his or her management career.

The majority of subjects in the HRD staff specialists and program participant groups, together with a few in the program participant group, stressed the fact that formal programs furnish the individual under development with networking opportunities. The periodic group meetings built into the program structure make it possible for new managers to meet one another, compare notes on their experiences, and begin to establish a network of personal contacts in different departments across the company.

In the judgment of a number of HRD staff specialists and program participants the mutual planning and goal-setting sessions, the quarterly job performance reviews, and the periodic boss feedback information mandated by the program requirements are of particular value. These requirements serve to focus intentions and actions. They also enable the individual under development to gauge his or her progress along a fixed timeline.

Company sponsorship of formal management development

programs, in the opinion of a number of HRD staff specialists, program graduates, and immediate supervisors, provides recognition for the new management person. It sends a message that the company places a high priority on the development of human resources and values the contributions that new managers are able to make to the business. This corporate recognition is intended to enhance the self-image of the new management person.

A few subjects suggested that company-sponsored programs offer some additional advantages. Formal programs provide a conceptual framework for engaging in developmental activities and a checklist of things to be done in carrying out the process. They also provide guidance and define the criteria for success and failure in the domain of management development.

A detailed review of the comments of all of the subjects on this topic indicates that the chances of success are definitely enhanced when efforts at development are formalized and made part of a company-wide program. The testimony of those most closely involved in the process suggests that it is in the best interests of all of the key players in the process for companies to sponsor formal management de-

velopment programs rather than leave new managers and their immediate supervisors entirely to their own devices in the realm of subordinate development.

Although no single benefit was singled out by a majority of subjects across all four groups as being most significant, there was some agreement among subjects in two or more groups regarding distinctive advantages to be gained from formal versus informal attempts at management development. Taken collectively, moreover, the full list of advantages afforded by formal management development programs is very impressive. However, in order for all of the major stakeholders to derive maximum benefit from their involvement in the process, it seems that more publicity needs to be given to the full range of advantages offered by such programs. Not a single subject in the program participant group, it should be noted, mentioned corporate recognition of the new management person as being an advantage of being formally enrolled in a program, while two or more subjects from each of the other three groups saw this as a definite benefit that served to enhance the self-image of the new management person. At the same time, while two or more subjects in the HRD staff specialist, program participant, and program graduate groups saw networking opportunities as an important ad-

vantage, no one in the immediate supervisor group included this on the list of benefits and advantages.

Responsibility for Managing the Process

The subjects in all four groups proved to be deeply divided over the question of where to assign the primary locus of responsibility for the overall management of the process. Only in two groups was there any evidence of consensus concerning the assignment of responsibility. In the immediate supervisory group, 50% of the subjects indicated that the primary responsibility rests with the boss, while 60% of the subjects in the program participant group said that the individual under development bears the ultimate responsibility for managing the process.

It should be noted at the outset that the vast majority of those canvassed in the study expressed some discomfort in being asked to identify a single locus of overall responsibility for managing the process. The final breakdown of opinions expressed by the 53 subjects was as follows:

- o The individual (16)
- o The immediate supervisor (12)

- o The corporation (9)
- o Shared by boss and subordinate (8)
- o Shared by corporation and the individual (5)
- o Shared by the boss and the corporation (3)

In the case of the immediate supervisors, one half of the subjects stated that the boss is primarily responsible for managing the management development process. The rationale offered for adopting this position was that the growth and development of reporting people should be seen as an integral part of the job of being the boss. Furthermore, the immediate supervisor is in the best position to determine the development needs of the new management person. Finally, since new managers frequently lack the initiative and drive needed to manage the process, the responsibility often falls to the boss by default.

A couple of subjects in the immediate supervisor group suggested that, while it might be true that the major portion of the responsibility for managing the process rests with the boss in the beginning, the ratio of shared responsibility changes dramatically with the passage of time. One subject estimated:

I guess I'd have to say that the primary responsibility

is mine, perhaps 95% mine, because of the disciplines that exist today in this department. If you stick to the First Management Job plan and the person fails, a good case could be made for saying that it's the boss' fault. After the first year period, however, if you're going to talk full management development, then the tables are turned and the individual assumes almost full responsibility for his own development.

And another subject in this group observed:

The responsibility is 50/50 between me and the subordinate---but not in the beginning. It's probably 90/10 in the beginning. What turns the ratio around is a positive rather than a negative look at what subordinates are doing. Fifty/fifty becomes ideal. It's reached gradually. People need more help in the beginning. They need to learn what the company expects, what I expect. I personally have high goals and I communicate them to subordinates. I also tell them that I need their help.

A few of those interviewed in this group commented that, in their opinion, the immediate supervisor is primarily responsible for implementing management development plans for subordinates but the initiative and continuing support for the process must come from upper levels in the corporate hierarchy. For the efforts at management development to be successful, it is necessary for trained professionals to analyze the needs of the business, design corporate development programs to meet those needs, and provide the support needed to insure the success of the programs.

Only a couple of immediate supervisors expressed the view that the ultimate responsibility for managing the development process rested with the individual under development. The initiative for pursuing management growth and development, they insisted, can only come from the individual being developed. At the same time, however, the immediate supervisor has to share the responsibility in some way. One of the immediate supervisors estimated the ratio of shared responsibility in this regard is somewhere in the vicinity of 95/5, with the individual assuming the major portion of the responsibility.

In the case of the HRD staff specialist group, subjects were split four ways over the question of where to assign the primary locus of responsibility for managing the development process. One third of the subjects expressed the view that the responsibility for managing the process ultimately rests with the individual under development. The motivation, they argued, can only come from the individual. This is not to say, however, that the individual must bear full responsibility for efforts at management development. The immediate supervisor and the corporation as a whole have a responsibility to support and assist the new management person in benefitting from engaging in developmental activi-

ties.

One quarter of the HRD staff specialists adopted the position that the immediate supervisor must bear final responsibility for the ultimate success or failure of efforts at management development. It should be clearly recognized, these subjects insisted, that the development of subordinates is a fundamental responsibility of the boss and that is particularly true in the case of the new management person.

Another quarter of the HRD staff specialists felt that the ultimate responsibility should be assigned to the corporation in general and the HRD organization in particular. The main reason for shifting the responsibility in this direction, they pointed out, was that the corporation is responsible for setting policy and designing and implementing plans for management succession. The corporation has a responsibility to perpetuate itself, and it is primarily through efforts at management development that it is able to strengthen itself and plan for management succession.

Two members of the HRD staff specialists group defended the view that the responsibility for managing the process is

ultimately shared by the boss and the subordinate. One subject estimated the split to be about 50/50, with a special weight attached to the individual's side of the ratio. The other judged the ratio to be about 80/20 in the boss' favor, but with particular emphasis placed on the individuals' minority share.

In addressing the issue of who should bear the final responsibility for the management development process, 60% of the program participants argued that the primary responsibility rests with the individual under development. The rationale offered for adopting this position was that since management development is essentially an internal growth process, only the individual being developed can be held accountable for the results of efforts at management development. The new management person is ultimately responsible for his or her own destiny. The person under development should be prepared, therefore, to take advantage of whatever the immediate supervisor or the company is able to provide by way of support in efforts at management development, but the ultimate responsibility for the outcomes of the process resides with the individual.

The following set of comments offered by two program

participants clearly reflect the theme of personal accountability:

The person, the new hire, is primarily responsible for managing the development process. You can have the best program in the world, but if the individual doesn't use it, it's worthless. On the other hand, a poor program can be effective to some degree if the individual is highly motivated.

Personally, I think it's the individual being developed. He should be the most responsible. The others are there to help along the way, to give me projects and situations to help me develop. The individual is responsible for his or her own development. The company only helps. It's up to me to motivate myself.

Only two subjects in the program participant group defended the view that the immediate supervisor should be held accountable for the results of efforts at management development. One described this condition in the following terms:

My immediate supervisor has primary responsibility. She has the responsibility to oversee my meeting objectives. For me, development is the process of meeting these objectives. The company has the responsibility to provide development opportunities.

Slightly more than one quarter of the program participants were of the opinion that the final responsibility for managing the development process is shared by the boss and the subordinate. The boss, for his or her part, should be held accountable for identifying the development needs of the subordinate and for providing the guidance, support, and

encouragement needed to succeed in a first management job. The subordinate, on the other hand, is responsible for striving to achieve mutually agreed upon goals and objectives. Estimates of the ratio of shared responsibility between the two parties ranged from an equal 50/50 split to 80/20, with the individual bearing the greater share of the load.

Program graduates were also deeply divided over the issue of where to assign responsibility for managing the development process. One half of the group members maintained that the corporation in general, and the HRD organization in particular, bears primary responsibility for initiating and overseeing efforts at management development. Two reasons were offered in support of this view. First, upper management is charged with the responsibility of planning for management succession in accordance with corporate strategies and objectives, and management development is a key ingredient in the planning process. Second, management development should not be left entirely to the immediate supervisor and the subordinate to work out between themselves, since the majority of boss-subordinate teams would be unable to carry out the process successfully without considerable direction and guidance from training and development professionals.

Forty percent of the program graduates were firmly convinced that, in the final analysis, the responsibility for managing the process should be seen as being shared by the corporation and the individual under development. Although no attempt was made by any of those interviewed to estimate the relative degrees of accountability in this regard, it was generally agreed that the corporation bears the greater share. Attention was also called to the fact that the responsibility of the immediate supervisor for managing a wide range of developmental activities should not be overlooked.

Only one of the twelve program graduates in the sample expressed the view that the individual under development bears the major portion of the responsibility for managing the process, with the corporation and the immediate supervisor assuming some responsibility.

In the final analysis, the initial discomfort experienced by the majority of subjects in feeling constrained to identify a single locus of overall responsibility for managing the process provides an important clue to the underlying complexity of the issue of assigning responsibility in this matter. A detailed comparison of the opinions expressed suggests that perhaps the best way to understand the issue

is to adopt a composite view. The management development process proves ultimately to be a team effort involving a set of shared responsibilities. The corporation, the immediate supervisor, and the individual under development should be seen as bearing varying degrees of responsibility for managing different aspects of the development process. The corporation, for its part, is responsible for initiating the process and providing all of the support systems needed to foster growth and development, including the need to effect a proper match between the new management person and his or her immediate supervisor. The immediate supervisor, in this scenario, is responsible for acquiring the skills and knowledge needed to develop a new manager and for becoming deeply involved in shepherding the new manager through a wide range of planned developmental activities. The immediate supervisor is responsible for playing a number of different roles in the process, including guide, coach, mentor, evaluator, and primary role model. Finally, the individual under development is accountable for assuming much of the initiative needed for the process to be successful and for taking advantage of various opportunities for growth and development afforded by the company, the immediate supervisor, or the job situation.

Developing Management Competencies

When asked to identify specific management skills and abilities that either can or cannot be improved to a significant degree through training and practice, the majority of subjects in all but the program participant group used the list of variables measured on the annual performance appraisal form as a primary point of reference in responding to the question. Presumably, the program participants did not refer to this list since all had been in the company for less than a year and therefore had not yet experienced the annual review process. A number of subjects, including some of the HRD staff specialists, it should be pointed out, encountered considerable difficulty in remembering the eight variables on the list.

Eight dimensions of performance measured on this list are all derivatives of the assessment center variables described in chapter two. They include:

- o Oral communication
- o Written communication
- o Flexibility
- o Performance stability
- o Decision-making
- o Leadership
- o Organizing and planning
- o Inner work standards

All fifty three subjects in the sample stated that oral and written communication skills should definitely be included in the category of developable management competencies. Experience has shown, a number of those canvassed noted, that anyone of average intelligence is generally able to improve his or her oral and written communication skills to a notable degree with formal instruction, practice, and coaching. Other suggestions regarding management competencies that should be included under this heading, offered by a few individuals across all four groups, included listening skills, stress management, interpersonal skills, and time management.

