Acknowledgments

The authors of this training manual would like to thank all those taking part in the ongoing consulting partnership between Pfizer USPG and Rath & Strong Inc. Their collective effort has made this manual possible. In particular, we would like to thank Pfizer employees Peter Brandt, Vita Cassese, Paul del Baso, Chuck Dombeck, Pat Kelley, Randi Goldmann, Debbie Himsel, Dean Maglaris and Nancy Steele for their assistance in developing the USPG Internal Consulting Model. We would also like to thank those Pfizer employees, both inside and outside the USPG Human Resources Department, who helped in the design and tuning of the workshop: Curt Andrews, Tim Dickenson, Randi Goldmann, Christine Jones, Janet Rizzuto, Len Stephens, Rick Malacrea, and Valerie Vetere.

At Rath & Strong, this manual would not have been possible without the dedication and talented contributions of Cindy Di Matteo, Julie Cipolla, Barbara Napier, and Elisabeth Swan. Special note should be made of the contribution of David Olstad whose skills in graphic design and document layout were invaluable.

This manual represents the first step in a extended development sequence for USPG Internal Consultants. We hope that as more USPG people become involved in the internal consultant development process that not only this manual but all subsequent development activities will continually improve.

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April 25, 1995

Competency Model Overview

Types, Definitions, Key Behavioral Examples

Motive Level Competencies

Competency	Definition	• Behavioral Examples
Concern for Others	Genuine concern about the welfare & successfulness of clients; concern for individuals as well as the aggregate organization. Proactively seek to learn about the client.	• Constantly scans the environment for clues about the client. • Recognizes without being told when performance is not meeting client needs. • Focuses on the client's personal needs before exploring technical situation. • Is available to client as a personal friend and advisor. • Reinforces the client's strengths; alerts them to lapses in use of strengths. • Makes personal sacrifices to be available, thinks about client "off hours." • Displays accurate empathy, nonpossessive warmth (unconditional positive regard) and genuineness in all client interactions.
Desire for Positive Impact	Keen desire to help improve the client personally, their organizational situation, and the organization at large.	• Takes initiative to get feedback quickly. • Acknowledges client's unique strengths before offering conflicting views. • Cites experience with similar situations to establish rapport and credibility. • Maintains client confidence by meeting deadlines. • Balances positive and negative feedback to client. • Rapidly addresses issues that will have a negative effect on the client or . • Is neither cowed by seniors nor dismissive of juniors.

Need for Achievement	Moderate need to be best, better, or unique. Results-oriented, not perfectionists; delegate well. Realistic acceptance that circumstances sometimes dictate accepting less than the best possible solution to a situation.	• Clearly focuses client's attention on things the client should act upon. • Considers client's strengths and weaknesses before making recommendations. • Directs the client to a future orientation when appropriate. • Helps the client to think out of the box. • Helps develop and monitor metrics to measure progress. • Helps client develop challenging and realistic goals.
Concern for Being Just and Fair: Integrity	Gives proper consideration to the rights of others; attempts to do the "right" thing. Behaves in a forthright, clear, honest manner.	• Ensures that the clients are clear about and fully bought into project. • Only undertakes work that is clearly value-added for the client. • Informs clients about costs involved before the project starts. Monitors costs throughout the project. • Recommends postponing work if all key stakeholders are not fully committed. • Rejects attempts to change project that are inconsistent with personal /organizational values. • Challenges client/colleague behaviors which violate principles of justice or fairness, e.g., discrimination.

Trait Level Competencies

Competency	Definition	Behavioral Examples
Tenacity, Thorough-ness & Proactivity	Does not give up easily; approaches problems from multiple angles. Keen attention to detail, well prepared.	• Responds quickly to requests for help. • Follows through on projects, difficulties, inquiries to full resolution. • Proactively networks throughout division and beyond to keep abreast of issues. • Fully prepares for all client meetings. • Follows up on and keeps commitments.
Cognitive Flexibility	Agile minds which operate on multiple levels simultaneously. Flexible mental models. Conceptualize with metaphors or analogies to help others make connections.	• Asks systematic, probing questions. • Identifies new ways of using existing resources for multiple objectives. • Is equally comfortable discussing broad conceptual issues and specific applications. • Helps clients conceptualize the problems they are facing.
Social Awareness & Diagnostic Capability	Ability to make connections between things which may not be obvious to others. See technological, ideological, and psychological issues clearly.	• Makes unobtrusive observations that distinguish prevalent, informal practices from the formal system; sees beneath the surface reality. • Integrates information effectively. • Sees parallels between current situation and similar past experiences; draws appropriate knowledge from past experiences.
Self-confidence	Quiet but evident self-confidence that engenders trust. Ability to take charge of their own destiny and actively seek to create the future.	• Nurtures the risk-taking spirit in others. • Seeks challenging new opportunities. • Recognizes his/her own contribution to failures. • Attributes success to self and client efforts. • Not daunted by client attempts to test abilities or credibility.

What is the Consultant Competency Model?

The Consultant Competency Model identifies and describes trait and motive level characteristics associated with excellent consulting. These competencies are traits and motives empirically derived from a series of competency studies of excellent consultants both external and internal. This Competency Model does not attempt to describe all of the skills and abilities a consultant must have to perform effectively—only the characteristics which underlie excellent consulting.

As illustrated, motives and traits form a sort of core which gives rise to behavior. A large part of what a consultant actually does is a function of her/his motives and character traits and the situation in which the consultant finds him/herself. For example, a consultant who is motivated by a desire to impress his/her client and who cares little for the clients problem or for the client will act differently when designing and giving a presentation than will a consultant whose primary concern is for the welfare of the client. What we care about (that is, what motivates us) has a direct relationship to how we act.

The Competency Model is only one part of the Consultant Development Process and its purpose is to focus consultant development activities on the core motives and traits which underlie excellent consulting in a variety of settings.

How will the model be used in the Consultant Development Process?

