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A Critique of Consultation Theories and Development of a New Model of Consultation

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A CRITIQUE OF CONSULTATION THEORIES

AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF A NEW MODEL OF CONSULTATION

by

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of Loyola University of Chicago in Partial Fulfillment

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to compile, clarify, and critique the
literature on consultation in human resource development and to develop
a new model of consultation based on the analysis and the synthesis of
the literature. A history and definition of consulting is provided in
addition to an outline of the consultative process and procedures and
a review of various perspectives of consulting. Three key perspectives
are critiqued and compared as to their similarities and differences.
The results of this comparison show that although each approach is
unique, all three are similar in nature. A new dynamic consulting mod-
el is then developed which encompasses a broad range of perspectives.

VITA

The author, Joan L. Vougis, is the daughter of John and Artemis Vougis. She was born February 20, 1957 in Chicago, Illinois.

Her elementary education was obtained in the public schools of Chicago, Illinois. In 1975, she received her high school diploma from New Trier West High School, Northfield, Illinois.

In September of 1975, she entered Loyola University and in May of 1979, she received the degree of Bachelor of Science with a major in Psychology and a minor in Sociology and French. While attending Loyola, she was art editor for the school newspaper and a member of the French Honor Society, Pi Delta Phi.

In September of 1979, she entered Loyola University's Graduate School of Education. In May, 1982, she was awarded the Master of Arts degree in Guidance and Counseling.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Many consulting theories and models have been developed and their methods tested in order to enhance the effectiveness of organizational processes. Lippitt and Lippitt (1978), two prominent consultants specializing in the behavioral sciences, define consulting as "a two-way interaction - a process of seeking, giving, and receiving help. [It] is aimed at aiding a person, group, organization, or larger social system in mobilizing internal and external resources to deal with problem confrontations and change efforts" (p. 1). Use of consulting skills is becoming increasingly necessary in a variety of professions.

Consultants in human resource development or HRD focus on people, their potential or ability to grow, change and develop. HRD examines systems in relation to the people that comprise the system. Jones (1981), an international consultant specializing in group training and organizational development, defines HRD as "an approach to the systematic expansion of people's work-related abilities, focused on the attainment of both organizational and personal goals" (p. 188).

Several people have conducted investigations to organize theories of consultation into a comprehensive whole. For example,

Argyris (1970), author of the book <u>Intervention Theory and Method: A</u> ⌄
<u>Behavioral Science View</u>, defines consulting as an intervening proc-
ess whereby the interventionist provides the needed information for
the client to implement productive decisions in an organization.
Argyris further develops intervention theory by defining primary
tasks that are essential for effective consultation to occur. He
then provides case illustrations to exemplify the practical dimension
of consulting.

Blake and Mouton (1976) also examine the consulting process. ⌄
Their approach focuses upon a three dimensional model called the
consulcube. This consulcube has three basic elements: kinds of inter-
ventions, focal issues for change, and types of units needed for
change to occur. According to Blake and Mouton, human behavior is
cyclical in nature and can develop into a habitual unconscious act.
Consultation then is the cycle breaking mechanism used to change
this repetitious behavior.

A third approach to consulting is presented by Weisbord (1978) ⌄
in his workbook of theory and practice entitled <u>Organizational Diag-</u>
<u>nosis</u>. Weisbord describes six aspects of organizations in a Six-Box
Model. The model includes: the organization's purpose, structure,
relationships, reward system, performance of task motivated leaders,
and helpful mechanisms needed for effective organizational progress.

These three perspectives can be placed on a continuum with
Argyris' (1970) position representing a strong theoretical emphasis,

Weisbord's (1978), a very practical one. Blake and Mouton (1976) combine theory and practice.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is first to compile, clarify, and critique the literature on consultation in human resource development and then to develop a new model of consultation based upon an analysis of the literature. This new model depicts consulting theory and functions as a "simplified representation of complex events, situations, experiences, and relationships that are presumed to occur in the real world. As such - it is an analogy - an approximation of the real thing" (Bowers & Franklin, 1977, p. 21). The development of this model will create a new approach which the consultant may wish to pursue, utilize and implement as part of a total consulting process. In short, this study analyzes the literature of consulting and provides a synthesis and a critique of the prominent theories and practices relative to consultation.