Beyond that point, however, those surveyed in the study proved to be deeply divided over the issue of which management skills can or cannot be noticeably improved as a result of formal efforts at management development. Responses to the question reflect two distinct schools of thought regarding what many professionals believe to be core management skills, such as leadership, decision-making, and organizing and planning. A majority of those interviewed adopted the position that basic management competencies, whether judged to be innate or capable of being acquired, must exist in an unfinished state to begin with in order for an individual to

profit from participating in formal management development activities. Management skills, in the majority opinion, can only be refined and enhanced through participation in corporate development programs; they cannot be developed from scratch.

The minority view, on the other hand, was grounded in the conviction that individuals of average intelligence, when highly motivated, are able to acquire the full range of skills and abilities needed to be successful in a management position through formal instruction, guided practice and coaching.

This dichotomy within the HRD staff specialist group is clearly reflected in the following set of quotations. In presenting the majority view, one member commented:

The things that I don't think can be developed to any significant degree would be performance stability, inner work standards, leadership skills, and decision-making. These are more innate. You either bring them with you and exhibit them or you don't. Other things we don't look at, like energy and abstract reasoning, also fall into this category.

While another member, in defending the minority view stated:

I'm of the school of thought that any skill can be learned. Management skills and cognitive skills can be improved through practice, direct development, and ex-

perience-sharing. It's a cave-dwelling mentality to believe that young, new college hires will not develop later to a significant degree.

In the case of the immediate supervisor group, the majority opinion was expressed in the following terms by four of the group members:

Decision-making---I'm not sure you can develop that. I think it's almost a function of personality.

I don't know if you can improve decision-making skills.

Leadership, I think, is an inherent ability. You can't train people in it. I see people who work well in a staff environment but don't do well in a line position. They get by but they don't have the ability to motivate people.

I believe that leadership can be developed but I see it as an inherent trait. You can see whether an individual has it. It can certainly improve with experience.

On the other hand, a couple of supervisors stated:

Decision-making can be developed when people analyze their behavior. It improves with experience.

Prioritization and decision-making are developed by doing the job.

One third of the program participants adopted the position that management competencies are innate qualities or must be previously acquired and exist in an unfinished state in order to be improved through participation in corporate development programs. Twenty percent, on the other hand, argued that all management skills can be developed to some degree; it's more of a question of vision, attitude, and basic aptitude in various skill areas than innate qualities or previously acquired competencies. In the words of one program participant:

I think all management skills can at least be improved. I've heard a lot about this or that can't be taught to anybody but I don't believe it. But these skills can only be developed if the person is willing to be developed. I feel that you can teach people these skills but sometimes it is difficult and takes time.

In the program graduate group, all of the subjects who had been enrolled in the earliest development programs sponsored by the company indicated that it was difficult to render an opinion on the subject since the main thrust of the early programs was to acquaint the new management person with the various functional operations of the telephone business rather than to attempt to develop a set of management competencies judged to be essential for success in a management position. The majority of the early graduates pointed

out that they came into the business with a strong technical background and were sensitive to the need to acquire such generic management skills as time management, planning, communication skills, and interpersonal skills but discovered that they were forced to acquire these competencies entirely on their own. As one early program graduate observed:

In the program you learned your environment, not specific skills. You didn't learn a lot about communication, organizing and planning, or decision-making. You learned to interpret information from meetings with higher management people. Primarily, it gave you background.

A couple of important conclusions can be drawn from the information gathered in the study around this particular aspect of the management development process. In the first place, while there was a very strong consensus that oral and written communication skills are capable of significant improvement through formal training and practice, no attempt was made by any of the subjects to identify the full list of competencies essential for success in a management position. While the majority referred to the variables contained on the annual performance appraisal form in responding to the question, a significant number encountered difficulty in recalling which specific measures were on the form and the precise meaning attached to each. No one, moreover, consid-

ered this list as a definitive enumeration of the essential qualities of a competent manager.

The primary reason for singling out oral and written communications as being not only important but also developable skills, presumably, is that these competencies are easily measured. This is not the case with the other variables cited as being part of the constellation of skills needed to be successful in a management position. In the final analysis, two necessary conditions for insuring the success of formal efforts at management development would appear to be the identification of a core group of competencies needed to perform well in an entry-level management position and a planned set of developmental activities geared toward the acquisition and enhancement of these abilities.

Second, the data indicates that the majority of the subjects in the sample believe that basic management abilities, such as leadership, decision-making and interpersonal skills, whether innate or acquired over time, must be present in an unfinished state in order for an individual to profit from involvement in corporate management development activities. Knowingly or unknowingly, therefore, the majority opinion supports the long-standing AT&T view that the

skills needed to be successful in a management position are acquired relatively early in life and hence the individual already possesses them when he or she enters the corporation. The management development process, therefore, is geared toward promoting additional growth and development in these skill areas rather than attempting to establish a base for acquiring these competencies.

Primary Target Population

When queried on the topic of which group or groups of employees constitute the primary target population for concentrated corporate efforts at management development, over ninety percent of the subjects in the immediate supervisor, program participant, and program graduate groups expressed the view that all new management trainees, especially those with line responsibilities, should be considered the primary candidates for formal management development programs. New college hires, it was noted, should be included in this category because they need to be integrated into the corporate structure and indoctrinated in the company's way of doing things. They need to learn the organizational structure, its goals and objectives, the philosophy of upper management, and corporate policy and standards. Those recently

promoted into a management position from within should also be included in the primary target population because every new manager stands in need of acquiring a management perspective and a solid grounding in the basics of effective management.

One immediate supervisor attempted to paint a portrait of the ideal candidate for management development in the following terms:

In my opinion, in terms of what the company is looking for, I would include the younger set; those between 25 and 35 years old; the ones with the college degrees; probably more in the female than the male range. Those who have proven themselves on previous assignments; those who get involved and have a good appearance and interact well socially with peers and bosses.

A number of minority opinions on the topic were expressed by subjects across these three groups. Two program participants and two program graduates defended the view that the primary target population consists of line managers with reporting people. Those with staff responsibilities, they argued, can wait a couple of years before engaging in formal management development activities. A few immediate supervisors suggested that high potential individuals should be given an opportunity to prove themselves in some form of accelerated development program that goes beyond initial ef-

forts at management development. Twenty percent of the program participants argued that corporate development programs should be open to anyone who wishes to participate in one.

All but two of the twelve subjects interviewed in the HRD staff specialist group defended the position that corporate efforts at management development should be aimed at three primary groups. The first target population, and probably the central one, consists of new college recruits and those recently promoted into a management position from within. A second target population is to be found among those high potential individuals who have shown evidence of having the ability to advance within the ranks of the management hierarchy. These high potential candidates should be tested in a variety of ways in some form of advanced management development program to let them prove themselves. Finally, there is a third target population that has been overlooked and neglected for the most part. While a great deal of attention has been focused on new managers at one end of the spectrum, and high potential managers, at the other end, the large mass of lower level veteran managers who stand in need of some form of additional management development has been ignored. A couple of HRD staff specialists estimated that around eighty percent of managers fall

into that category.

Only two of the HRD staff specialists indicated that, in their opinion, management development programs should be open to anyone who wishes to participate, without attempting to differentiate the target population any further.

A detailed comparison of the views expressed by subjects in all four major stakeholder groups on the topic of identifying the primary candidates for management development reveals a strong consensus that corporate efforts should focus primarily on new college recruits and those recently promoted into a management position from the ranks of non-management, particularly those with line responsibilities and reporting people.

The proposed division of the primary target population into three discrete groups, namely new managers, high potential managers, and veteran managers in need of further development, appears to be helpful in differentiating the needs of individuals at different stages of development. The observation, moreover, that the development needs of managers who do not fall into the category of high potential candidates or new college hires and new promotees have been

seriously neglected suggests that upper management, particularly in the HRD organization, might want to review priorities around the question of which employees stand in need of assistance in the area of management development.

Program Strengths/Weaknesses

When asked to comment on which program activities proved to be particularly effective in promoting real growth and development as a management person, a significant number of subjects in three of the four groups singled out the planning and performance review requirements. Forty six percent of the program participants, 50% of the immediate supervisors, and 25% of the HRD staff specialists maintained that the year long developmental plan, including a set of detailed action plans tailored to the unique development needs of the new management person, and the quarterly performance reviews mandated by the current program should be seen as definite strengths. The two requirements, it was pointed out, serve to lay the groundwork for managing the full range of developmental activities and help establish a good working relationship between the boss and the subordinate during the first critical year.

Sixty percent of the program participants, 25% percent of the HRD staff specialists, and a couple of immediate supervisors indicated that the experience-sharing sessions built into the program structure are important for the success of the development process. The opportunity to meet others who are in similar situations and compare notes, and the chance to establish a network of personal contacts in various departments across the company should be considered definite program strengths.

Two other program strengths identified by a relatively large number of subjects included third-party tracking and monitoring of the process, and a formal, highly structured approach to the process. One quarter of the HRD staff specialists noted that third-party tracking and monitoring makes a double contribution to the process. It serves to make things happen and also protects the interests of the person under development during the formative period of management development. One third of the program participants felt that the structured approach of the program facilitated the development process by providing a framework from which to operate, a set of concrete guidelines, and a clear forward focus for engaging in management development activities.

Additional program strengths identified by a few individuals in the HRD staff specialist, immediate supervisor, and program participant groups included a consistent approach to management development that cuts across departmental lines and the fact that the program components provide a smooth lead-in to the annual performance appraisal for the new manager.

As noted earlier, the majority of program graduates found it difficult to find anything positive to say about their experience with the programs sponsored by the company in the 1960s and the early 1970s. It was generally agreed, however, that the rotational assignments provided a good overview of the various functions that comprise the industry and that successful completion of the program created a certain halo-effect that served to enhance career opportunities. The majority of graduates of the intensive development programs felt that they received exceptionally good technical and administrative training but little management training. In addressing the question of program weaknesses, the majority of subjects in both the immediate supervisor and program participant groups indicated that they were unable to detect any serious weakness in any of the current programs. A couple of program participants suggested that

the current programs could be enhanced if there were more boss and departmental support of the programs and if more information on corporate culture and departmental politics were included as part of the formal content of these programs. A couple of supervisors also raised the question of whether a single calendar year allows sufficient time for every management trainee to develop to the full extent of his or her potential.

The majority of HRD staff specialists emphasized the failure of many departments to place new managers with bosses skilled in the art of developing subordinates as constituting a serious weakness in current corporate efforts at management development. A couple of group members cited the failure to address directly the political realities of the company as a weakness of present programs.

The comments of the members of the program graduate group on the subject reflected a strong consensus that a central weakness in the administration of the earliest development programs was the failure to establish a competency-based approach to the development process. Other deficiencies identified by a few graduates of the earlier programs included a fundamental lack of direction, a lack of

feedback on performance, and the lack of follow-up once the program had been completed.

A review of the list of program strengths compiled by subjects in the four major stakeholder groups reveals no new insights into the factors that serve to enhance the chance of success of corporate efforts at management development. Joint planning, the drafting of a detailed development plan tailored to the needs of the person under development, quarterly performance reviews, frequent feedback, opportunities to share experiences and establish a network of personal contacts, and third-party tracking and monitoring of the process have long been recognized as important components of the development process. However, the fact that most of these qualities were conspicuously absent from the earliest development programs shows these considerations can easily be overlooked in the design of a program. Furthermore, it would appear that boss selection and boss preparation remain weak links in the process in many departments despite the clear recognition of the need to insure the best possible match between the new management trainee and his or her first boss.