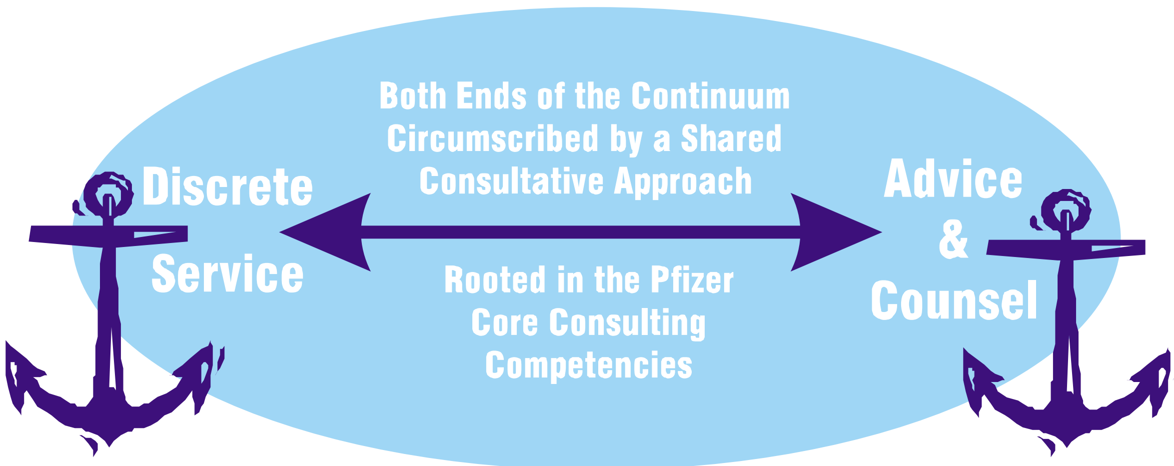
The Consultant Development Process assumes that all consultants and those who perform consultative tasks will be continuously endeavoring to develop and enrich each of the motives and traits associated with excellent consulting and that consequently these core motives and traits will form a filter through which all of their development activities are passed.

Consul*tant* versus consul*ting*

Most knowledge workers spend some of their workday consulting with or to others. Colleagues working on the same task consult with one another. Information Technology professionals who spend some of their day designing systems or writing code consult with those they serve. Human Resource professionals often find themselves consulting to the managers or groups they support. In this sense, anyone who provides advice or counsel to another is consulting. We even use the term when referring to a style of selling in which the salesperson takes a consultative (helping) stance *vis a vis* a prospect.

If consulting is so pervasive, what then is a consultant? Simply someone in the act of consulting? A consultant is a business or other professional whose primary role or function within an organization is to help others (clients) achieve their ends within the context of the organization's overall goals and strategies. Consultants help others do their work but do not perform the work themselves. The work of the consultant is to help the client (organization) work effectively. In this sense, a consultant does not generally provide a client with a direct service like a computer program or a selection of qualified candidates for a position or regular operating reports.

Since all staff professionals consult to one degree or another, there can be no sharp distinction between a "consultant" and other professionals whose work places them in consulting situations. It is probably better to think in terms of a lateral continuum one end of which is anchored in the provision of discrete and direct services and the other end in the provision of assistance which ranges from expert advice to problem solving process facilitation and counseling.



The figure illustrates a core set of consulting competencies undergirds successful consulting at whatever place on the continuum of consulting activities an individual is operating. The Core Consulting Model, which follows, describes the core competencies for performing consulting functions or operating in a consultative mode with internal clients. It is **not** a list of the ***tools***, which a particular person providing consulting services should be able to use. It **does** describe specific consulting behaviors that are critical to effective consulting.

Competency Descriptions

The model is presented by defining competencies at both motive and trait levels. Each competency is further described with a set of behavioral indicators. Behavioral indicators are examples of specific behaviors which the consultant would evidence in a consulting situation given the particular motive or trait level competency being described.

Motive Level

Concern for Others

Effective consulting is marked by a strong concern for the client as a person (or group of persons). Effective consultants are chiefly concerned about the welfare and success of their clients and genuinely enjoy client contact and interaction. It is this genuine concern for the other that draws effective consultants into empathic relationships (often long-term) with their clients and prompts the consultant to focus his/her attention on the real concerns of the client ***as the client feels them.*** Since client concerns exist within the overall priorities, goals, and strategies, effective consultants' concern for others prompts them to help their clients to explore issues within this corporate context.

Further, although an organization is an aggregate of individuals, there is a degree to which effective consultants treat the company *per se* as a client in all their interactions with their internal clients. Effective consultants therefore are concerned both for specific clients **and** for the welfare of the company.

This concern for the other prompts the consultant to attempt to understand the client's world. Effective consultants therefore ***proactively*** seek to learn as much as they can both about business as a whole and the specific business challenges which face their individual internal clients.

Behavioral Indicators

Projects him/herself into the client's situation to generate useful advice.

Constantly scans the environment for clues about the clientÕs personal and professional concerns.

Uses multiple details from a client's experience and/or situation to anticipate upcoming issues which the client may not yet anticipate.

Proactively assists the client to address these unanticipated issues.

Describes nonverbal behavior of others in specific detail.

Makes multi-level (e.g., professional/technical, interpersonal, managerial, developmental), nonjudgmental assessments of client strengths and weaknesses.

Is genuinely surprised and concerned about missing a key client sensitivity.

Recognizes, without being told, when her/his own performance is ***not*** meeting the needs of the client.

Inquires about the person before trying to understand the technical problem.

Describes client problems in terms of what people are feeling in order help client personnel better understand and deal with those feelings and to enhance their empathic relationship with that client.

Makes oneself available to clients as a personal friend and advisor.

Alerts the client to apparent lapses in the use of the client's demonstrated strengths.

Reassures the client of the clientÕs own unique strengths.

Makes personal sacrifices in order to be available to clients.

Identifies pressing client needs and subordinates own agenda to client concerns.

Ensures that the client fully grasps the corporate and business realities that impact the client and his/her agenda.

Proactively seeks out ways to help clients.

Thinks about client issues or concerns “off hours”; for example, in the shower, on the subway, or waiting for a plane in an airport. In short, has the client on his/her mind.

Displays the following characteristics in all client interactions: accurate empathy, nonpossessive warmth (unconditional positive regard), and genuineness.

Desire for Positive Impact

The effective consultant has a keen desire to have a positive impact on the client, the client's situation, and the corporation. In the language of David McClelland's[1] motive theory, these effective consultants have a high need for Òsocialized power. Because they are concerned about having a positive impact, these consultants **actively** attend to both the power dynamics and political aspects of their consulting engagements and help clients to do so as well. These consultants do not assume that all people are influenced in the same fashion; e.g., by the facts, by financial rewards. Their desire for impact leads them to develop an array of influence skills.

Behavioral Indicators

Takes initiative to get feedback quickly and directly from clients.

Acknowledges unique strengths of others before offering conflicting views.

Alerts others to imbalances of power that may adversely impact their effectiveness.

Offers impactful insights.

Cites experience with similar situations to establish rapport and credibility.

Makes certain that initial deadlines are met in order to establish credibility.

Maintains client confidence by continuing to meet established deadlines.

Consciously tries to align her/his own strengths with the strengths and needs of others.

Provides a background context and data for the expression of a new idea.

Develops strategies for aggressively marketing internal consulting services that are consistent with cultural values.

Makes deliberate efforts to establish credibility by appealing to client values.

Offers the client practical strategies for managing key influence relationships

[1]David McClelland is the former head of the department of psychology at Harvard University and a long–time researcher in the field of human motivation. He is the author of the ground–breaking work in motive theory, *The Achieving Society*.

Makes an effort to balance positive and negative feedback to the client.

Rapidly addresses, or even confronts, issues which will have a negative impact on his/her client or the company.

Is neither cowed by seniors nor dismissive of juniors.