This study is similar to other investigations of consultation in that it organizes consultation by placing it in a comprehensive framework of theoretical and practical issues. However, unlike other research, this study offers a critique of theory and practice on consultation. Also, while other literature utilizes actual events in the creation of a model, this study relies heavily upon the critique of the literature as a foundation for the development of a new model.

Significance of the Study

Three main theorists are emphasized in order to outline a representative sample of the literature on consultation. A critique of these three perspectives provides a unique contribution to the literature on consultation. The study expands on Blake and Mouton's (1976) theory of consultation in order to develop a more comprehensive theory. This theory is the basis of the new model which organizes aspects of the consulting process to provide the consultant with a clearer understanding of consultation and human behavior.

Description of the Study

A lack of experiential learning in the consultative field on the part of the author necessitates the use of documentary research as the basis of this study. In the development of a new model of consultation, the model may encompass many elements of the consultative process. However, no model embraces the whole breadth and complexity of reality. The practitioner must go beyond the limits of theoretical knowledge in order to be effective (Tilles, 1963).

Definitions

The following lists the terms and their definitions used in this study.

A Change Agent, according to Menzel (1975), is an individual who possesses four key roles which aid an organization in the phases of planned change: educator, diagnostician, consultant, and resource linker. The first role of educator requires familiarity with teaching effective communication, leadership, career planning, and a knowledge of theoretical basis for change. Next, the diagnostician possesses practical experience in conducting research, analyzing data, and evaluating surveys. As a consultant, the change agent is able to apply previous experiences in a creative, effective manner to the task at hand. The change agent is a resourceful advisor who can employ the proper materials needed from inside the organization and/or from an external source.

A Client System, as defined by Lippitt and Lippitt (1978), includes those persons served by or utilizing the services of a social agency. Other client systems could include small interpersonal units, committees, whole organizational systems, or even interorganizational systems such as communities or nations.

The Consulcube is a three dimensional model of consultation. Developed by Blake and Mouton (1976), the cube includes three basic elements of the consulting process: kinds of interventions, focal issues, and units of change. One side of the cube is divided into five kinds of interventions: acceptant, catalytic, confrontational, prescriptive and theoretical. A second side contains four focal issues that an interventionist addresses. Blake and Mouton define a focal

issue as "that aspect of a situation presently causing the client's difficulty" (Blake & Mouton, 1976, p. 5). The issue or problem needing resolution may be categorized in one or more of the following classification areas: power/authority, morale/cohesion, norms/standards, and goals/objectives. The third side indicates the units of change in an intervention activity. These units range from the individual, the group such as a work team, an intergroup of two departments, the entire organization as a whole, or a larger social system such as a community, city, state, or nation.

Consultation, according to Steele (1975), is "a form of providing help on the content, process, or structure of a task or series of tasks, where the consultant is not actually responsible for doing the task but is helping those who are" (p. 203). In this definition, Steele refers to the word task in the broad sense of the word meaning any situation which requires the assistance of a consultant. Kurpius (1978) further clarifies consultation as "a process for synthesizing environmental and human adjustments to influence change" (p. 320).

External and Internal Consultants are categorized according to whether the consultant is an employee of the organization or is an outside agent from another source (Summers, Saxe, & Koll-Nescher, 1981). The external consultant typically has more freedom and objectivity than an internal agent because the former is not a part of the system. Yet, the internal consultant, as an employee of the organization, usually is more knowledgeable with regard to the dynamics

of the system. At the same time, the internal change agent may often be part of the organization's problem. The internal agent can also act as an external agent provided the organization is large enough for the consultant to be an employee of the company and still perform as an external agent to numerous departments within the organization. The reverse is also possible in that an external consultant who has worked a considerable duration of time for an organization may seem to take on an internal consultant's characteristics. Ideally, however, the consultant should be external to the problem or need, regardless of whether the consultant is acting in an internal or external capacity (Bell & Nadler, 1979).