Critical Incidents

One of the data-gathering tools used in conducting the study was the critical incident technique. This technique was selected because of its proven usefulness in surfacing factual information rather than opinions or generalizations regarding a particular phenomenon. However, when asked to cite one or two examples of extraordinary success or failure in the realm of management development and to describe the circumstances surrounding these events, not a single individual in any of the four major stakeholder groups was able to recall a single instance of management development that could be called a "critical incident."

Only 2 of the 53 subjects surveyed attempted to identify significant examples of what may be considered to be management development in the sense of advancement within the corporate hierarchy. One member of the immediate supervisor group recalled:

I broke P.B. (currently Vice President-Human Resources) in. You could spot it immediately. He had the capabilities. He was receptive to ideas. When faced with a problem, he made a decision in terms of what was right for the company, while others might have been concerned about how they might look.

Another member of the same group observed:

P.H. (currently Vice-President-Marketing) is an example. All the ingredients were there---capabilities, initiative, drive, and the opportunity to display the capabilities. He also had good supervision. Also he was in the right spot at the right time. You might call it luck. P.W. was his boss and P.W. had a track record for developing people who worked for him.

Ordinarily the critical incident technique proves to be an extremely useful research tool for surfacing illustrative examples of remarkable success or failure in the phenomenon under investigation. It is difficult to explain why, in this particular instance, it failed to provide any worthwhile data. In the case of the program participant group, a number of subjects indicated that they had not been in the company long enough to witness any critical incidents in the domain of management development. This appears to be a very plausible explanation. At the same time, however, it is difficult to explain why none of the immediate supervisors or program graduates were unable to cite any incidents, since the vast majority were veteran employees with more than ten years of service, many with experience in more than one department.

The most perplexing case, however, centers around the failure of the HRD staff specialists surveyed to provide any

meaningful critical incidents, since they were trained professionals charged with the responsibility of overseeing efforts at management development across all departments and therefore in a position to have a comprehensive view of the process. In the final analysis, there appear to be three possible explanations for the failure to surface the desired data. One possibility is that no critical incidents of management development occurred in the company. Second, it is possible that some occurred but went unobserved by the subjects selected for the study. Third, it is possible that there were critical incidents but they went unobserved due to the fact that the process is spread out over time. Of the three, perhaps the most plausible explanation of the failure of any subject in the study to cite a single example is the third.

Additional Comments

When asked to comment on the nature and character of the management development process along dimensions not previously explored in the interview, virtually all of the subjects in all four groups tended either to reiterate points made earlier in the interview or to state that they had nothing further to add.

In the case of the HRD staff specialists, a number of subjects returned to the familiar theme of the pressing need to devote more attention to the selection and training of immediate supervisors in order to enhance the chances of success of corporate efforts at management development. One member of this group suggested that an effective way of resolving the problem of boss selection and increasing the probability of success would be to discover a way of making the process more systemic and less boss-dependent.

In the case of the program graduate group, 25% of the subjects underscored the extremely high drop-out rate of candidates in the early programs. A couple of subjects in this group added that, in their opinion, those who persevered seemed to be more committed to the development process than those who left.

A number of subjects in the immediate supervisor group returned to the theme of the need to evaluate the performance of bosses in the area of subordinate development if any improvement in the quality of results of efforts at management is to be realized.

In the case of program participant group, a few subjects

returned to the notion that the process is a deeply internal growth process grounded in strong personal motivation and challenging job opportunities. Attention was also called to the fact that the experience is different for each individual in terms of specific learning outcomes. Two program participants indicated the need for those under development to adopt a realistic stance toward formal efforts at management development. If a particular program contains certain flaws, they noted, then it is incumbent on the boss and the subordinate to work together to explore ways of dealing with these deficiencies as part of the development process.

Personal Expectations

Each of the program participants and the program graduates surveyed was asked to comment on his or her expectations regarding program outcomes. Those currently enrolled in a program were asked to comment on what they expected to get out of the program; those who had previously completed a program were asked to comment regarding the degree to which their original expectations were met, both at the end of the program and in the ensuing years.

In attempting to articulate what they expected to derive

from the experience, two thirds of the program participants expressed their expectations in very broad, general, and non-specific terms. They indicated that they were seeking 'growth,' 'development,' and 'versatility' in order to prepare themselves to handle future assignments in a management position. They stated that they expected to be better managers as a result of participating in the planned developmental activities and be able to deal with a wide spectrum of people in a variety of business situations.

One program participant noted that his personal expectations coincided with what he felt were corporate expectations:

What I expect of myself and what I expect of the program is a sense of growth, a sense of direction. I look for additional guidance from the program. I want it to be efficient and effective for me. I expect the company to pay attention to my growth and talent. I think that I'm quite talented and have a good future ahead.

Nearly one quarter of the subjects in the program participant group stated that they had no clear expectations from the program beyond that of helping them perform well on their present assignment. Of the four individuals who expressed this view, it should be pointed out, none was a college graduate. All were veteran employees with high school

diplomas who had been promoted up through the ranks.

With one or two exceptions, all of the program graduates stated that their initial expectations coincided completely with company expectations. It was clearly understood by both parties, it was noted, that good performance during the trial year would lead to a permanent second level position, with the added expectation that successful candidates would soon advance to a higher level in the organization. It was also clearly understood that poor performance during this trial period would lead to termination. The high risk/high payoff conditions of employment during this period were clearly understood by both parties from the outset.

In reflecting on how well their initial expectations were met, the subjects in this group had a variety of reactions. One subject noted that, while he was going through the program, he never really reflected on the need to acquire a set of specific management skills in order to be successful in later management assignments. It was only after a period of time that the importance of such skills became evident. In his words:

The impression I had, at that time, was that the knowl-

edge about the company would be enough. I never considered the importance of management skills, of working with people, of time management, and these kinds of things. My whole background had been technical. I didn't get my first supervisory job until about 10 years afterward. By then I had been at second level for about 4 years.

Another program graduate observed that the program didn't allow you to fail:

I expected to be tested. I like solutions. I had a good quantitative background. I wanted to learn about quality. I wanted management, not just engineering. I like the idea of competition. I liked the idea of being given the opportunity to manage people. The problem with the program is that it wasn't long enough. I wasn't given an opportunity to fail. I never completed a sufficient portion of a job in equipment engineering. I didn't know if my projects succeeded. If it takes two years to evaluate a person's performance, then the program should take that long. The final impact of engineering projects take a long time to evaluate.

One female graduate who had succeeded in reaching a district level position a few years after completing a development program said that she was disillusioned by the manner in which corporate expectations were expressed. She commented:

Some of it was a farce. I remember on one occasion my Assistant Vice President pulled me out of class to talk to me. It turned out that he was the only one at 5th level not to have met with his department's Management Assessment Program Candidate. He told me that he was sure that I would make it because I was a 'broad.' It was a little humiliating to hear that, but I realized the truth in that statement.

A detailed review of the remarks of the subjects in both groups regarding personal expectations from involvement in formal efforts at management development allows one to draw a couple of important inferences concerning the nature and character of the management development process. First, the data indicates that company policy and corporate expectations were carefully spelled out to candidates in the earliest development programs and these corporate expectations tended to shape personal expectations. The early programs were geared to talented male college recruits who showed some promise of being able to move into middle management positions within a few years, after holding down one or more second level positions in the company. Given the fact that company expectations were clearly communicated in the beginning, it is not surprising that this would condition personal expectations to the extent that, in the end, personal expectations and corporate expectations would coincide.

Second, the failure of the corporation to convey specific expectations regarding participation in a management development program results in vague personal expectations. The new programs, as noted earlier, are open to all new management trainees, whether recruited from outside or promoted up through the ranks, and aim at 'producing the most capable

managers possible.' The data shows that individual expectations were couched in the same general, non-specific terms found in the company brochure describing the program. Individuals indicated that they were seeking 'growth,' 'development,' and 'versatility' in a management position in preparation to assume increased responsibilities.

Third, the data appears to support the claim of a couple of immediate supervisors, documented earlier in this study, that high school graduates tend to be less career-oriented and more job-oriented than college hires. All four of the subjects in the program participant group who indicated that they had no further expectations from the program than that of making them more proficient in carrying out their present job responsibilities were high school graduates who came up through the ranks.

Summary

In one sense, the research findings presented in this chapter do not provide any strikingly new insights into the nature and character of the management development process. Indeed, one might conclude that the results of the study serve merely to reinforce what a number of professionals

within the field have long known regarding the conditions that must be present in order for corporate efforts at management development to be successful. In another sense, however, holistic analysis of the data provides a coherent picture of the way in which the key elements in the process interact. It illuminates the way in which all of the various piece-parts fit together, thereby providing members of the four major stakeholder groups with a comprehensive understanding of how the parts are related to the whole. The findings also underscore the fact that some of the most commonly accepted principles of effective management development, such as careful placement of the management trainee and judicious boss selection, are frequently violated in practice, despite the lip-service accorded to such principles.

The emphasis in this chapter was on a phenomenological description of the management development process as experienced by the 53 subjects in the sample, with some attempt made to draw inferences and conclusions from the data. The next chapter aims at exploring some further implications of these research findings regarding the manner in which the management development process should be carried out in a large corporate setting if maximum benefit is to be derived

from efforts in that direction.

C H A P T E R V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Even cursory examination of materials published in the field of continuing adult education over the past decade and a half discloses a remarkable lack of consistency in the manner in which the terms 'Training,' 'Development,' and 'Education' are employed by both laymen and Human Resource Development professionals. Each of these terms is assigned a wide spectrum of meanings by those choosing to comment on this particular aspect of adult learning. The semantic confusion surrounding the use of these three terms in the literature is intensified still further when one attempts to discern the precise meaning of such designations as 'Management Training,' 'Management Development,' and 'Management Education' because the qualifier is equally vague and imprecise in most instances. The problem is compounded by the fact that there is very little hope of deriving some degree of semantic clarity from outside sources since the English words 'manager' and 'management' have no exact counterparts in either French, German, Italian, or Russian.

A comprehensive, detailed review of the literature on the subject indicates that it is possible to make certain gross, meaningful distinctions between training, development,

and education if one rigorously focuses attention on the specific learning outcomes associated with these three functions. In the final analysis, one discovers that, despite a number of surface differences, the majority of commentators appear to be in fundamental agreement regarding the basic nature and character of the training and education functions. In the case of the management development function, however, there is evidence of a strong difference of opinion regarding the nature and character of this particular aspect of adult learning.

Training is generally understood to represent a planned, organized, and controlled set of adult learning activities designed to improve some aspect of job performance. Two salient features of the training function are its very narrow scope and focus and an emphasis on the immediate relevancy of the acquired skills. Education, on the other hand, is commonly viewed as occupying a position at the opposite end of the adult learning continuum. It represents an open-ended form of learning. The main thrust of the education process is to prepare the learner to meet an indeterminate and unpredictable future and to function in a wide variety of situations. Two hallmarks of the education function are its broad scope and focus and its future orienta-

tion.

All attempts, however, to discover a similar common thread of meaning in the way in which the term 'development' is used by various authors prove fruitless. In the end, one finds that three distinct schools of thought are represented in the literature. Some commentators argue that training and development should be viewed as part of a single process due to the job-relevant nature of the learning involved in efforts at management development and the immediate utility of the competencies acquired in the process. Others maintain that development should be seen as being an integral part of the education process because of its wide scope and focus and its future orientation. A third group contends that, despite the fact that the management development function bears a close affinity to both management training and management education, efforts at management development result in a uniquely different set of learning outcomes. Although training and development both focus on management functions to be performed by the job incumbent, training aims at improving job performance through the development of task related skills, while development aims at enhancing promotability by preparing individuals to assume higher levels of responsibility within the management hierarchy through

the development of generic management competencies. And while development resembles education, insofar as it is broadly focused and future oriented, it does not represent a pursuit of knowledge for its own sake as is the case with the education function. Rather, it focuses on the acquisition of those skills judged to be essential for success in holding down any management position.