Need for Achievement

Effective consultants are characterized by a ***moderate need for* achievement**[2]. While they are results-oriented, they do not have a high need for perfection or to accomplish a task themselves. The complex circumstances in which a consultant normally operates often mitigate against achieving what that consultant feels is the ideal technical solution to a problem. Effective consultants are concerned with being the best—they are not so driven to achieve the best solution that they can neither perceive nor make necessary accommodations to the limitations of a clientÕs situation or other aspects of the real world.

Behavioral Indicators

Clearly focuses the clientÕs attention on those things that the client can and must do something about.[3]

Leaves the client with very specific and practical things that the client can do immediately.

Checks with the client on the perceived value of the current interaction.

Makes an assessment of the prospective client's strengths and weaknesses before recommending a course of action.

Never forgets pressing current issues. Directs the client to the future by focusing the client on the "horizon" of possibilities in any situation. Helps the client to "think out of the box."

Assists the client in developing appropriate metrics.

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[2]Need for achievement is a technical term coined by Professor David McClelland of Harvard University and refers to the specific human need to be best, better, or unique. It should not be read as implying the need to achieve something; i.e., get it done.

[3]This competency is marked by behaviors which focus the client on *both* the present and the future. In situations where clients may need to more sharply focus on the present and its constraints and opportunities, the effective consultant assists in achieving this present clarity. In situations where increased "out-of-the-box," futuristic thinking is required, the effective consultant responds accordingly. The effective consultant is also able to help clients think of novel or "out-of-the-box" approaches to current problems and opportunities.

Draws the client's attention to the status of these metrics.

Helps the client to develop challenging but realistic goals and plans.

Concern For Being Just & Fair; Integrity

The effective consultant is concerned about giving proper consideration to the rights of everyone engaged in a consulting assignment and to ensure that the Òright thing is done with respect to those involved. This concern leads the consultant to behave forthrightly, clearly, and honestly in his/her dealings with clients and colleagues and to assiduously avoid even the appearance of misleading or neglecting a client or colleague. While effective consultant's views on important matters are clear to both clients and colleagues alike, these consultants are able to maintain enough professional distance from a problem to not become perceived as allied with any competing faction. They are perceived as oriented toward "the greater good" and to be individuals marked by ***integrity*****.**

Behavioral Indicators

- Ensures that clients are both clear about and really desirous of a projectÕs deliverables before undertaking the project.
- Only undertakes work which he/she feels will actually add value to the client.
- Informs the client about any costs associated with a project prior to undertaking the project. Vigilantly attends to financial issues as the project proceeds.
- Checks with clients/colleagues promptly and directly about conflicting views or perceptions.
- Recommends postponing work if key stakeholders are not personally committed.
- Offers to turn down or postpone business if the conditions are not right for a successful effort.
- Rejects or attempts to reshape projects that are not consistent with organizational and his/her personal values.
- Clearly articulates his/her own needs or preconditions to a client before undertaking a project.
- Challenges behavior on the part of clients or colleagues which violate clear principles of justice and fairness; for example, discrimination.

Trait Level

Tenacity, Thoroughness, and Proactivity

Effective consultants are tenacious in their pursuit of solutions. They do not give up easily and will approach a difficult problem from numerous angles. They are thorough both in their preparation and attention to detail.

Behavioral Indicators

Makes timely contact to follow up on inquiries for assistance.

Pursues inquires or opportunities to a point of resolution.

Pursues project problems or difficulties to a point of resolution.

Proactively networks throughout division and beyond in order to keep abreast of developments or issues relevant to his/her clients or division as a whole.

Prepares for client meetings by gathering all relevant background data on the client and his/her problem.

Follows up on and keeps commitments made to others.

Cognitive Flexibility

Effective consultants have agile minds which operate at a number of levels simultaneously: at the levels of both process and content in group situations, at both tactical and strategic levels in planning situations, and at both technical and political levels in initially diagnosing a situation. These consultantsÕ own mental models for understanding reality are flexible enough to grasp, value, ***and*** use the mental models of others. They often conceptualize in metaphor or analogy and help clients make associations across ostensibly dissimilar situations.

Behavioral Indicators

- Asks systematic, probing questions to understand the significance of events in a clientÕs experience.
- Uses analogies to make recommendations meaningful to the client.
- Identifies new ways of using existing resources to accomplish multiple objectives.
- Is equally comfortable with discussing broad conceptual issues and specific practical applications.
- Helps clients to conceptualize the situations they face. The effective consultant often accomplishes this through the use of charts or other visual devices which efficiently organize and clearly display the principle dimensions as well as the multiple facets of a situation. In this way, they add order, clarity, depth of understanding, and perspective to problematic situations.

Social Awareness and Diagnostic Capability

Effective consultants are able to read social and organizational situations and identify patterns and make connections between things which are not obvious to others. They are very much aware of the totality of what is going on around them in a client setting and attend to a wide variety of data sources. These consultants do not wear either technological, ideological, or psychological blinders.

Behavior Indicators

- Makes unobtrusive observations that distinguish prevalent, informal practices from the formal system.
- Uses information that is readily available to others to draw conclusions that are not apparent to those same others.
- Makes spontaneous connections between a clientsÕ other experiences and an immediate client concern.

Self-confidence

Effective consultants have a quiet, but evident, self-confidence, which engenders a feeling of trust in both colleagues and clients. Their own confidence nurtures the spirit of risk-taking and exploration in others and is never purely self-aggrandizing. These consultants take charge of their own destiny and actively seek to create the future.

Behavioral Indicators

Seeks new and challenging opportunities.

Proactively seeks out resources and help in difficult circumstances.

Recognizes her/his own contribution to a failure experience.

Attributes success to the quality of both her/his own and the client's efforts.

Attributes failure experiences to own ability or effort with the intent of improving.

Impressed, but not daunted, by unique client strategies to test oneÕs credibility or mettle.

Threshold Knowledge and Skills

All of the competencies described above are associated with particularly effective consulting across a number of different technical/professional fields. This model assumes the existence of the threshold knowledge and skill required to perform at a minimal level. These threshold skills are well known in the professional literature. For the purposes of the development of internal consultants these threshold skills are described in detail in Peter Block's *Flawless Consulting* which will be used as a text for this development program.

Note on Technical Expertise

Specific technical expertise is core to being an effective internal consultant. clients enlist the help of internal consulting personnel because they bring some expertise to the solution of problems. The specific technical knowledge will vary with the client and problem but all effective consultants should be technical masters of their field whether that field be computer programming, marketing communications, compensation, or organizational development.

An individual consultant's drive to achieve technical expertise in his or her field is motivated by the motive and trait competencies described in the Internal Consulting Competency Model. For example, the consultant who really wants to help a client will continually seeks to hone her/his technical capability. The same is true of the consult who has a concern for positive impact or justice and fairness.