Human Resource Development or HRD, according to Nadler (1979), is "a series of organized activities, conducted within a specified time, and designed to bring about behavioral change" (p. 40). Nadler states that a series of organized experiences assists the learner through a set of objectives ranked according to priority that are sufficiently evaluated with respect to the quality of learning that takes place. The second criterion offers the individual a realistic structure to allocated time so that ample opportunity can be taken for recognition and reinforcement. Consequently, the above two criteria are designed to result in behavioral change which is the primary purpose of human resource development.

Intervention as defined by Argyris (1970) is the process of entering "into an ongoing system of relationships, [coming] between

or among persons, groups or objects for the purpose of helping them" (p. 15). The implication here is that the client system exists as an independent entity for the intervenor.

A Model serves as a depiction of theory and functions as a "simplified representation of complex events, situations, experiences, and relationships that are presumed to occur in the real world" (Bowers and Franklin, 1977, p. 21).

Open and Closed Systems characterize various types of organizations. The open system builds an environment where learning and competency are nurtured in order to control both the external and internal environment so that objectives are achieved and members of an organization continue to learn. On the other hand, a closed system is more concerned about survival rather than effectiveness. Characteristics of a closed system include defensiveness and suspicion of other systems. Consequently, the probability of the system learning from the environment decreases. This can have a negative effect on its improved growth and development.

Organization Development or OD is a phenomenon which encompasses the whole organization in a planned change effort to increase the effectiveness and health of a system through various intervention processes. Aspects of behavioral science such as motivation, power, authority, communication and interpersonal relationships are utilized as part of the total change effort (Beckhard, 1969).

Primary Tasks, according to Argyris (1970), refers to the main focal points that an interventionist utilizes regardless of the problems the client system may be experiencing. This term is unique to Argyris. However, other authors also use it in various other contexts (Thompson, 1981; Dirks, Rottinghaus, & Lansky, 1978).

Productivity, according to Sutermeister (1963), is the amount of output per individual per hour. One stipulation however is that an employee is considered productive only when quality as well as quantity of work exists.

Theory includes the analysis of the interrelationship of facts. Theory is a hypothetical principle expressed in abstract form.

Summary

The intent of this investigation is to compile, clarify, and critique the literature on consultation and to develop a new model. The study focuses on theory and does not include any statistical or empirical research.

Chapter I provides an introduction of this study. Chapter II reviews the related literature beginning with a history and definition of consultation followed by an outline of the consultative process and procedures, and concludes with various perspectives of consultation. In Chapter III, the theories of Argyris (1970), Blake and Mouton (1976), and Weisbord (1978) are critiqued and analyzed.

Subsequently, a new model of consultation is described in chapter IV based upon the material presented in chapters II and III. Finally, chapter V comprises a summary of the study and a discussion of recommendations for future research in consultation.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter provides a brief history and definition of consultation followed by an outline of consulting process and procedures. It concludes with an examination of various perspectives of consultation.

History of Consultation

The need for consultation services began in the United States around the turn of the twentieth century. Economic developments of the Industrial Revolution improved the production of the textile industry with the invention of the cotton gin and the loom. New roads, canals, and rails were built to transport goods faster and more efficiently. Farm technology expanded as a result of the introduction of the cast-iron plow and the reaping machine.

Mass production in the factories increased the number of goods made. The invention of the rotary press for printing revolutionized newspaper production, the creation of the telegraph increased communication between companies and the invention of the elevator "allowed factories to be built several stories high" (Madgic, Seaberg, Stopsky, & Winks, 1971, p. 252). Factory managers hired consultants to meet the demands of this rapidly growing society.