Original Problem Statement

The unresolved debate in the literature surrounding the essential nature and character of the management development function served as the triggering event for the undertaking of this research project. Every year the business and industrial world invests billions of dollars in human resource development activities conducted under the general rubric of 'Training, Development, and Education.' If the aphorism "knowledge is power" has any validity, then it would appear that the chances of success for efforts at management development could be considerably improved if decision-makers and information-users in corporations possessed a better understanding of both the inner core of the development process and the key factors that strongly influence the final outcomes of formal efforts at management development in a large

corporate setting.

In the final analysis, it is possible to single out at least five important unresolved issues pertaining to the development function that give rise to the ambiguity surrounding the term in the literature. The original problem statement, as formulated in chapter one, was expressed in the following terms:

1. What is the essential difference, if any, between management training, management development, and management education?
2. Where should one assign the primary locus of responsibility for managing the development process?
3. Which group or groups of employees constitute the primary target population for corporate efforts at management development?
4. Which specific management competencies can or cannot be improved to any significant degree through training, practice, and coaching in company-sponsored development programs?
5. What are some of the more important personal, situational, and environmental factors that prove to have a direct bearing on the outcomes of efforts at management development under actual field

conditions?

Research Design

Since the debate over the fundamental nature and character of the development process remained unresolved in published materials on the subject, a decision was made to go outside the literature in order to gather data that would ultimately serve to illuminate the management development process from within. The most promising approach appeared to be a case study analysis of individuals deeply involved in one or more aspects of the management development process on a day-to-day basis in a large corporate setting.

The research was conducted in two stages. In the first phase of the project, a comprehensive and detailed review of the literature on the subject of initial management development. Attention was focused on advances in the field of HRD in general over the past decade and a half and on the policy and practice of the Bell System in particular over the past seven or eight decades with respect to efforts at management development. In the second phase, a detailed case study analysis was undertaken using 53 subjects in a large Regional Bell Operating Company. The individuals selected in the

sample were chosen to represent the interests of four major stakeholder groups. The sample included HRD staff specialists responsible for the design and administration of management development programs within the company, management trainees participating in one or more corporate development programs, immediate supervisors of management trainees, and veteran employees who had successfully completed a management development program earlier in their careers. Twelve to fifteen individuals were selected from each of the four constituency groups. A primary reason for selecting a Regional Bell Operating Company as the locus for the study was the fact that AT&T has long been recognized as a leader in the areas of college recruiting, the assessment of management potential, and the sponsorship of training and education programs.

A qualitative approach was selected as the primary research methodology in phase two because of the richness in depth and description of the data that qualitative methods generally surface. Although qualitative analysis is admittedly less rigorous than quantitative or statistical analysis and the data is more difficult to analyze with confidence, in this instance the adoption of a qualitative approach to the subject gave some promise of illuminating the

phenomenon from within. The investigation conducted during the first phase of the project showed that, while the literature on the subject is replete with both theoretical models and paradigms and descriptive narratives detailing what different companies are attempting to do in this arena, there is a dearth of published materials grounded in the first-hand experiences and reflections of individuals deeply involved in the management development process on a daily basis.

The main thrust of the research efforts in phase two, therefore, was to obtain an insightful, phenomenological description of the way in which the development process actually operates under field conditions in a large corporate setting, a description grounded in the first-hand experiences and reflections of some of the major stakeholders in the process. The main objective was not to identify statistically significant data regarding the administration of the development function but rather an impressionistic picture of the way in which the development process actually operates under field conditions from the perspective of some key players in the process.

The primary data-collection technique employed during

the second phase of the project was a series of in-depth personal interviews with each of the 53 subjects chosen for the sample. The interview guide used to provide some structure for these sessions contained a set of ten questions designed to focus attention on various aspects of the five unresolved issues identified at the outset. Appendix C shows how each of the questions relates to one or more of the unresolved issues.

Secondary data-gathering strategies employed during this phase included content analysis of published materials relating to company policy and practice in the area of management development, brochures explaining the programs, forms and materials used in the administration of the programs, and follow-up evaluation studies. Field observations were also conducted to witness first-hand the orientation sessions, joint planning sessions, experience sharing sessions, and the immediate work environment of each of the subjects in the study. The data collected using these methods served as background information for putting the case study data into a meaningful perspective.

Individual responses to each of the questions asked during the interviews were carefully transcribed and later

factor analyzed for predominant themes and recurring patterns in the data. This comparison was conducted on both an intra-group and an inter-group basis in an effort to identify areas of convergence and divergence regarding the dimensions explored during the interviews. The primary thrust of the analysis was to surface insightful, qualitative data that would make it possible for decision-makers and information-users in the company being studied to derive increased benefits from efforts at management development. It was also assumed that the findings would have validity and application beyond the particular setting chosen as the locus for the study.

Findings and Implications

The final results of the study can be conveniently summarized under three major headings. First, the findings shed some additional light on the five dimensions of the problem that gave rise to the study in the first place. Second, the findings highlight five forms of adult learning uniquely associated with the management development process. Third, the findings furnish a comprehensive list of ten major conditions that have a direct bearing on the final outcomes of corporate efforts at management development.

Towards Resolving The Issues

While a complete review of the data does not result in any decidedly new insights into the essential nature and character of the management development process, the findings do provide a detailed, coherent picture of how the various component parts of the process fit together. This picture, in turn, offers some meaningful answers to the five questions regarding the nature of the function that provoked the study in the first place.

#1. What is the precise difference, if any, between management training, management development, and management education? The scope of this question was narrowed down to that of the proposed difference between training and development during the interview sessions because the results of the literature review suggested that there is rather widespread agreement regarding the basic nature of the education function. The general consensus appears to be that education is essentially a broadening experience with a central focus on the transmission of information and the intellectual growth and development of the individual learner. Education deals with concepts, opinions, general principles, and contrasting viewpoints. The process results in an open-ended

form of adult learning characterized by the pursuit of knowledge in general. Another reason for excluding the education function was that there is strong evidence which shows that corporations tend to sponsor management education programs rather than actually conduct such programs, since in most cases the learning takes place outside of the work environment, usually in a university setting. A third reason for focusing more on the training and development functions in the case study portion of the project was that corporate efforts at management education are generally aimed at executive level positions in the organization rather than entry level positions.

The vast majority of subjects across all four groups were inclined to describe the essential difference between the two remaining functions in terms of polar opposites. Management training was described as being a cognitive form of adult learning characterized by a very narrow focus on short-term, job-specific objectives. Management development, on the other hand, was portrayed as being an experiential form of adult learning characterized by a broad focus and long-range objectives that transcend the boundaries of the present position held.

Despite these fundamental differences, however, a significant number of subjects were convinced that the two functions still bear a special relationship to one another. The management development process necessarily includes certain elements of management training at the front-end. The latter not only serves to provide the person under development with the technical and administrative skills needed to hold down a given management position within the organization but also lays the groundwork for the individual to begin to think and act like a manager. Management training provides the new person with a conceptual framework and a management mind-set for approaching the responsibilities of the job. At the same time, however, the concept of management development proves to be broader than that of management training. The management development process ultimately aims at enhancing the chances for advancement within the management hierarchy and not simply improved proficiency on a present assignment. Development seeks to improve generic management competencies such as problem-solving, decision-making, leadership and other skills needed to be successful in a management position through the planned use of rotational assignments, special project work, developmental performance reviews, coaching, and other tactics proven to be effective in promoting growth as a management person.

The confirmation of real and essential differences among these three functions has at least one important implication for the field of adult learning or Human Resource Development. If the training, development, and education functions truly serve very different purposes within the corporation, then special attention should be devoted to the manner in which each function is managed. Real differences in the essential nature of these functions impact the structural design and contents of the programs offered; they impact the manner in which these programs are conducted and administered; and they impact the way in which the final results are measured and evaluated.

#2. Where should one assign the primary locus of responsibility for managing the management development process? Thirty percent of those canvassed in the study indicated that the ultimate responsibility rests with the individual; 23% felt the immediate supervisor bears the final responsibility; and 17% identified the corporation or individual departments as being primarily responsible for managing the process. The remaining 30% indicated that the responsibility is shared either by the boss and the subordinate, by the corporation and the individual, or by the boss and the corporation. As noted earlier, virtually every one

of the subjects interviewed indicated that he or she felt unduly constrained in attempting to identify a single locus of responsibility for managing the overall process. In the final analysis, therefore, it would appear that the proper response to this question is that it is ultimately a shared responsibility, with each of the three constituencies held accountable for the management of different aspects of the process. The corporation, for its part, is primarily responsible for providing all of the resources and support systems needed for new managers to realize their full potential during their formative years in the business. The immediate supervisor bears a responsibility for working closely with the new manager in identifying specific developmental needs, in devising a set of planned developmental activities, in providing feedback and coaching, and in serving as a role model. Finally, the individual under development is expected to take the initiative in engaging in developmental activities and to assume responsibility for taking full advantage of opportunities for growth and development provided by the boss and the corporation. A number of subjects suggested that, with the passage of time, the individual should be expected to assume an increasing amount of responsibility so that, in the end, development becomes self-development.

#3. Which set or sets of employees should be considered the primary target group or groups for corporate efforts at management development? The findings show that those interviewed were in universal agreement that new managers in the business should be considered the primary target population for corporate development programs since the members of this group stand in the greatest need of being exposed to development techniques and activities. Formal management development programs, it was indicated, play an important role in facilitating the difficult transition from a collegiate to a corporate culture or from a non-management to a management culture. These programs also provide the new management person with the knowledge and skill needed to handle the responsibilities of a first management job and serve to lay the groundwork for continued growth and development as a manager in the business.

A substantial number of subjects across all four groups also identified a second target group for corporate efforts at management development composed of talented individuals who have given evidence of being able to progress further within the ranks of the management hierarchy early in their career. High potential individuals, it was suggested, who have completed an initial management development program

should be provided with further opportunities to demonstrate their abilities in some type of special management development program.

Finally, a concern was voiced by a small number of subjects, mainly within the HRD staff specialist group, that insufficient attention has been paid to the development needs of the vast mass of low level managers who fall outside of the categories of new and high potential managers. This large group of veteran managers who remain undeveloped in some respects, it was suggested, should be viewed as an important third target population for corporate efforts at management development.

In the final analysis, few would quarrel with the contention that all new managers in the business should be considered as primary candidates for company-sponsored management development programs. With respect to the second proposed target population, it should be noted that, while this particular project was being completed, the company introduced a new development program entitled the Corporate Leaders Program. This most recent attempt to promote management growth and development within the organization provides high potential managers who are judged to have exceptional talent

with opportunities to engage in a wide variety of major corporate projects as a means of demonstrating their ability to advance to a higher management position. With respect to the proposal that a third target population exists, some might argue that a realistic approach to the issue of continuing efforts at management development would involve the recognition that the majority of managers in any company are going to be classified as management workhorses rather than management stars and that, as a result, corporate management development programs should be focused on those who give the greatest indication of being able to advance within the management ranks.

#4. Which specific management competencies can or cannot be improved to a significant degree through training, practice, and coaching within the boundaries of a formal management development program? There was universal agreement among all of those canvassed in all four stakeholder groups that two skills, namely oral and written communication skills, can be remarkably improved as a result of formal instruction and practice. Beyond that point, however, there was very little agreement regarding other management skills that would fall under this category. In the opinion of the majority of those surveyed, in order for the new man-

agement person to benefit in any meaningful way from participation in a development program, he or she must already possess, in an undeveloped state, all of the skills needed to be successful in a management position. In order to profit from the experience, therefore the new management person must already have some degree of leadership ability, decision-making ability, and organizing and planning ability, and other abilities judged to be important management competencies.