When effective consultants find that they do not have the technical expertise to address a particular client problem, they admit their lack of expertise and either make appropriate referrals or attempt to acquire the necessary skills or both. Effective consultants ***do not*** attempt to delude their client with respect to the consultant's relative expertise. This behavior finds its roots in the consultant's concern for being just and fair as well as his/her concern for the other and their moderate need for achievement.

There is a core technology to consulting itself. This technology is well researched and described in the professional literature. There are three books which outline the core of this technology and will therefore be considered texts for this development program:

Flawless Consulting
Peter Block

Productive Workplaces
Marvin Weisbord

Process Consultation
Edgar Schein

Managing Transitions
Willliam Bridges

Stages of a Consulting Engagement

Definitions, Key Actions, Key Questions for the Consultant/Client

Stage	Action	Key Questions
Entry[4]—Initial contact with the prospective client and/or client organization.	♦ Establish an open collegial relationship. ♦ While establishing your own credentials is important, ensure that your initial contact with the client focuses on the client's situation! ♦ Demonstrate concern for the client not just the client's problem. ♦ Observe cultural artifacts which may provide data on the client organization's culture. ♦ Determine what type of consulting relationship (expert, pair-of-hands, or collaborative) the client is seeking. ♦ Make an initial assessment as to the appropriateness of this type of relationship to the situation at hand. ♦ Scan the organizational environment to make an initial and provisional assessment of stakeholders in the problem you are being asked to address. ♦ Demonstrate accurate empathy, nonpossessive warmth and genuineness in all interactions.[5]	**For the consultant:** Is this the type of problem with which I am equipped to deal?

[4]A consulting relationship begins with the very first contact with the client whether that contact is made in writing, over the phone or in person. First impressions are very important.

[5]Your entire consulting engagement should be marked by these three behaviors. The client's continuing acceptance of you and your consulting team depends in large measure on your ability not only to meet the technical demands of the task but on your ability to be (not merely be perceived to be), accurately empathetic, positively warm and genuine (authentic).

Stage	Action	Key Questions
Contracting— Developing a formal working agreement on the nature of the engagement, roles to be played by both the consultant and the client, and the general processes to be employed. Large contracts are often developed in phases. Specific deliverables should be defined for each phase as such definition becomes possible.	♦ Produce a contract which is either written or oral. Oral contracts for major consulting projects should always be confirmed in writing. The contract should be specific, freely entered into, and mutually rewarding. ♦ The contract should include discussion of the boundaries of the project, the goals, roles and procedures of both you and your client, the deliverables, the timeline. ♦ Make sure you state clearly what it is that you expect from the client; remember, the contract is mutual. ♦ Say "no" to any project with less than a 50/50 chance of success. ♦ Make sure it is perfectly clear who your client contact person is. ♦ Contracts are living documents designed to enhance positive relationships between the parties by increasing clarity. They should not be turned into legalistic documents which lead to adversarial relationships. Because they are living documents they can always be renegotiated.	Is it appropriate to have a written contract?
Data Collection— Gathering the information necessary to clearly define the client's problem.	♦ Remember: Collecting data is an intervention in and of itself; what you focus on, how you ask the questions, the issues that you raise will all have an effect on the organization and your client. ♦ Involve the client as much as possible in planning the data collection, the data collection itself, and the interpretation of the data. ♦ In carrying out your data collection plan be alert to sources of data and specific information you did not anticipate in your initial planning. ♦ Remember: all consulting engagements have technical, structural and social aspects.	What is my plan for gathering data?

Stage	Action	Key Questions
Diagnosis— Analysis of the collected data to formulate an opinion on the nature and some of the dimensions of the client's problem.	♦ Look for trends in the data. ♦ Integrate information from various sources to find underlying root causes. ♦ Discuss your initial perceptions with the client. Get early buy-in on tentative conclusions. Include the client wherever possible. ♦ The presenting problem is rarely the real problem. Anticipate resistance to any conclusions you've drawn in your diagnosis of the situation and build in supporting arguments from the data. ♦ Focus on diagnosing the current political and technical situation as well as how the situation is currently being handled.	What is the underlying problem?

Feedback— Reporting of the collected data and a preliminary statement of the consultant's analysis of the client's problem.	♦ Plan the agenda for the meeting: review of original contract (formal or informal), meeting objectives, diagnosis, supporting data, possible actions, recommendations. ♦ Review the client's expectations for the meeting with the client. ♦ Present data starting with your conclusions, followed by the process you went through to arrive at your conclusions with supporting data. ♦ Offer your feedback and conclusions in a descriptive and nonevaluative manner. ♦ DonÕt argue. Listen carefully to any adverse reaction. The client may be right. ♦ Empathic listening is your best tool with which to help the client with any defensive reactions to the data. ♦ Present those aspects of the situation that the client is most likely to have the most control over, which will provide the largest payoff. ♦ Be as specific as possible, brief, and focused. ♦ Present options for possible actions with an evaluation of the costs and benefits of each option. Include short term as well as long term, tangible as well as nontangible, benefits and costs. ♦ From time to time throughout the meeting check to see if the client's expectations are being met. Respect the client's resistance to negative data. ♦ Always debrief a feedback session at its conclusion. Review next steps and plan a time to decide what actions will be taken.	Who should be at the feedback session?

Stage	Action	Key Questions
Decision to Act— Arriving at a mutual agreement to take a particular course of action relative to the diagnosed problem.	♦ Establish clarity about how the decision to act will be made. ♦ Insure mutual understanding of the problem, diagnosis & recommendations. ♦ Examine each option carefully. Review pros and cons of options. ♦ Be assertive about your recommended course of action without being intractable. ♦ Make sure the scope of the course of action is well thought through and mutually agreed upon.	Is there total buy-in from all involved parties?
Planning— Developing a detailed plan including basic methodology, key activities, staffing, schedule, budget and measurable goals.	♦ Write up detailed plan based on earlier conversations. ♦ Solicit information from those involved in the implementation of the plan to verify staffing, schedule, budget, etc. ♦ Meet with those who will be working on the plan in a team session to review the project plan. Revise as necessary. ♦ Agree upon major milestones in the project, points where the project will be reviewed for progress and reevaluated if necessary. ♦ Goals should be specific, measurable, attainable, relevant and targeted (SMART). ♦ Look for ways to measure progress. Institute mechanisms for measuring progress toward the goal before setting the improvement implementation into action. ♦ Make sure you evaluate your own needs and objectives for the project.	What are the most critical elments of this plan? How is this plan most likely to fail? Who else should be involved?