America's population grew from the influx of European im-
migrants. These immigrants believed that America would provide them
with the material success they needed. New jobs were created as a
result of increased advances in technology and automation. External
assistance was needed to train new workers. Consultants introduced
new work methods in the factories along with time and motion studies
and incentive compensation systems. They trained workers to work
more productively.

In 1924, several researchers from Harvard decided to study
work performance at the Hawthorne Works of the Western Electric Com-
pany. "Initially, these investigators were concerned with the dif-
ferential effects of varying particular working conditions such as
the amount of ventilation and illumination" (Hornstein, Bunker, Burke,
Gindes, & Lewicki, 1971, p. 244). Results of the study showed that
the rate of production increased regardless of whether working con-
ditions increased, decreased, or were held constant. Psychologists
found that "work performance and satisfaction is greater when em-
ployees perceive themselves as influencing the formation of work group
standards" (Hornstein, et al., 1971, p. 345). This study was later
referred to as the "Hawthorne effect." Consultants conducted other
similar studies which reinforced this Hawthorne effect (Bennett, 1955;
Lewin, 1958; Pelz, 1958).

A decline in the need for additional consultants came in the
1930's when the Depression left companies with very little surplus
money for external assistance. Some companies went out of business;
others cut their spending budget to the bare minimum. With the

beginning of World War II in 1939, more men were recruited into the armed forces. As a result of this shortage of labor, new untrained workers were placed in the work force. These workers were unfamiliar with factory operations and were given on-the-job training. The training was conducted by external consultants who were familiar with factory operations and who could develop new educational methods and programs for these workers.

In addition, more money became available through government contracts to pay for external services. Since consulting was new however, consultants found it difficult to find staff with the necessary expertise. Yet, with the passage of time, more consultants were trained to meet the needs of industry (Hunt, 1977).

In the 1940's and 50's, manufacturers were faced with excess profit taxes. Costs for consultants were part of the yearly expenditure. Thus, organizations could reduce their profits and reduce their income taxes by hiring consultants. However, in 1953, Congress repealed the excess profit tax which affected the larger consulting firms.

From 1945 to 1962, the Cold War period "gave rise to a significant and continuing expenditure for military preparedness and to cost-benefit analyses aimed at determining which of the various alternative weapons systems to employ" (Hunt, 1977, p. 16). Once again, the need for expert professionals arose. Various management science techniques were implemented to arrive at solutions to military problems. For example, "PERT [Performance Evaluation Reporting Technique] was developed to expedite the development and production of the Polaris

missile, and the Critical Path Method of scheduling military contract work became a required part of contracts with the Department of Defense" (Hunt, 1977, p. 17). In a sense then, the government was still paying for additional consulting services through federally funded projects. These consulting services benefited the business managers.

Furthermore, the results of high prices for American goods sold in foreign markets prompted American companies to relocate their production facilities overseas, particularly in Europe. To assist these companies in the move overseas, consultants were called upon to help design plants and establish working methods and time standards. Market studies and corporate long range planning services were conducted by consultants who helped organizations build a firm base for overseas markets.

Consultation services were further utilized in 1963 when Congress passed the Community Mental Health Center Act. The Act stated that "consultation services were to become an 'essential' part of the community mental health program of the future" (Kurpius, 1978, p. 320). This Act also initiated the beginning of consultation in the schools. The purpose of the Act was to motivate helping professionals to move toward greater developmental and preventative approaches. Consultation gained a broader base to include not only business, industry, and governmental agencies but also groups, organizations and communities.

Use of consulting services continued to grow in the 1960's and 70's with the introduction of the computer. Specialized consultants were needed to orient workers to use technical instruments.

Computers increased productivity. For instance, in 1947, "it took

1300 man-hours to mine 1000 tons of coal; in 1962, it took only

500 man-hours" (Madgic, et al., 1971, p. 595). Mathematics helped

solve business problems such as production scheduling, inventory

control, distribution, financial planning, and capital budgeting.

In addition, government programs expanded significantly into

the areas of health, education, and welfare. Large appropriations were

made by Congress to implement new programs. These funds were then dis-

tributed through federal agencies into state and local governments.