On the other hand, a small number of subjects defended the view that any individual of average intelligence is able to develop the full range of skills needed to be successful in a management position, provided he or she has the proper motivation to achieve.

In the final analysis, then, the question regarding which management skills, if any, can be significantly improved through participation in a formal development program remains essentially unanswered by the subjects in the study. The majority of those in the sample, consciously or unconsciously, agree in principle with the traditional AT&T approach to the issue of management development. As noted in chapter two, the corporate staff at AT&T, over the past few

decades, has adopted the position that skills essential to success in a management position either emerge or are acquired relatively early in life and then tend to remain stable over time. Individuals, therefore, entering a corporate management development program either possess these skills at the outset or they do not. If they possess the skills in an undeveloped state, then it remains possible for these skills to be developed through formal and informal efforts at improvement. If, on the other hand, an individual enters the company without possessing the necessary skills in at least an undeveloped state, then it is extremely unlikely that he or she will acquire the competencies needed to be effective in a management position.

#5. What are some of the more important personal, situational, and environmental factors that prove to have a determining influence on the ultimate success or failure of corporate efforts at management development? The personal or individual variables cited most often by the subjects in the study included such factors as goal orientation, self-image, drive, initiative, and ambition. Those who exhibit these characteristics to a high degree, it was observed, tend to move further and faster in the corporate hierarchy than those who do not.

The majority of subjects in all four groups were in strong agreement that three situational factors prove to have a particularly strong influence on the outcomes of efforts at management development. One important situational factor is the nature of the first job and the types of work assignments given to the management trainee during the first year on the job. In order for real growth and development to take place, the new management person must see the situation as being meaningful and challenging. A second situational factor is the character of the boss-subordinate relationship. The role played by the first boss in the development process, it was pointed out, is critical to ultimate success or failure in this arena. A third situational factor identified by a majority of subjects is the role played by peer interactions in the process. Experience has shown that peer interactions are powerful forces that serve either to promote or hinder growth and development as a management person.

With respect to the last part of the question, the findings suggest that environmental factors appear to play a relatively minor role in shaping the final outcomes of formal efforts at management development.

In the end, therefore, a first pass through the data surfaces a meaningful response to four of the five questions that gave rise to this investigation. The only question that remains unanswered is the one pertaining to management skill development. A more detailed analysis of the data, however, reveals that it is possible to penetrate still further the surface phenomenon of management development and identify at least six different forms of adult learning uniquely associated with activities tied to the development function.

Distinctive Learning Outcomes

A comprehensive and detailed review of the reflections of all 53 subjects on the topic of management development indicates that the growth and development of the management trainee is closely related to growth and development as a person in a new and different environment. Just as the training and education functions appear to result in two uniquely different sets of adult learning outcomes, the evidence suggests that participation in management development activities gives rise to a third distinct set of adult learning outcomes.

#1. One type of adult learning that emanates from efforts at management development in a large corporate setting is the learning required in order for one to adjust successfully to a radically new and different social and cultural environments. Entry into a first management job represents a very significant step in the career development of an individual. It is a move that requires learning how to operate effectively under a very different set of conditions. In the case of an individual being promoted into a management position from the non-management ranks, this move requires a radical shift in perspective and values. While the individual need not learn to adjust to a new corporate culture, he or she must learn to think and act like a manager. In the case of the new college hire, it is necessary for the individual to learn how to make the transition from an academic culture to a corporate culture and how to begin to think and operate as a manager in a business unit. While management training activities are able to provide the new manager with a conceptual framework from which to operate and some of the basic skills needed to be successful in a management position, it is only by functioning as a manager under actual work conditions that the management trainee learns how to complete the transition from one world to another.

The identification of this type of learning in the development process makes it possible for key players in the process to promote the desired learning outcomes. Formal management development programs can be used to play an important 'rite-of-passage' role by helping individuals make the transition from a collegiate environment to corporate environment or from a non-management culture to a management culture. During the first few months on the job the new management person is exposed to new ways of doing things, to new sets of values and expected behaviors, to new ways of establishing priorities and setting objectives. The move into a first management job can be made easier if the transition issue is directly addressed at the outset and program participants given an opportunity to discuss ways of dealing with the situation.

#2. Another form of adult learning that is uniquely associated with the results of the management development process is the learning related to becoming an effective subordinate and ultimately becoming an effective boss. In the subordinate role, the new manager must learn how to establish an effective working relationship with his or her immediate supervisor in carrying out current job responsibilities. This particular type of learning proves to be

critical not only during the formative period of development in business but also during the later stages of career development. Learning how to deal effectively with one's boss, especially one's first boss, is an important skill. The comments of some of the subjects in this study on this topic are reinforced by the findings of a longitudinal study of management effectiveness conducted within the Bell System between 1956 and 1974 which concluded that the first boss has a determining effect on job performance, job satisfaction, and the career development of the new management person. From the very outset, therefore, the management trainee must learn how to size up the boss, determine what is expected by way of acceptable job performance, adjust to the particular management style of the boss, and learn how to learn from what the boss has to offer.

At the same time, however, that the management trainee is learning how to become an effective subordinate and how to benefit from the experience, he or she is also learning how to become an effective boss either on the present assignment or at some time in the future. Consciously or unconsciously, the management trainee attempts to model his or her management style on that of the first boss. It is during this period that the new person also learns to observe

and evaluate the management style of other bosses in the business unit or department as part of learning how to deal effectively with subordinates in a variety of situations. While in the program, the new manager is provided with opportunities to apply some of the principles and techniques of effective management under real world conditions. It is during this period that the management trainee learns how to manage time, finances, people, and work activities.

#3. A third type of adult learning stemming from participation in the activities of a formal management development program centers around learning how to assess one's own particular strengths and weaknesses with respect to the job at hand and the generic competencies needed to be successful in any management position. Working with the boss, the new management person learns how to conduct a detailed task analysis of the job to determine the specific skill and knowledge required for managing the position effectively and how to conduct a self-inventory and self-assessment of skills as a means of measuring current levels of proficiency. This particular form of adult learning, once again, proves to be important not only in achieving success in one's first management job but also later in one's career as a management person.

#4. A fourth form of adult learning emanating from efforts at management development is that of learning how to establish an effective working relationship with members of the peer group in the work unit. The new manager experiences the need to find ways to gain the respect and acceptance of others in the work group. He or she also needs to learn how to become a team player and how to cooperate with others in the pursuit of common goals and objectives in a business setting. This involves learning how to deal effectively with both the task and the relationship aspects of work assignments. The management trainee must also learn how to deal with competition---both healthy and harmful competition---and how to deal with conflict. This type of learning, acquired early in the development process, like most of the other forms of adult learning linked to the management development process, proves to have a relevance to all subsequent stages in the career development.

#5. Finally, a fifth form of learning uniquely associated with the outcomes of efforts at management development relates to learning how to assume responsibility for the management of the development process once the formal program supports are removed. During the initial stage of development, the management trainee needs to start learning

how to engage in self-developmental activities once the program requirements have been completed. It is during this period of time that the new management person learns to lay the groundwork for continuing self-improvement and career development as a manager in the business.

The data surfaced in the case study results suggest that these five types of adult learning are characteristic of the management development function, as distinguished from the learning outcomes of the training and education functions. Given the critical importance of these particular learning outcomes both during the formative years in business and for subsequent development as a management person, it would appear that the quality of the results of efforts at management development would be significantly improved if key players in the process, particularly program participants, were consciously aware of the expected learning outcomes.

A third pass through the data reveals that the findings not only offer some meaningful answers to the questions raised in the beginning and some clarity regarding the precise nature of the adult learning outcomes associated with the management development process but also highlight the

conditions that must be put in place if corporate management development programs are to be successful.

Major Conditions Checklist

Success factor analysis of the phenomenon of management development as described in detail by individuals in the four major stakeholder groups indicates that some conditions are far more effective than others in promoting real growth and development under field conditions in a large corporate setting and hence warrant the special attention of key players in the process. The effective management of these particular factors significantly increases the chances of success of efforts at management development. The following ten conditions or process factors, in the judgment of the majority of the subjects in the study, appear to be the most critical in determining program outcomes.

#1. A sine qua non pre-condition for any real growth and development to occur is the creation of a meaningful job for the new management person. This means that the individual should not be put into a particular position simply to fill a vacancy in a given business unit within the department. A meaningful job implies a proper match between the

needs of the corporation and the particular interests, talents, and abilities of the new management person. In order for development to take place, the management trainee needs to view the position as offering opportunities to make meaningful contributions to the primary work of the business unit thereby demonstrating his or her worth to the corporation.

#2. A second factor that proves to have a determining effect on development at the front-end of the process involves boss selection and boss preparation for assuming the responsibilities of shepherding the management trainee through a complex set of planned activities designed to improve his or her competence as a manager in the business. The results of the study underscore a well-documented fact, namely the fact that the role played by the first boss in shaping the final outcomes of efforts at management development is an extremely critical one. The first boss is in a unique position to either make or break the process. If the first boss is adept at developing subordinates---particularly those who are assuming management responsibilities for the first time---and devotes sufficient attention to the development needs of the new person, then the chances of a successful outcome are significantly increased. If, on the

other hand, the immediate supervisor is not skilled in the art of developing subordinates, and consequently does not provide meaningful work assignments, special projects, coaching, and some of the other conditions that prove to be favorable to growth and development in a management position, it will be difficult for the new manager to develop the full range of competencies needed to manage the position effectively and to enhance the chances of advancement within the management hierarchy.

A number of subjects called attention to the fact that it cannot legitimately be assumed that every immediate supervisor, simply by virtue of being the boss, necessarily possesses the interest, the ability, and the commitment to carry out effectively the functional roles of guide, mentor, coach, resource person, evaluator, and primary role model for the new person under development. In order for initial efforts at management development to succeed, therefore, it is imperative that careful attention be paid to the manner in which the immediate supervisors of management trainees are selected and trained to carry out their responsibilities in this regard.

#3. A third condition surfaced in the study is the

need to maintain some form of quality control over the process. Subjects across all four constituency groups were in strong agreement that the evaluation of the boss' ability to develop subordinates would improve the quality of the results of efforts at management development in all departments. One way of insuring that sufficient attention is directed to the development needs of the new manager, it was suggested, would be to add the development of subordinates to the list of variables on the yearly performance appraisal form. The addition of this measure, it was argued, would encourage bosses to take the development needs of subordinates more seriously and consequently strive to acquire the skills needed to be successful in this arena. At the same time, this addition would increase opportunities for recognition and reward for those whose efforts in this direction prove to be particularly successful. Some of the strongest proponents of this move, it should be noted, were to be found in the immediate supervisor group.

#4. Another set of conditions that prove to have a strong bearing on the final outcomes of formal management development programs are carefully planned orientation sessions and periodic experience-sharing sessions. Orientation sessions are important because they set the tone for the en-

tire process. In addition to providing the management trainee with important factual information regarding such things as salary, benefits, dress codes, corporate philosophy, company regulations, rules of conduct, and administrative procedures, the orientation session serves to set the stage for entering into a wide range of activities designed to improve the skills needed to become an effective manager in the business. Experience-sharing sessions, on the other hand, prove to be very useful vehicles for facilitating the difficult transition from a collegiate culture or a non-management culture to the realities of the management world. These sessions provide program participants with opportunities to compare notes on what is happening. They also lay the groundwork for establishing a network of personal contacts both inside and outside the department.

#5. A fifth condition that must be put in place if efforts at management development are to bear fruit is the drafting and implementation of a comprehensive development plan tailored to meet the individual needs of the person under development. A first step in the creation of such a plan is a task analysis of the position carried out by the boss and the subordinate working together to identify all of the competencies needed to be successful in managing the po-

sition. A detailed investigation into the individual steps taken in carrying out the various job responsibilities surfaces the knowledge and skills needed to accomplish these tasks. By comparing this list of required competencies with a list of what the job incumbent is already able to do, it is possible to draft a detailed blueprint of developmental activities designed to assist the new manager in utilizing his or her talents and in becoming proficient in all areas. The final plan should include such proven development techniques as special reading assignments, management training programs, rotational assignments, special projects, and developmental performance reviews.