Stage	Action	Key Questions
Implementation —Carrying out the plan defined in the phase above.	♦ Check in frequently with the client and others involved in implementing the project plan. It's almost impossible to over involve or over communicate. ♦ Review major milestones with the client for progress.	Are there barriers to the implementation plan that were previously overlooked?
Refinement— Evaluating and refining the action plan as necessary. Periodic reviews and checkpoints are normally built into the initial implementation plan.	♦ Be on the lookout for opportunities to revise and refine the project plan, based on information that emerges as the project evolves. ♦ Check in with the client before making revisions to the project; share your observations and conclusions and rationale for refining the plan. Check for resistance.	Is our original goal still valid?
Implementation II —Carrying out the refined action plan. The three states of implementation, refinement and re-implementation will often go through several iterations especially in large scale or particularly vexing situations.	♦ Make sure all parties are aware of changes to the original project plan and rationale for the changes. ♦ Monitor progress throughout the project. Track movement toward the goals and share progress with project members. ♦ Look for ways to sustain progress after you have terminated your involvement. Phase these systems or mechanisms into place before starting the termination process.	Is there any new resistance to the project plan?

Stage	Action	Key Questions
Termination/ Recycle— Bringing the project to a conclusion, reiterating or moving on to new tasks.	♦ Check with client to make sure their needs have been met. Ask yourself if your own needs have been met as well. ♦ Discuss with the client the termination of the project and any mechanisms/systems to carry forward improvements. ♦ Meet with project members to bring closure to the project. Make arrangements for ongoing support as appropriate.	Has this project uncovered other problems that are now more pressing?

Self Assessment Tool

Self-Assessment of Performance

Motive Level Competencies	Poor	Below Average	Average	Above Average	Excellent
Concern for Others	1	2	3	4	5
What particular aspect of this competency could I improve?					
Desire for Positive Impact	1	2	3	4	5
What particular aspect of this competency could I improve?					
Need for Achievement	1	2	3	4	5
What particular aspect of this competency could I improve?					
Concern for Being Just & Fair	1	2	3	4	5
What particular aspect of this competency could I improve?					

Self-Assessment of Performance

	Poor	Below Average	Average	Above Average	Excellent
Trait Level Competencies					
Tenacity, Thoroughness & Proactivity	1	2	3	4	5
What particular aspect of this competency could I improve?					
Cognitive Flexibility	1	2	3	4	5
What particular aspect of this competency could I improve?					
Social Awareness & Diagnostic Capability	1	2	3	4	5
What particular aspect of this competency could I improve?					
Self-Confidence	1	2	3	4	5
What particular aspect of this competency could I improve?					

Notes on Competency

Cloning

Competency models are developed by studying a number of superior and average performers in a job category. As a consequence, they do not reflect qualities which are possessed in full by single individuals but rather qualities observed across a class of individuals. In other works, no single job performer possesses or demonstrates all of the competencies identified by the model. Rather, competencies are qualities which a class of job performers have to one degree or another.

The purpose of the model is to help job incumbents to see more clearly the motives and traits which abound among those who perform a job in a superior manner and, through a process of self-examination in partnership with colleagues and managers, to target development activities at the enhancement of qualities associated with superior performance. Since the model is not based on qualities possessed in full by individuals, it does not assume that each individual will develop all the competencies in full or that any individual will develop a competency in exactly the same way. In that sense, competency modeling is not a process for cloning superior performers.

Present versus Future Competency

Competency models are based on current effective performance in a job. Future competency may be different from current competency. In most cases, since the competency model focuses on core motives and traits, unless the job changes in its most basic make-up the core motives and traits will remain reasonably stable. When it is suspected that the nature of a job has fundamentally changed, a new competency study should be undertaken. It is also prudent to revalidate competency models from time to time, if only to collect fresher examples of superior performance.

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New York, March 22, 1995

Principles of Feedback

1. It is descriptive rather than evaluative. By describing oneÕs own reaction, it leaves the individual free to use it or not to use it as s/he sees fit. By avoiding evaluative language, it reduces the need for the individual to react defensively.

2. It is specific rather than general. To be told that one is Òdominating will probably not be as useful as to be told that Òjust now when we were deciding the issue you did not listen to what others said, and I felt forced to accept your arguments or face attack from you.

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

4. It is directed toward behavior which the receiver can do something about. Frustration is only increased when a person is reminded of some short-coming over which s/he has no control.

5. It is well-timed. In general, feedback is most useful at the earliest opportunity after the given behavior (depending, of course, on a personÕs readiness to hear it, support available from others, etc.).

6. It is checked to ensure clear communication. One way of doing this is to have the receiver try to rephrase the feedback s/he has received to see if it corresponds to what the sender had in mind.

7. Feedback is **meant** to have effect. So the sender should also be ready to do some active listening, because s/he just gave the **other** a problem!

Giving Feedback: An Interpersonal Skill[6]

Philip G. Hanson[7]

The process of giving and asking for feedback is probably the most important dimension of laboratory education. It is through feedback that we can learn to "see ourselves as others see us." This, of course, is not an easy task. Effectively giving and receiving feedback implies certain key ingredients: caring, trusting, acceptance, openness, and a concern for the needs of others. Thus, how evaluative, judgmental, or helpful feed-back is may finally depend on the personal philosophy of the individuals involved. Nevertheless, giving feedback is a *skill* that can be learned and developed and for which certain useful guidelines exist.

The term "feedback" was borrowed from rocket engineering by Kurt Lewin, a founder of laboratory education. A rocket sent into space contains a mechanism that sends signals back to Earth. On Earth, a steering apparatus receives these signals, makes adjustments if the rocket is off target, and corrects its course. The group can be seen as such a steering mechanism, sending signals when group members are off target in terms of the goals they have set for themselves. These signals—feedback—can then be used by an individual to correct his [sic] course. For example, a person's goal may be to become more aware of himself and to learn how his behavior affects others. Information from the group can help him to ascertain whether he is moving toward this goal. If he reacts to criticisms of his behavior by getting angry, leaving the room, or otherwise acting defensively, he will not reach his goal. Group members may help him by saying, "George, every time we give you feedback, you do something that keeps us from giving you further information. If you continue this kind of behavior, you will not reach your goal." If George responds to the "steering" of the group by adjusting his direction, he can again move toward his target. Feedback, then is a technique that helps members of a group achieve their goals. It is also a means of

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[6]Reprinted from *The 1975 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators,* J. E. Jones & W. Pfeiffer, Editors, La Jolla, CA: University Associates Inc., 1975

[7] The articles in this section use the third person singular male pronoun. To the modern this "exclusive" language may be unsettling. This unsettling feeling should probably remind us to avoid this exclusive language in the future.

comparing one's own perceptions of his behavior with others' perceptions.

Giving feedback is a verbal or nonverbal process through which an individual lets others know his perceptions and feelings about *their* behavior. When *soliciting* feedback, an individual is asking for others' perceptions and feelings about *his* behavior. Most people give and receive feedback daily without being aware of doing so. One purpose of laboratory training is to increase the awareness of the process so that it can be engaged in intentionally rather than unconsciously.