Most of the projects went beyond the capabilities of the respective

governmental units. Consequently, consultants were brought in to sup-

plement the increased need for expertise.

Today, the consulting profession has grown from roughly fif-

teen firms in 1910 to over thirty five hundred firms (Hunt, 1977).

Figure I depicts the growth of consultation beginning with the 1900's

and concluding with present day society. "The increasing demand for

the services of professional management consultants stems largely from

the growing burdens imposed on managers in recent years" (Shay, 1965,

p. 3). The consulting profession has grown within the past century.

Consulting will continue to grow and develop as long as the need for

the expertise exists.

Definition of Consultation

Kurpius (1978) defines consultation as "a process for synthe-

sizing environmental and human adjustments to influence change" (p. 320).

In this study, the focus lies on three areas of the consultation process.

The first involves organization development. The second focuses on

Figure 1

Growth of Consulting Organizations (Hunt, 1977)
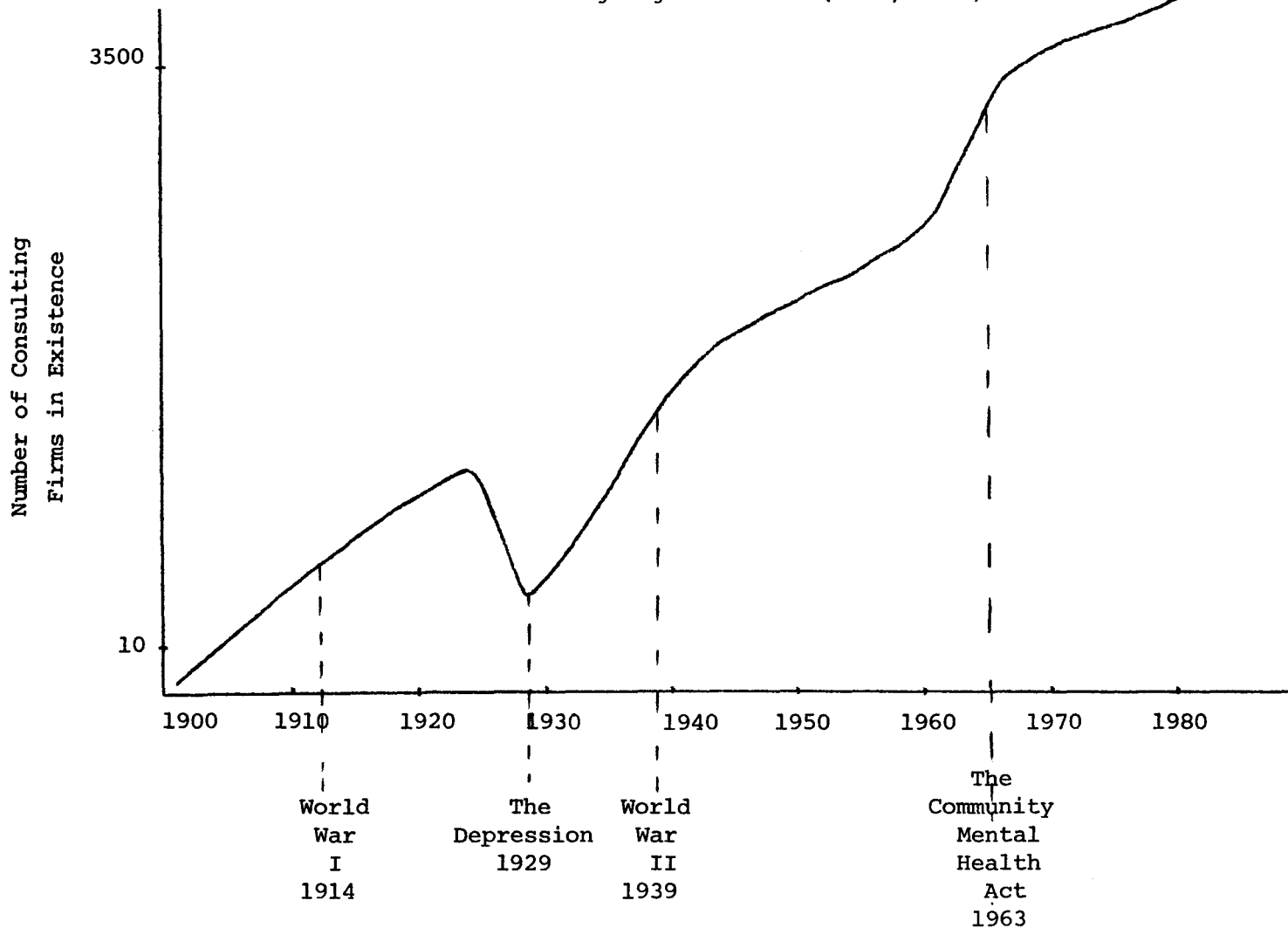
human resource development. The third involves the degree of openness