#6. The nature and character of the particular work assignments given to the management trainee during the first year on the job represent another set of conditions that strongly influence the outcomes of efforts at management development. The subjects in the study generally agreed that the various assignments given to the management trainee during this period should be perceived by the job incumbent as being meaningful, challenging, and rewarding. It is important for the new manager to view task assignments during this period as significant work activities providing real opportunities to demonstrate his or her ability to make val-

uable contributions to the business unit of which he or she is a part. It is also important that the performance objectives set during this period be realistic and achievable. The positive reinforcement furnished by seeing the successful results of one's efforts proves to be a particularly critical condition for promoting growth and development as a management person.

#7. Quarterly or periodic job performance reviews, in the judgment of the majority of subjects in all four groups, constitute another important condition for shaping the results of efforts at management development. The feedback information on job performance, the coaching advice, and the constructive criticism contained in developmental performance reviews facilitate growth and development by enabling the new manager to learn quickly and in stages. These one-on-one performance review sessions serve to keep the full range of improvement objectives in clear focus; they help assess progress toward the goal; and they provide opportunities to discuss ways of improving job performance before too much harm has been done. An added benefit of such sessions is that they prepare the management trainee to meet the demands of the annual performance review conducted with every management person in the organization.

#8. Another set of conditions that prove to have a strong bearing on the ultimate results of corporate efforts at management development relate to support systems. The company in general, and the HRD organization in particular, are expected to demonstrate that the corporation truly values the development of human resources by providing encouragement and recognition for new managers, by supporting departmental efforts at management development, and by providing third-party tracking and monitoring of the process as a means of insuring that sufficient attention is given to the improvement needs of the new management person.

#9. A ninth factor to be considered in the management of the development process is the need for all of the key players in the process to be consciously aware of who is responsible for what in the overall management of the process. There was strong agreement among those surveyed that the responsibility for managing the process is, in the final analysis, a shared responsibility with different players being held accountable for different dimensions of the process. The corporation, for its part, is held accountable for providing company support, for overseeing boss selection and preparation, and for involving trained HRD professionals in the process. The immediate supervisor, on the other hand,

is held responsible for drafting a comprehensive development plan tailored to the needs of the new management person, for conducting periodic job performance reviews, and for carrying out a number of different functional roles including coach, mentor, support system, resource person, evaluator, and primary role model for the new manager. Finally, the individual under development is held accountable for taking the initiative in engaging in developmental work activities, for seizing opportunities to develop new competencies, and for preparing himself or herself to assume full responsibility for development once the formal program requirements have been completed.

#10. A tenth condition singled out by a number of subjects in the study as warranting special attention and consideration was the need to narrow down the focus on which specific employees constitute the primary target populations for corporate efforts at management development. The findings clearly indicate that it is possible to identify at least three distinct target groups at lower levels of the management hierarchy, each with a very different set of developmental needs. One group includes all new college hires and those promoted into management positions from the ranks of non-management. A second group includes high potential

candidates or those individuals who have given some evidence of being able to advance rather quickly within the management ranks and assume increased responsibilities. And finally, there is the vast mass of lower-level managers who have completed an initial management development program but stand in need of further development if both they and the corporation are to become more effective.

The results of the study show that, while it is possible to have more than one primary target population for corporate efforts at management development, the values and priorities of the organization will dictate the actual number of targeted groups. The findings also underscore the need to differentiate the development needs of different target populations.

A review of this checklist of ten critical success factors relating to the effective management of the development process provides no new insights into the conditions that should be put in place in order for the management development process to achieve maximum results. The findings do, however, call attention to the fact that such conditions can be easily overlooked in actual practice. According to the testimony of every one of the graduates of the Initial Man-

agement Development Program developed by AT&T and sponsored by the Regional Bell Operating Company in the study during the 1960s and the early 1970s, virtually none of these conditions were present in the program in which they participated. Indeed, it would appear that only during the past four or five years has serious attention focused on building in a complete set of favorable conditions in company-sponsored development programs.

Further Research Directions

In addition to furnishing some meaningful answers to the questions that gave rise to the study in the first place, and in addition to highlighting some of the distinctive forms of adult learning that emanate from efforts at management development and generating a useful checklist of conditions that strongly influence the development process, the findings also indicate areas requiring deeper investigation. It is possible to identify at least three aspects of management development that warrant further attention. First, the study failed to surface any new information around the question of which specific management competencies should be considered essential for success in a management position or around the question of which specific man-

agement competencies can be developed to a significant degree as a result of formal training, practice, and coaching. This dimension of the problem, therefore, remains unresolved.

As noted earlier, the majority of subjects in the study used the list of eight variables on the annual performance appraisal form as a primary point of reference in addressing the issue of developing management competencies. These performance measurements included oral communication, written communication, flexibility, performance stability, decision-making, leadership, organizing and planning, and inner work standards. All of these variables, as pointed out in chapter two, derive from AT&T's pioneering work with the assessment center concept in the mid-50s. In the original design, it should be noted, these particular variables were judged to be indicators of potential not performance. The core principle behind their use was that if an individual gave evidence of possessing these abilities to a relatively high degree, then it would be reasonable to assume that he or she would be able to perform well in a management position at some time in the future. All of these variables, moreover, were originally devised in a military setting and later adapted to fit a business setting. All of this suggests that more research is needed with respect to the question of

which competencies should be regarded as essential to success in a management position and the further question of which specific competencies on this list can or cannot be developed. In addition, while this study focused on initial management development, further research is needed regarding the application of the concept at various levels in the management hierarchy.

A second area requiring additional research into the phenomenon of management development focuses on the impact that the changing nature of the business world currently appears to be having on the types of skills needed to manage effectively in a new and different environment. The recent deregulation of a number of industries such as banking, transportation, construction, and telecommunications has had a strong impact on the way in which these industries are managed. Deregulation has led to increased competition which, in turn, has surfaced the importance of certain management competencies that extend beyond the core competencies noted above, competencies such as strategic planning, financial analysis, and marketing skills. Diversification, mergers, and acquisitions are also having an impact on the kinds of skills needed to be effective in a management position.

Still another factor driving the need to take a closer look at the management skills needed to function in the modern world is a clear trend in the direction of having fewer layers of management, with decision-making pushed down to lower levels, and having individual managers supervise more people at every level.

Finally, a third area for further research centers around the need to examine some of the ways in which individual departments or business units in a given company shape the final outcomes of the management development process. Some of the data surfaced in the study suggest that the nature of the functions supervised and the values and priorities of different departments determine what will be considered effective management style. A question to be explored, therefore, is whether the concept of effective management is a univocal one, cutting across such disciplines as engineering, marketing, sales, finance, installation, and so forth, or one that derives its meaning from a particular organizational context.

Conclusion

The final results of this case study, in one sense, may

be considered somewhat disappointing because the findings do not provide any strikingly new insights into the effective management of the management development process. In another sense, however, the findings prove to be useful to both corporate decision-makers and information-users in at least three ways. First, the information surfaced in the project serves to provide some meaningful answers to most of the questions raised in the literature regarding the underlying nature and character of the management development function. The only major question that remains unanswered relates to which specific management competencies, if any, can be significantly improved as a result of formal training, practice, and coaching. The remaining four questions centering around the relationship of development to training and education, the locus of responsibility for managing the process, the primary target population for management development programs, and critical factors that have a direct bearing on the outcomes of efforts at management development are all answered to some degree of satisfaction.

Second, the findings show that it is possible to penetrate beyond the surface phenomenon of the development process and identify at least five forms of adult learning that are characteristic of the development function as op-

posed to the training and education functions. These learning outcomes relate to learning how to make the transition into a first management job, how to become an effective supervisor, how to identify the competencies needed to manage a particular job, how to collaborate and cooperate with peers, and how to manage one's own development.

Finally, the results of the study provide a comprehensive checklist of ten key factors or primary conditions that must be managed properly if all of the major stakeholders in the process are to benefit fully from efforts at management development.

A core assumption underlying this research project as noted at the outset was that, if the aphorism "Knowledge is power" has any validity, then an increased understanding of the way in which the management development process actually operates under field conditions in a large corporate setting should make it possible for decision-makers and information-users in business and industry to derive maximum benefits from efforts at management development. The findings, however, suggest that knowledge is not enough in this instance. A knowledge of the key factors involved in the development process proves to be a necessary but insufficient condition

for increasing the probability of successful results in this domain. The experience of the subjects in the program graduate group who had participated in the Initial Management Development Program during the 1960s and the early 1970s testifies to this fact. In their opinion, few, if any, of the conditions for promoting management growth and development outlined above were present in these early programs developed by AT&T and sponsored by the Bell Operating Companies. And yet it was AT&T that pioneered the field of HRD in the areas of college recruiting, training and education, assessment of management potential, and management development.

In the final analysis, then, the results of this case study may prove to be useful to those with a vested interest in deriving maximum benefit from corporate efforts at management development. The findings reinforce earlier insights into the effective management of the development process; they provide some meaningful answers to four of the five questions that gave rise to the study; they identify specific forms of adult learning outcomes uniquely associated with efforts at management development; and they furnish a comprehensive checklist of ten conditions that should be put in place if the management development function is to

be managed effectively. The findings may also prove to have a validity and relevance that transcend the company context in which the study was conducted, since it is reasonable to assume that the experiences of the 53 subjects in the study are somewhat representative of the four major stakeholder groups in any large corporation attempting to promote management growth and development.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Alfred, T.M. (1967), Choice of checkers in manpower management. Harvard Business Review, (Jan.-Feb.), 157-168.
- Anderson, R. (1981). Training in the bell system. Training and Development Journal, (March), 78-80.
- Askenas, R.N. & Schaffer, R.H. (1979). Management training for bottom-line results. Training and Development Journal, (Aug.), 17-22.
- AT&T management staffing and development --- A look at middle managers: Findings from the advanced management potential assessment process. Unpublished report circulated within the Bell System.
- Barton, P. (1982). Worklife transitions: The adult learning Connection. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Bass, B.M. & Vaughm, J.A. (1966). Training in industry: The management of learning. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Beck, R. (1981). Career patterns: The liberal arts major in bell system management. Paper read before the Association of American Colleges, Washington, D.C., (March, 4).
- Berger, L.A. (1976). A DEW line for training and development: The needs analysis survey. The Personnel Administrator, (Nov.), 51-55.
- Birmingham, J. & Byars, L.L. (1982). A systematic approach to employee development in a public utility. Public Utility Fortnightly, (Aug., 5), 22-26.
- Blount, F. (1980). The corporate university: Training and education in the bell system. Testimony presented to the Senate Committee on Labor and Human Resources, June 6-7, 1979. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 308-311.
- Boettinger, H.M. (1975). Is management really an art? Harvard Business Review. (Jan.-Feb.), 54-64.
- Bollettino, R. (1980). Why the training consultant need not be a subject matter specialist. N.S.P.I. Journal, (June), 28-33.