Information-Exchange Process

Between two people, the process of exchange goes something like this: Person A's *intention* is to act in relation to person B, who sees only person A's *behavior*. Between his intention and his behavior comes an encoding process that person A uses to make his behavior congruent with his intentions. Person B perceives person A's behavior, interprets it (a decoding process), and intends to respond. Between person B's intention and his responding behavior an encoding process occurs. Person A then perceives person B's responding behavior and interprets it. However, if either person's process is ineffective, the receiver may respond in a manner that will confuse the sender. Although the feedback process can help an individual discover whether his behavior is congruent with his intentions, the process focuses on *behavior* rather than on *intentions*. An individual's intentions are private; unless he explains them, other people can only conjecture what those intentions are. One of the most confusing aspects of communication is that people tend to give feedback about other people's *intentions*, rather than their *behavior*. Causing further confusion is the fact that many people perceive behavior as being negatively intended, when in fact it is not. It is often difficult to see that the sender's intentions may not be what they are perceived to be.

Responsibility For Feedback

In many feedback exchanges, the question of ownership frequently arises: How much responsibility should the giver assume for his behavior and the receiver for his response? If person A behaves so that he evokes a negative response (feedback) from person B, how much ownership should each assume for his part of the interaction? Some people are willing to assume more than their share of the responsibility for another person's responses, while others refuse to own any responsibility for their behavior.

For example, an individual may be habitually late for group meetings and may receive feedback concerning members' negative reactions to this behavior. His response is to point to out the group members their lack of tolerance for individual differences. He says that they are limiting his freedom and that they seem to be investing too much responsibility in him for the group's effectiveness. He states that he wants to be involved in the group, but he does not understand why they need him to be on time.

This situation presents a value dilemma to the group; his observations are accurate, but his behavior is provocative. One clarification of this dilemma is to point out that, while an individual owns only his behavior, the reactions of others inevitably affect him. To the extent that he cares about the others or his relationship with them, he must consider their responses.

Concern for the needs of others as well as one's own is a critical dimension in the exchange of feedback. Ownership or responsibility for one's behavior and the consequences of that behavior overlap between the giver and receiver of feedback. The problem lies in reach-ing some mutual agreement concerning where one person's responsibility ends and the other's begins.

Guidelines For Using Feedback

It is possible to minimize a person's defensiveness in receiving feedback and to maximize his ability to use it for his personal growth. Regardless of how accurate feedback may be, if a person cannot accept the information because he is defensive, then feedback is useless. Feedback must be given so that the person receiving it can *hear* it in the most objective and least distorted way possible, *understand* it, and choose to *use* it or *not use* it.

The following guidelines are listed as if they were bipolar, with the second term in each dimension describing the more effective method of giving feedback. For example, in one group George, intending to compliment Marie, says to her, "I wish I could be more selfish, like you." Marie might respond, "Why, you insensitive boor, what do you mean by saying I'm selfish?" George might then get defensive and retaliate, and both people would become involved in the game of "who-can-hurt-whom-the-most." Instead, Marie might give George feedback by stating her position in another way. That is, she could say, "When you said, 'I wish I could be more selfish, like you,' I felt angry and degraded." This second method of giving feedback contains positive elements that the first does not.

Indirect vs. Direct Expressions of Feelings

When Marie stated that George was an insensitive boor, she was expressing her feelings indirectly. That statement might imply that she was feeling angry of irritated, but one could not be certain. On the other hand, Marie expressed her feelings directly when she said, "I felt angry and degraded." She committed herself, and there was no need to guess her feelings. If Tom says to Andy, "I like you," he is expressing his feelings directly, risking rejection. However, if he says, "You are a likable person," the risk is less. Indirect expression of feelings is safer because it is ambiguous. Andy might guess that Tom likes him, but Tom can always deny it. If Andy rejects Tom by saying, "I am happy to hear that I am likable, but I do not like you," Tom can counter, "You are a likable person, but *I* do not like you." Indirect expression of feelings offers an escape from commitment.

"You are driving too fast" is an indirect expression of feelings. "I am anxious because you are driving too fast" is a direct expression of feelings. Indirect statements often begin with "I feel that..." and finish with a perception of opinion, for example, "I feel that you are angry." This is an indirect expression or perception and does not state what "I" is feeling. Instead, "I am anxious because you look angry" express the speaker's feelings directly and also states a perception. People frequently assume that they are expressing their feelings directly when they state opinions and perceptions starting with "I feel that...," but they are not.

Interpretation vs. Description of Behavior

In the original example in which Marie said to George, "When you said, 'I wish I could be more selfish, like you,' I felt angry and degraded," Marie was describing the behavior to which she was reacting. She was not attributing a motive to George's behavior, such as "you are hostile," or "You do not like me." When one attributes a motive to a person's behavior one is interpreting that person's *intention*. Since his intention is private and available only to him, interpretation of his behavior is highly questionable. In addition, one person's interpretations probably arise from a theory of personality that may not be shared by the other person. For example, if William is fidgeting in his chair and shuffling his feet, and Walter says, "You are anxious," Walter is interpreting William's behavior. Walter's theory of personality states that when a person fidgets in his chair and shuffles his feet, he is manifesting anxiety. Such a theory interposed between two people may create a distance between them or act as a barrier to understanding. If, instead, Walter *describes* William's behavior, William may interpret his own behavior by saying, "I need to go to the bathroom."

In any event, interpreting another person's behavior or ascribing motives to it tends to put that person on the defensive and makes him spend his energies on either explaining his behavior or defending himself. It deprives him of the opportunity to interpret or make sense of him own behavior and, at the same time, makes him dependent on the interpreter. The feedback, regardless of how much insight it contains, cannot be used.

Evaluative vs. Nonevaluative Feedback

Effective feedback to George was not accomplished by calling him *names* such as "insensitive boor" or, other words, evaluating him as a person. When giv-ing feedback, one must respond not to the personal worth of the person but to his *behavior*. When someone is told that he is "stupid" or "insensitive," it is extremely difficult for him to respond objectively. He may sometimes *act* stupidly or *behave* in an insensitive way, but that does not mean that he is a stupid or insensitive person. Evaluating a person casts one in the role of a judge and places that person in the role of being judged. In addition, a frame of reference or set of values is imposed that may not be applicable to, or shared by the other people. That is, the person making the evaluation assumes that he can distinguish between a "good" person and a "bad" person or between "right" and "wrong," and that if the receiver of the feedback does not exemplify these values, the sender will be unhappy with him.

Response to Evaluative Feedback

It is difficult for anyone to respond to evaluative feedback because it usually offends his feelings of worth and self-esteem. These are core concepts about ourselves that cannot be changed readily by feedback, nor can they be easily interpreted in terms of actual behavior. It is difficult, for example, to point out to an individual the specific behaviors that manifest low self-esteem. If a person is given feedback that he is "stupid," he may not know what *behaviors* to change. It is the person's observable behavior and not his self-esteem that must be responded to when giving feedback.

An additional problem with evaluative feedback is that it often engenders defensiveness. When this occurs, the feedback is not likely to be useful.