of a system toward the implementation of change. Within these three

areas lies a variety of specific organizational concerns.

Organization development or OD, according to Hornstein, et al.

(1971), is "the creation of a culture which supports the institution-

alization and use of social technologies to facilitate diagnosis and

change of interpersonal, group, and intergroup behavior, especially

those behaviors related to organizational decision-making, planning,

and communication" (p. 5-6). Before social technologies are employed,

the organization must be prepared to accept and assimilate change into

its system. The need for change however must first be established.

Employees are then exposed to the change. Finally, when the system

is ready to accept change, consultants can implement various OD pro-

jects.

A second definition supplementing Hornstein, et al. (1971), is

given by Rush (1973). He states that OD is "a planned, managed, and

systematic process to change the culture, systems, and behaviors of an

organization, in order to improve the organization's effectiveness in

solving its problems and achieving its objectives" (p. 2). In other

words, OD focuses on a problem-centered process to improve the effec-

tiveness of the system. To achieve this objective, it is necessary to

identify the problem and then act upon a systematic process of change.

Burke and Schmidt in Hornstein, et al. (1971), define a third

definition of OD as being "a process for increasing organizational

effectiveness by integrating individual needs and desires for growth

within organizational goals, using the knowledge and techniques of the behavioral sciences" (Hornstein, et al., 1971, p. 373). This integrative approach is further examined by Morse and Lorsch (1970) in their article "Beyond Theory Y." The authors advocate a contingency theory whereby an interrelationship or fit exists between task, organization, and people. This theory emphasizes "that the appropriate pattern of organization is contingent on the nature of the work to be done and on the particular needs of the people involved" (Morse & Lorsch, 1970, p. 100). Consequently, an individual's sense of competence coupled with the effectiveness of task performance results in an organization task fit.

The first definition by Hornstein, et al. (1971) focuses upon social creative aspects of organization development; whereas the second definition by Rush (1973) emphasizes a more systematic, organized approach to OD. Finally, in the third definition by Burke and Schmidt in Hornstein, et al. (1971), the integration of individual and organizational needs is stressed. The nature of the definition of organization development varies as to the specific orientation of the system. All three definitions, however, emphasize the aspects of change for the improvement of the organization. Change can occur through the assistance of an internal change agent or from the intervention of an external consultant.

Current issues and strategies in organization development have also been addressed by several authors. For example, Burke (1977)

reviews and synthesizes OD by plotting its change over the past decade and by stating current trends and future goals of OD. Burke (1977) further mentions that OD is an unstructured body of knowledge having a few models and some theories. Although research has been conducted in OD to create more coherence and structure to the area, it is still in an evolutionary stage and may never fully develop, according to Burke.

In addition, Burke (1977) discusses the changing trends in OD. OD has changed "from a field limited almost exclusively to business industrial organizations to a field affecting many different organizational types" (p. 24). Furthermore, he notes that the OD practitioner who was non-directive and purely process oriented has changed to being an authoritative specialist. Also, line managers and administrators are taking the place of the OD practitioner. Finally, Burke mentions that OD practitioners are working not only with the management level but with all organizational levels. The important point is that "regardless of which changes are occurring with OD today, it is safe to say that the field is still in a process of becoming" (Burke, 1977, p. 23).