- Bowden, G.T. & Greenleaf, R.K. (1970). The study of the humanities as an approach to executive development. New York: AT&T.
- Bowen, C.P. (1973). Let's put realism into management development. Harvard Business Review, (July-Aug.), 80-87.
- Branscomb, L.M. & Gilmore, P. (1975). Education in private industry. Daedalus, (Winter), 222-233.
- Bray, D.W., Campbell, R.J. & Grant, D.L. (1974). Formative years in business: A long-term AT&T study of managerial lives. New York: Wiley.
- Bray, D.W. (1975). Management development without frills. The Conference Board, (Sept.), 47-50.
- Brazzial, W.F. (1981). College-Corporate partnerships in higher education. Educational Record, (Spring), 50-52.
- Brooks, J. (1975). Telephone: The first 100 years. New York: Harper & Row.
- Bunker, K.A. & Cohen, S.L. (1978). Evaluating organizational training efforts; Ignorance or bliss? Training and Development Journal, (Aug.), 4-11.
- Burns, R.W. (1957). The critical incident technique as an instrument of educational research: A philosophical analysis. Unpublished doctoral dissertation: Stanford University.
- Campbell, J.P., Dunnette, M.D., Lawler, E.E., & Weick, K.E. (1970). Managerial behavior, performance and effectiveness. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Cashel, W.S. (1978). Human resources planning in the bell system. Human Resource Planning, (Spring), 59-65.
- Chalofsky, N. & Lincoln, C.I. (1983). Up the HRD ladder: A guide for professional growth. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Chandler, W.P. (1972). A lot of learning is a dangerous thing. Harvard Business Review, (March-April), 122-131.
- Chicci, D.L. (1979). Four steps to an organizational human resource plan. Personal Journal. (June), 390-394.

- Clement, R.W. & Aranda, E.K. (1982). Evaluating management training: A contingency approach. Training and Development Journal, (August), 39-43.
- Craig, R.L. (Ed). (1976). New Training and Development Handbook. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Craig, R.L. & Evers, C.J. (1981). Employers as educators: The shadow education system. In G. Gold 9Ed.), Business in higher education. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Cross, K.P. (1981). New Frontiers for higher education: Business and the profession. Current Issues in Higher Education, 3, 1-7.
- Crotty, P.T. (1974). Development programs for mature managers. Business Horizons. (Dec.,). 80-86.
- Darkenwald, G.G. (1983). Perspectives of business and industry on cooperative programming with educational institutions. Adult Education Quarterly, (Summer), 230-243.
- Deal, T. & Kennedy, A. (1982). Corporate cultures: The rites and rituals of corporate life. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- DeCarlo, C. & Robinson, O. (1966). Education in business and industry. New York: Center for Applied Research in Education.
- Desatnick, R.L. (1970). A concise guide to management development. New York: AMACOM.
- Desatnick, R.L. (1972). Innovative human resource management. New York: American Management Association.
- Devanna, M.A., Fombrun, C.J. & Tichy, N.M. (1981). Human resource management: A strategic approach. Organizational Dynamics, (Winter), 51-67.
- Digman, L.A. (1978). How well-managed organizations develop their executives. Organizational Dynamics, (Fall), 63-80.
- Digman, L.A. (1980). How companies evaluate management development programs. Human Resource Management, (Summer), 9-13.

- Digman, L.A. (1980). Determining management development needs. Human Resource Management, (Winter), 9-16.
- Dinsmore, F.W. (1975). Developing tomorrow's managers today. New York: AMACOM.
- Doeringer, P.B., (Ed.), (1981). Workplace perspectives on education and training. Boston: Martinus Nijhoff Publ.
- Doll, R.C. (1980). Speculations on the meaning of trend toward corporate education. Phi Delta Kappan, (Jan.), 333-337.
- Downey, H.K. & Ireland, R.D. (1979). Quantitative versus qualitative: The case of environmental assessment in organizational studies. Administrative Science Quarterly, vol. 24, 630-637.
- Drucker, P.F. (1981). Through the looking glass; Images of business and academe. N.S.P.I. Journal, (Feb.), 6-7.
- English, J. & Marchione, A. (1977). Nine steps in management development. Business Horizons, (June), 88-94.
- Eurich, N.P. (1985). Corporate classrooms: The learning Business. Princeton, NJ: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.
- Farmer, J.A. (1983). The contribution of adult and continuing education specialists to human resources development (HRD) teams. Lifelong learning: The Adult Years, (June), 20-22.
- Ferguson, L.L. (1966). Better management of managers' careers. Harvard Business Review, (March-April), 139-153.
- Foltz, R., Rosenberg, K. & Foehrenbach, j. (1982). Senior Management views the human resource function. The Personnel Administrator, (Sept.), 37-51.
- Freedman, R.D., Cooper, G.L. & Stumpf, S. (1982). Management education: Issues in theory, research and practice. Chichester, England: John Wiley & Sons.
- Fresina, A.J. & Kerr, M.E. (1977). The training and development curriculum in higher education. Training and Development Journal, 38-42.

- Galosy, J.R. (1983). Curriculum design for management training. Training and Development Journal, (Jan.), 48-51.
- Gayeski, D. (1981). Educating the training professional. Training and Development Journal, (Aug.), 60-66.
- Gilbert, T. (1976). The high cost of knowledge. Personnel, (March-April), 11-23.
- Gilbert, T. (1976). Training: The \$100 billion opportunity. Training and Development Journal, (Nov.), 3-8.
- Ginzberg, E.P. (1975). The manpower connection: Education and work. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Glaser, R. (1966). Training in industry. In B. von Haller Gilmen (Ed.), Industrial Psychology. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Gleazer, E.J. (1977). Training and community colleges. Training and Development Journal, (June), 18-20.
- Gold, G.G. (Ed.), (1981). "Business and higher education: Towards new alliances". San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Goldstein, H. (1979). Training and education in industry. Washington, DC: National Manpower Institute.
- Goldstein, I.L. (1974). Training: Program development and Evaluation. Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.
- Goldstein, I.L. (1980). Training in work organizations. Annual Review of Psychology, 229-272.
- Guba, E.G. & Lincoln, Y.S. (1982). Epistemological and methodological bases of naturalistic inquiry. Educational Communication and Technology Journal, (Winter), 235-350.
- Guba, E.G. & Lincoln, Y.S. (1981). Effective evaluation. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Hall, D.T. (1977). Careers in organizations. Los Angeles: Goodyear.
- Hall, D.T. & Hall, F.S. (1976). What's new in career management? Organizational Dynamics, (Summer), 17-33.

- Harmon, P. (1981). The conceptualization of instructional design. N.S.P.I. Journal, (June), 20-23.
- Hawrylyshyn, B. (1975). Management education---A conceptual framework. In B. Taylor and G. Lippitt (Eds.), Management development training handbook. Maidenhead, England: McGraw-Hill.
- Headley, R.A. (1978). How to design a management development steering committee. Training and Development Journal, (June), 3-8.
- Heim, P. (1981, Nov.). Management development: Why it fails. Paper presented at the 67th Annual Meeting of the Speech Communication Association in Anaheim, CA.
- Hinrichs, J.R. (1970). Two approaches to filling the management gap: Management selection vs. management development. Personnel Journal, (Dec.). 1008-1014.
- Hodge, B.J., Anthony, W.P. & Swindle, O. (1976). Management development: 12 months later. The Personnel Administrator, (Sept.), 49-55.
- Hoffman, F.O. (1983). Is management development doing the job? Training and Development Journal, (Jan.), 34-39.
- Houle, C.O. (1972). The design of education. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- House, R.J. (1963). Management development is a game. Harvard Business Review, (July-Aug.), 43-56.
- House, R.J. (1967). Management development: Design, evaluation and implementation. An Arbor, MI: Bureau of Industrial Relations.
- Hungerford, C.R. & Leidner, D. (1982). Industry and education cooperation---A myth? N.S.P.I. Journal, (June), 27-28.
- Hutchinson, p.G. & Chalofsky, N. (1981). Careers in human resource development. Training and Development Journal, 12-15.
- Jick, T. (1979). Mixing qualitative and quantitative methods: Triangulation in action. Administrative Science Quarterly, vol. 24, 602-611.

- Jobe, E.D., Boxx, W.R. & Howell, D.L. (1979). A customized approach to management development. Personnel Journal, (March), 150-153.
- Jones, F.H. (1978). Is another management training and development program the answer? Training and Development Journal, (Feb.), 50-51.
- Just, A.R. (1980). Interview with W. Frank Blount, AVP-Training and Education, AT&T. Forum, (Spring), 10-13.
- Kacher, J.D. (1973). Development of a management training program at R.C.A. Training and Development Journal, (May), 3-7.
- Kappel, F.R. (1964). Business purpose and performance: New York: Duell, Sloan and Pearce.
- Katz, R.L. (1974). Skills of an effective administrator. Harvard Business Review, (Sept.-Oct.), 90-102.
- Kikert, R. (1978). An improvement cycle for human resource development. Training and Development Journal, (July), 16-18.
- Knoczal, E.F. (1978). Planning for training at AT&T. Training and Development Journal, (April), 3-7.
- Knowles, M. (1979). Where does training fit into the adult education field? Training and Development Journal, (Dec.), 40-42.
- Kur, C.E. & Pedler, M.J. (1982). Innovative management development. Training and Development Journal, (June), 88-96.
- Laird, D. (1978). Approaches to training and development. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Lein, L. (1979). Reviewing your training and development activities. Personnel Journal, (Nov.), 791-807.
- Levinson, H. (1980). Criteria for choosing chief executives. Harvard Business Review, (July-Aug.), 113-120.
- Levinson, H. (1981). Executive development: What you need to know. Training and Development Journal, (Sept.), 84-95.

- Livingston, J.S. (1969). Pymalion in management. Harvard Business Review, (July-Aug.), 81-89.
- Livingston, J.S. (1971). Myth of the well-educated manager. Harvard Business Review, (Jan.-Feb.), 79-89.
- Livingston, J.S. (1983). New trends in applied management development. Training and Development Journal, (Jan.), 15-24.
- Loomis, C. (1979). AT&T in the throes of equal employment. Fortune, (Jan.), 45-47.
- Ludeman, B. (1977). Human resource development in the 70's. Training and Development Journal, (May), 18-22.
- Lusterman, S. (1977). Education in industry. New York: The Conference Board.
- Luxenberg, S. (1978/79). Education at AT&T. Change, (Dec.-Jan.), 26-35.
- Luxenberg, S. (1980). AT&T and Citicorp: Prototypes in job training among large corporations. Phi Delta Kappan, (Jan.), 314-317.
- Lyton, E.A. (1984). The missing connection between business and education. New York: Macmillan.
- MacDonald, C.R. (1982). Performance-based supervisory development---Adapted from a major AT&T study. Amherst, MA: Human Resource Development Press.
- Maeroff, G.I. (1981). Business is cutting into the market. The New York Times, (Sunday, Aug. 30), p. col. 2.
- Maher, W.R. (1978). Educating the executive of the future. Training and Development Journal, (July), 50-53.
- Main, J. (1982). The executive yearn to learn. Fortune, (May 3), 234-248.
- Mandt, E.J. (1979). A basic model of manager development. Personnel Journal, (June), 395-400.
- Mandt, E.J. (1982). The failure of business education---And what to do about it. Management Review, (Aug.), 47-52.

- Mant, A. (1981). The dynamics of management education. Aldershot, England: Gower Publ.
- McGehee, N. & Thayer, P.W. (1961). Training in business and industry. New York: Wiley & Sons.
- McGuire, J.W. (1982). Management theory: Retreat to the academy. Business Horizons, (July-Aug.), 31-37.
- McNanara, D.B. & Salinger, R.D. (1979). Measuring the payoff in management training. Training and Development Journal, (April), 8-10.
- McQuigg, B. (1980). The role of education in industry. Phi Delta Kappan, (Jan.), 324-325.
- Miller, D.B. (1978). Career planning and management in organizations. Advanced Management Journal, (Spring), 33-43.
- Mills, D.Q. (1979). Human resources in the 1980s. Harvard Business Review, (July-Aug.), 154-162.
- Mills, T. (1975). Human resources---Why the new concern? Harvard Business Review, (March-April), 120-134.
- Miner, J.B. (1965). Studies in management education. New York: Springer Publications.
- Mintzberg, H. (1975). The manager's job: Folklore and fact. Harvard Business Review, (July-Aug.), 49-61.
- Modesitt, K.L. (1981). Retreat, endure, or advance: The impact of the third wave on training and education in industry, N.S.P.I. Journal, (Dec.), 5-10.
- Morano, R. (1973). Continuing education in industry. Personnel Journal, (Feb.), 106-112.
- Morgan, G. & Smircich, L. (1980). The case for qualitative research. Academy of Management Review, vol. 5, 491-500.
- Murray, T. (1975). Personnel---fast track to the top. Dun's Review, (April), 74-77.
- Murray, T. (1979). What price management education? Dun's Review, (March), 104-106.