General vs. Specific Feedback

When Marie responded to George by saying, "When you said, 'I wish I could be more selfish, like you.' I felt angry and degraded," she was describing a *specific* behavior. If she had said, "You are hostile," she would have been giving feedback in *general* germs; George might not have to know to which behavior she was reacting. The term "hostile" does not specify *what* evoked a response in Marie. If George wanted to change he would not know what behavior to change. However, when the sender is specific, the receiver knows to what behavior the sender is responding, which he can then change or modify. Feedback expressed in general terms, such as "You are a warm person," does not allow the receiver to know that specific behavior is perceived as warm. He cannot expand or build on this feedback until he knows which behavior evoked the response "warm."

Pressure to Change vs. Freedom of Choice to Change

When Marie told George that she felt angry and degraded by George's statement, she did not tell him he had to change his behavior. If the feedback were important to George, however, he would probably change anyway; if it were not important to him, he might decide not to change. A person should have the freedom to use feedback in any meaningful way without being required to change. When the giver of feedback tells a person to change he is assuming he knows the correct standards for right and wrong or good and bad behavior and that the receiver needs to adopt those standards for his own good (or to save the sender the trouble of changing). Imposing standards on another person and expecting him to conform arouses resistance and resentment. The sender assumes that his standards are superior. A major problem in marriages arises when spouses tell each other that they must change their behaviors and attitudes to conform with one or the other partner's expectations and demands. These pressures to change can be very direct or very subtle, creating a competitive, win-lose relationship.

Expression of Disappointment as Feedback

Sometimes feedback reflects the sender's disappointment that the receiver did not meet his expectations and hopes. For example, a group leader may be disappointed that a member did not actualize his potential impact on the group, or a professor may be disappointed in a student's lack of achievement. These situations represent a dilemma. An important part of the sender's feedback is his own feelings, whether they are disappointment or satisfaction; if he withholds these feelings and/or perceptions, he may give the receiver a false impression. If, however, he expresses his disappointment, the receiver may experience this feedback as an indication of personal failure instead of as an incentive to change.

Persistent Behavior

Frequently the complaint is heard that a group member persists in a behavior that others find irritating, despite the feedback he receives. Group members exclaim, "What are we supposed to do? He won't change!" The most the members can do is to continue to confront the offender with their feelings. While he has the freedom not to change, he will also have to accept the consequences of his decision, i.e., other people's continuing irritation at his behavior and their probable punitive reactions. He cannot reasonably expect other group members both to feel positive toward him and to accept the behavior they find irritating. The only person an individual can change is himself. As a by-product of his change, other people may change in relationship to him. As the individual changes, others will have to adjust their behavior to his. No one should be forced to change. Such pressure may produce superficial conformity, but also underlying resentment and anger.

Delayed vs. Immediate Timing

To be most effective, feedback should, whenever possible, be given immed-ately after the event. In the initial example of the exchange between George and Marie, if Marie had waited until the next day to give feedback, George might have responded with "I don't remember saying that," or if Marie had asked the other group members later, they might have responded with only a vague recollection; the event had not been significant to them, although it had been to Marie.

When feedback is given immediately after the event, the event is fresh in everyone's mind. It is like a mirror of the person's behavior, reflected to him through feedback. Other group members can also contribute their observations about the interaction. there is often, however, a tendency to delay feedback. A person may fear losing control of his feelings, fear hurting the other person's feelings, or fear exposing himself to other people's criticisms. Nevertheless, although the "here-and-now" transactions of group life can often be most threatening, they can also be most exciting and growth producing.

Planned Feedback

An exception to this guideline is the periodic feedback session, planned to keep communication channels open. Staff members in work units or departments may have weekly feedback meetings, or a specific time may be set aside for structured or unstructured feedback sessions in one- or two-week workshops. In these scheduled sessions, participants may cover events occurring since the last session or may work with material generated during their current meeting. For this process to be effective, however, the decision to have these feedback sessions should be reached through a consensus of the participants.

External vs. Group-Shared Feedback

When feedback is given immediately after the event, it is usually group shared, so that other members can look at the interaction as it occurs. For example, if group members had reacted to George's statement ("I wish I could be more selfish like you") by saying, "If I were in your shoes, Marie, I wouldn't have felt degraded" or "I did not perceive it as degrading," then Marie would have had to look at her behavior and its appropriateness. If, on the other hand, group members had supported Marie's feelings and perceptions (consensual validation), her feedback would have had more potency.

Events that occur outside the group ("there-and-then") may be known to only one or two group members and, consequently, cannot be reacted to or discussed meaningfully by other participants. In addition, other group members may feel left out during these discussions. For example, when a group member is discussing an argument he had with his wife, the most assistance group members can provide is to attempt to perceive from his behavior in the group what occurred in that interaction and to share these conjectures with him. Since, in describing the event, the group member's perception is colored by his own bias and emotional involvement, group members may receive a distorted picture of the argument and may not be able to discriminate between fact and fiction. If the argument had occurred in the group, however, group members could have been helpful since they would have shared the event. Then, if the involved group member had begun describing his perceptions of what happened, other group members could have commented on or shared their perceptions of the interaction.

Use of There-and-Then

In other words, events within the group can be processed by all group members who witness the interaction; they can share their perceptions and feelings about what occurred. This does not mean that group members cannot get *some* value from describing events external to the group and receiving comments from other members. What happens frequently, however, is that the group member describes these events in such a way as to elicit support or confirmation of his own perceptions rather than objective evaluation. Yet this relation of there-and-then events to the here-and-now can often be extremely productive when some members have had long-term relationships with one another. It is important, at these times, to recognize both the necessity and the difficulty of involving other group members in the discussion.

Consistent Perceptions

Shared perceptions of what happens in here-and-now events is one of the primary values of a group. "Group shared" also implies that, ideally, each member had to participate. Frequently a person gets feedback from *one* member in the group and assumes that the rest of the group feels the same. This is not always a correct assumption. Feedback from only one person may present a very private or distorted picture because that person's perceptions of the event may differ from other group members. When everyone's reactions are given, however, the receiver has a much better view of his behavior. If the group members are consistent in their perception of the receiver, and this disagrees with the receiver's view of himself, then he needs to look more closely at the validity of his self-perceptions. Frequently the fact that people perceive an individual's behavior differently is useful infor-mation in itself. Part of each group member's responsibility is to ask for feedback from members who are not responding so that the receiver will know how everyone sees his behavior. The receiver may have to be somewhat aggressive and persistent in seeking this information. Group members may tend to say "me, too" when their feedback is being given by someone else. When *all* the data have been obtained, the receiver is in a better position to make a more effective decision regarding his use of the feedback.