Similarly, in a more recent book edited by Burke and Goodstein (1980), additional current trends and issues are outlined with respect to organizational development. Issues such as the quality of work life, team building, career development, communication skills, stress at work, and the changing values of OD are discussed in detail as to their impact on the changing state of organizational development.

Other authors have developed visual models to depict their theoretical framework. For instance, Barrett (1970) examines the nature of the relationship between the needs of the individual and those of a social organization. The individual can be considered as an internal consultant or employee of the organization. The problem arises when an incongruity exists between the goals of the individual and the objectives of the organization. Consequently, administrators and consultants need to bridge this gap between organizational needs and individual objectives so that a more integrated system can prevail.

Barrett (1970) depicts this situation in his three, goal integration models: the exchange model, the socialization model, and the accommodation model. A forth model depicts the ideal situation of goal integration (see Figure 2). In Figure 2, "A" represents the activities which contribute to the fulfillment of the individual's needs. "B" denotes the organization's objectives and "C" shows the level of integration between sets A and B. The exchange model is "concerned...with ways of relating personal goals and organizational objectives [rather] than with ways of integrating them" (Barrett, 1970, p. 4). A minimal level of integration occurs in this model.

In the socialization model, the individual is persuaded to reject some personal goals in order to accept the objectives of the organization. On the other hand, the accommodation model depicts an emphasis on the individual's goals as a determining factor of the organization's objectives. In this way, the organization changes its

Figure 2

Barrett's Integration Models (Barrett, 1970)