- Nadler, L. (1970). Business and industry. In R.M. Smith, G.K. Aker & J.R. Kidd (Eds.), The handbook of adult education. New York: Macmillan, 315-333.
- Nadler, L. (1979). Developing human resources. Austin, TX: Learning Concepts.
- Nadler, L. (1980). A model for professional development. Training and Development Journal, (May), 14-22.
- Nadler, L. (1980). Defining the field: Is it HRD or OD? Training and Development Journal, (Dec.), 66-88.
- Nadler, L. (1981). Corporate human resources development: A management tool. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- Nadler, L. (1981). Implications of the HRD concept. Training and Development Journal, (June), 12-22.
- Nadler, L. (1982). Designing training programs. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Newman, T.J. (1975). How to develop a practical participative manager development program. Training and Development Journal, (Aug.), 36-40.
- Nichols, M. (1982). Distinguishing between education and training---And selling them both. Training/HRD, (May), 32-33.
- Nitsos, J. (1981). Industry versus education. Instructional Innovator, (Jan.), 16-17.
- Nord, W.R. & Durand, D.E. (1978). What's wrong with the human resources approach to management? Organizational Dynamics, (Winter), 13-25.
- Ordiorne, G.S. (1984). Strategic management of human resources. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Ordiorne, G.S. (1975). The hard technologies of training. Training and Development Journal, (Oct.), 3-7.
- Olson, E. & Berne, E. (1980). Academic preparation of HRD practitioners. Training and Development Journal, (May), 76-83.

- Parry, S.B. & Robinson, E.J. (1979). Management development: Training or education? Training and Development Journal, (July), 8-13.
- Peterfreund, S. (1976). Education in industry---Today and in the future. Training and Development Journal, (May), 30-40.
- Phillips, M.G. (1981). The education/training of trainers. N.S.P.I. Journal, (Feb.), 14-15.
- Pinto, P.R. & Walker, J.W. (1978). What do training and development professionals really do? Training and Development Journal, (July), 58-64.
- Pinto, P.R. & Walker, J.W. (1981). A study of professional training and development roles and competencies. New York: ASTD.
- Porter, J. (1982). Corporations that grant degrees. Business and Society Review, (Spring), 41-45.
- Recknagel, K.H. (1974). Why management training fails and how to make it succeed. Personnel Journal, (Aug.), 589-597.
- Rehder, R.R. (1982). American Business education---Is it too late to change? Sloan Management Review, (Winter), 63-71.
- Rodgers, F.P. (1971). Developing your managers: An individualized program. Personnel, (Nov.-Dec.), 38-43.
- Rosenberg, M.J. (1980). Preparing specialists for business, industry and government: Opportunities for education. Educational Technology, (Oct.), 33-37.
- Roter, B. (1973). An integrated framework for personnel utilization and management. Personnel Journal, (Dec.), 1031-1039.
- Saint, A. (1974). Learning at work: Human resources and organizational development. Chicago: Nelson-Hall.
- Sanders, P. (1982). Phenomenology: A new way of viewing organizational research. Academy of Management Review, vol. 7, 353-360.

- Schein, E.H. (1971). The individual, the organization and the career: A conceptual scheme. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, (Fall), 401-426.
- Schein, E.H. (1977). Increasing organizational effectiveness through better human resource planning and development. Sloan Management Review, (Fall), 1-20.
- Schein, E.H. (1978). Career dynamics: Matching individuals and organization needs. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Schein, E.H. (1964). How to break the college graduate. Harvard Business Review, (Nov.-Dec.), 147-155.
- Schmuckler, E. (1971). The problems involved in the establishment of a management development program. Personnel Journal, (Oct.), 790-795.
- Schwaller, A. (1980). The need for education/training programs in industry. Phi Delta Kappan, (Jan.), 322-323.
- Schwartz, I.R. (1979). Self assessment and career planning: Matching individual and organizational goals. Personnel, (Jan.-Feb.), 47-52.
- Sherwood, W.B. (1983). Developing subordinates: Critical to managers and their organization. Personnel, (Jan.-Feb.), 46-52.
- Shoemaker, H.A. (1972). The better to serve---Education in the bell system. Bell Telephone Magazine, (March-April & May-June).
- Smith, A.P. (1980). Whither T and D---And you? Training and Development Journal, (May), 88-94.
- Smith, G.B. Employer-sponsored recurrent education. Palo Alto: CA: Stanford University Press.
- Smith, N.R. (1980). Corporate training and the liberal arts. Phi delta Kappan, (Jan.), 311-313.
- Souerwine, A. (1978). Career strategies: Planning for personal growth. New York: AMACOM.
- Sparks, W. (1976). Should we educate the trainer---Or train the educator? Training, (Feb.), 31-33.

- Spitzer, D.R. (1979). Training technologists versus educational technologists: Resolving the communication gap. Educational Technology, (Dec.), 12-16.
- Spitzer, D.R. (1981). Education and development of the training professional: Problems and perspectives. N.S.P.I. Journal, (Feb.), 18-32.
- Springer, J.W. (1981). Education and training programs in the bell system. In P.B. Doeringer (Ed.), Workplace perspectives on education and training. Boston: Martinus Nijhoff Publ.
- Starcevich, M.M. & Sykes, J.A. (1982). Internal advanced management programs for executive development. The Personnel Administrator, (June), 27-33.
- Sullivan, J.F. (1977). Trends in university-based continuing education. Training and Development Journal, (March), 23-26.
- Sutton, E. (1977). Total human resources development system at AT&T. Training and Development Journal, (Jan.), 4-5.
- Taylor, B. & Lippitt, G.L. (Eds.), (1975). Management development and training handbook. Maidenhead, England: McGraw-Hill.
- Thompson, D.J. (1976). Keeping track of managers in a large corporation. Personnel, (Nov.-Dec.), 23-27.
- Tracey, W.R. (1974). Designing training and development systems. New York: American Management Association.
- Truskie, S.D. (1982). Getting the most from management development programs. Personnel Journal, (Jan.), 66-68.
- Tunstall, W.B. (1983). Cultural transition at AT&T. Sloan Management Review, (Fall), 15-26.
- Ullrich, R.H. (1977). Management development: Where the universities have gone wrong. Training and Development Journal, (Sept.), 36-38.
- VanMaanen, J. (1979). Reclaiming qualitative methods for organizational research: A preface. Administrative Science Quarterly, vol. 24, 520-526.

- Walker, J.W. (1976). Human resource planning: Managerial concerns and practices. Business Horizons, (June), 55-59.
- Walker, J.W. (1980). Human resource planning. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Walker, J.W. and Wolfe, M.N. (1978). Patterns in human resource planning practices. Human Resource Planning, 1, 189-198.
- Walters, R.W. (1978). You can't develop another. Training and Development Journal. (Sept.), 38-41.
- Warren, A.S. (1977). Personnel development and education--- Work relations at General Motors. Training and Development Journal, (Jan.), 9-11.
- Warren, M.W. (1969). Training for results: A systems approach to the development of human resources in industry. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Watson, C.E. (1979). Management development through training. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Wexley, K.N. & Latham, G.P. (1981). Developing and training human resources in organizations. Glenview, IL: Scott Foreman.
- White, T. (1979). Increasing your effectiveness as a training and development professional. Training and Development Journal, (May), 3-12.
- Wikstrom, W.S. (1964). Developing managerial competence: Changing concepts and emerging practices. New York: The Conference Board.
- Wikstrom, W.S. (1971). Manpower planning: Evolving systems. New York: The Conference Board.
- Yaney, J. (1981). The role of business programs in human resource development. N.S.P.I. Journal, (Feb.), 10-12.
- Zeira, Y. (1974). The systems approach to management development. Organizational Dynamics, (Fall), 65-80.

INTERVIEW GUIDE

HRD Specialist/Immediate Supervisor

Name _____ Title _____

Department _____ Date _____

Development Program(s) _____

1. What does the expression "Management Development" mean to you? How does management development differ from management training?
2. How would you describe the role of the boss-subordinate relationship in the management development process?
3. What role, if any, do peer interactions play in the management development process?
4. What do you perceive to be some of the other factors having a bearing on the outcome of efforts toward management development? What are some of the other human, situational, or environmental forces that shape the process?
5. What particular benefits, if any, do you see being derived from an individual's participating in a corporate management development program as opposed to entering into some kind of informal arrangement with his or her boss?
6. Based on your understanding of how the management development process actually works, where would you assign the primary responsibility for managing the process?

7. What specific management competencies, in your opinion, can or cannot be significantly improved through training and practice?
8. Which group or groups of management employees, in your estimation, constitute the primary target population for corporate management development programs?
9. From your experience, can you cite one or two examples of extraordinary success or failure in the area of management development and describe the events and circumstances surrounding these instances?
10. What do you consider to be the three strongest points of the management development program(s) with which you are involved? And the three weakest points?
11. So far we have explored a number of different facets of the management development process. Is there anything else that occurs to you at this point which you feel is important for gaining additional insight into the process and the forces that shape it?

INTERVIEW GUIDE

Program Participant/Program Graduate/Immediate Supervisor

Name _____ Title _____

Department _____ Date _____

Development Program(s) _____

1. What does the expression "Management Development" mean to you? How does management development differ from management training?
2. How would you describe the role of the boss-subordinate relationship in the management development process?
3. What role, if any, do peer interactions play in the management development process?
4. What do you perceive to be some of the other factors having a bearing on the outcome of efforts toward management development? What are some of the other human, situational, or environmental forces that shape the process?
5. What particular benefits, if any, do you see being derived from an individual's participating in a corporate management development program as opposed to entering into some kind of informal arrangement with his or her boss?
6. Based on your understanding of how the management development process actually works, where would you assign the primary responsibility for managing the process?

7. What specific management competencies, in your opinion, can or cannot be significantly improved through training and practice?
8. Which group or groups of management employees, in your estimation, constitute the primary target population for corporate management development programs?
9. From your experience, can you cite one or two examples of extraordinary success or failure in the area of management development and describe the events and circumstances surrounding these instances?
10. What do you consider to be the three strongest points of the management development program(s) with which you are involved? And the three weakest points?
11. So far we have explored a number of different facets of the management development process. Is there anything else that occurs to you at this point which you feel is important for gaining additional insight into the process and the forces that shape it?
12. What were some of your personal expectations from the program when you first entered it and to what extent have they been met?

INTERVIEW GUIDE/UNRESOLVED ISSUES MATRIX

Interview Guide Question Number	Unresolved Issue Number
1	1
2	5
3	5
4	5
5	5
6	4
7	3
8	2
9	5
10	5
11	1-5
12	---

Unresolved Issues

- #1. What is the essential difference, if any, between management development and management training and education?
- #2. Where should the primary locus of responsibility for managing the management development process be assigned?
- #3. Which group or groups of employees constitute the primary target population for corporate efforts at management development?
- #4. Which specific management competencies can or cannot be significantly improved through training, coaching, and guided practice in formal management development programs?
- #5. What are some of the most important personal, situational, and environmental factors that prove to have a direct bearing on the final outcomes of efforts at management development in a large corporate setting?