Imposed vs. Solicited Feedback

In most exchanges, feedback is usually imposed. People give feedback whether it is solicited or not and whether the person is prepared to receive it or not. In addition, the sender's need to give feedback may be much greater than the individual's need to receive it. This is particularly true when the sender is upset about something concerning the potential recipient. In many situations, it is legitimate to impose feedback, particularly when a norm exists for giving as well as for soliciting feedback, or in order to induce a norm of spontaneity. However, feedback is usually more helpful when the person solicits it. Asking for feedback may indicate that the receiver is prepared to listen and wants to know how others perceive his behavior.

In asking for feedback, however, it is important to follow some of the same guidelines as for giving feedback. For example, a person should be specific about the subject on which he wants feedback. The individual who says to the group, "I would like the group to tell me what they think about me" may receive more feedback than he planned. In addition, the request is so general that the group members may be uncertain about where to begin or which behaviors are relevant to the request. In these cases, other group members can help the receiver by asking such questions as "Can you be more specific?" or "About what do you want feedback?" Feedback is a reciprocal process; both senders and receivers can help each other in soliciting and in giving it. Sometimes it is also important to provide feedback on how a person is giving feedback. If a receiver is upset, hurt, or angry, other group members can say to the sender, "Look how you told him that; I would be angry too" or "What other way could you have given him the same information without evaluating him or degrading him?" It is desirable to give feedback so that the receiver can preserve his self-esteem.

Many people want to know how their behavior is being perceived by others, but they fear the consequences of asking for such information. How easily a person will ask for feedback is related to the amount of trust in the interpersonal relationship. However, people fear that the receiver will use their feedback (particularly negative feedback) to reinforce his negative feelings about himself. Again, it is sometimes difficult for a person to separate his behavior from his feelings of self-worth.

Unmodifiable vs. Modifiable Behavior

To be effective, feedback should be aimed at behavior that is relatively easy to change. Many individuals' behaviors are habitual and could be described as a personal style developed through years of behaving and responding in certain ways. Feedback on this kind of behavior often is frustrating because the behavior can be very difficult to change.

Feedback on behaviors that are difficult to change may often make the person self-conscious and anxious about his behavior. For example, if the wife of a chain smoker gives him feedback (using all of the appropriate guidelines) about his smoking behavior, it would still be very difficult for him to change. Chain-smoking is a behavior deter-mined by often-unknown causes. The individual may smoke to reduce his tension level; continuous feedback on his smoking behavior may only increase his tension. Consequently, he smokes more to reduce that tension.

Occasionally, in giving feedback, one must determine whether the behavior represents an individual's life style or results from some unknown personality factors. Sometimes it may be helpful first to ask the receiver whether he perceives his behavior as modifiable. Many behaviors can be easily changed through feedback and the person's conscious desire to change his behavior in order to produce a more effective interpersonal style.

Motivation to Hurt vs. Motivation to Help

It is assumed that the primary motivation of membership in growth groups is to help oneself and others to grow. When an individual is angry, however, his motivation may be to hurt the other person. Frequently, the conflict turns into win-lose strategies in which the goal of the interaction is to degrade the other person. It is difficult when one is angry to consider that the needs of the other person are as important as one's own. Angry feedback may be useless, even when the information is potentially helpful, because the receiver may need to reject the feedback in order to protect his integrity.

Coping with Anger

There are several ways to cope with anger. One is to engage in a verbal or physical attack that frequently increases in intensity. Another method to deal with anger is to suppress it. One consequence of this strategy, however, is that the individual builds internal pressure to the point that he can lose control of his behavior. A third-and better- method is to talk about personal feelings of anger without assigning responsibility for them to the other person. Focusing on personal feelings may frequently encourage other group members to help the individual. In this way the anger dissipates without either viciousness or suppression. Anger and conflict are not themselves "bad." Angry feelings are as legitimate as any other feelings. Conflict can be a growth-producing phenomenon. It is the manner in which conflict or angry feelings are handled that can have negative consequences. Only through surfacing and resolving conflicts can people develop competence and confidence in dealing with these feelings and situations. Part of the benefit derived from growth groups is learning to express anger or to resolve conflicts in constructive, problem-solving ways.

Conclusion

The process of giving feedback obviously would be hampered if one attempted to consider *all* of the above guidelines. Some are needed more frequently than others i.e., feedback should be descriptive, nonevaluative, specific, and should embody freedom of choice. These guidelines can also be used diagnostically. For example, when the person receiving feedback reacts defensively, some of the guidelines have probably been violated.

Giving feedback effectively may depend on an individual's values and basic philosophy about himself, about his relationship with others, and about other people in general. Certain guidelines, however, can be learned and are valuable in helping people give and receive effective and useful feedback.

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Giving Feedback: A Check List

Rating scales for some of the feedback guidelines in "Giving Feedback: An Interpersonal Skill" are listed below. For each item, draw a circle around the number on each scale that best characterizes your feedback style. Concrete examples for each item are helpful.

1. ***Indirect Expression of Feeling.*** Not describing you own emotional state, e.g., "You are a very likable person."	1	2	3	4	5	*Direct Expression of Feeling.* "Owning" your own feelings by describing your emotional state, e.g. "I like you very much."
2. ***Attributive Feedback.*** Ascribing motives to behavior, e.g., "You are angry with me."	1	2	3	4	5	*Descriptive Feedback.* Observing and describing the behavior to which you are reacting, e.g., "You are frowning and your hands are clenched in a fist."
3. ***Evaluative Feedback.*** Passing judgment on another person's behavior or imposing "standards" e.g., "You *shouldn't* be so angry."	1	2	3	4	5	*Nonevaluative Feedback.* Commenting on Behavior without judging its worth or value, e.g., "Your anger is as legitimate a feeling as any other."
4. ***General Feedback.*** Stating broad reactions and not indicating specific behaviors, e.g., "You're pretty touchy today."	1	2	3	4	5	*Specific Feedback.* Pointing out the specific actions to which you are reacting, e.g., "When you frowned, I felt anxious."
5. ***Pressure to Change.*** Implying that people are not behaving according to your standards, e.g., "Don't call me 'Sonny'!"	1	2	3	4	5	*Freedom of Choice to Change.* Allowing others to decide whether they want to change their behavior, e.g., "When you call me 'Sonny' I felt put down."
6. ***Delayed Feedback.*** Postponing Feedback to others' behavior until later. e.g., "I was really hurt yesterday when you ignored me."	1	2	3	4	5	*Immediate Feedback.* Responding immediately after the event, e.g., "I'm feeling hurt because you're not responding to me."

7. ***External Feedback.*** Focusing attention on events *outside* the group e.g. , "My friends see me as being very supportive."	1	2	3	4	5	*Group-Shared Feedback.* Focusing on attention on events that occur *in* the group, e.g., "Does this group see me as being very supportive?"

Share your ratings with your group and solicit feedback from group members as to how they would rate your feedback style. On the basis of your own ratings and the feedback you received from other group members, check those items on which you want to work and on which you want continuing feedback from the group. Giving feedback effectively is a skill that can be developed.