THE EXCHANGE MODEL

THE SOCIALIZATION MODEL

THE ACCOMMODATION MODEL
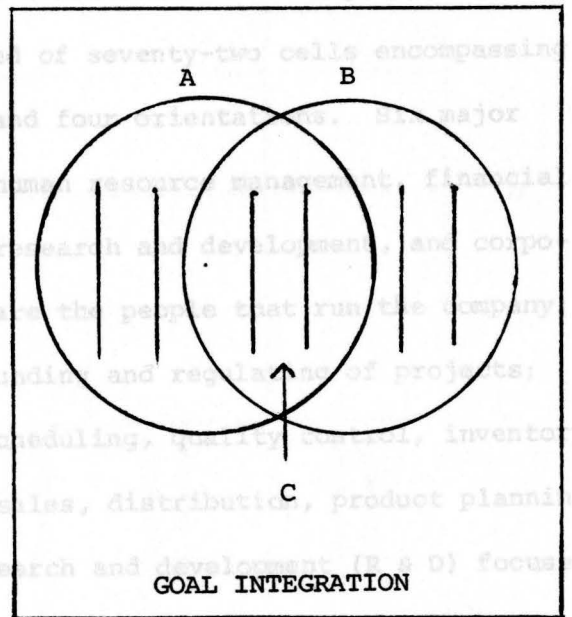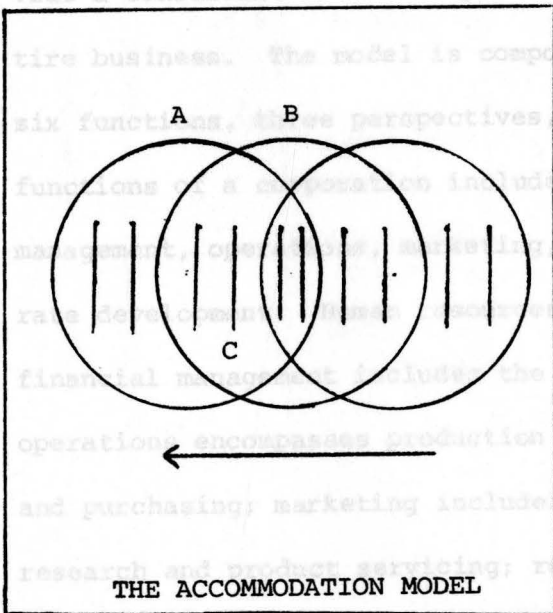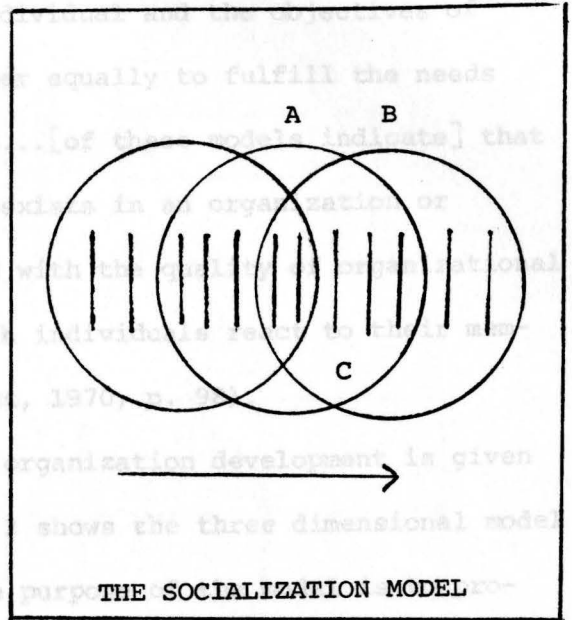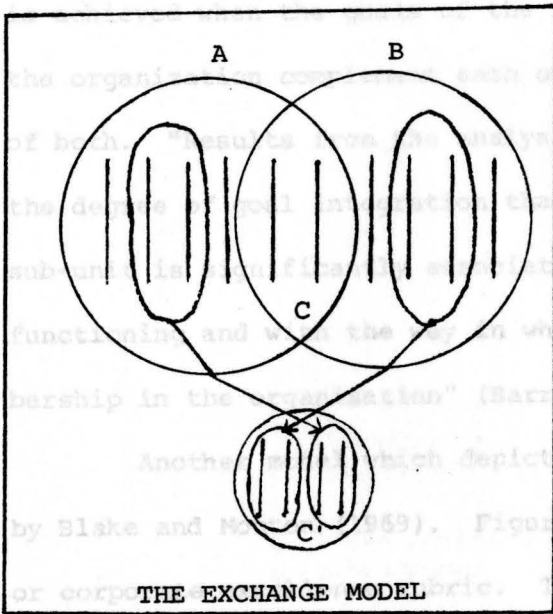
GOAL INTEGRATION

A = Activities fulfilling individual needs.
B = Organization's objectives.
C = Integration level of A & B.

objectives to fit those of the individual. Finally, goal integration

is achieved when the goals of the individual and the objectives of

the organization complement each other equally to fulfill the needs

of both. "Results from the analysis...[of these models indicate] that

the degree of goal integration that exists in an organization or

sub-unit is significantly associated with the quality of organizational

functioning and with the way in which individuals react to their mem-

bership in the organization" (Barrett, 1970, p. 98).

Another model which depicts organization development is given

by Blake and Mouton (1969). Figure 3 shows the three dimensional model

or corporate excellence rubric. The purpose of the model is to pro-

vide a consultant with a comprehensive framework for analyzing an en-

tire business. The model is composed of seventy-two cells encompassing

six functions, three perspectives, and four orientations. Six major

functions of a corporation include human resource management, financial

management, operations, marketing, research and development, and corpo-

rate development. Human resources are the people that run the company;

financial management includes the funding and regulating of projects;

operations encompasses production scheduling, quality control, inventory,

and purchasing; marketing includes sales, distribution, product planning,

research and product servicing; research and development (R & D) focuses

upon the research laboratory which investigates phenomena that help

mold the market and prepare for future directions; and corporate de-

velopment is concerned with profitability, the nature of the business,

the type of markets served, organizational structure, activities and

.policies.

Figure 3

Blake and Mouton's

Corporate Excellence Rubric (Blake & Mouton, 1969)
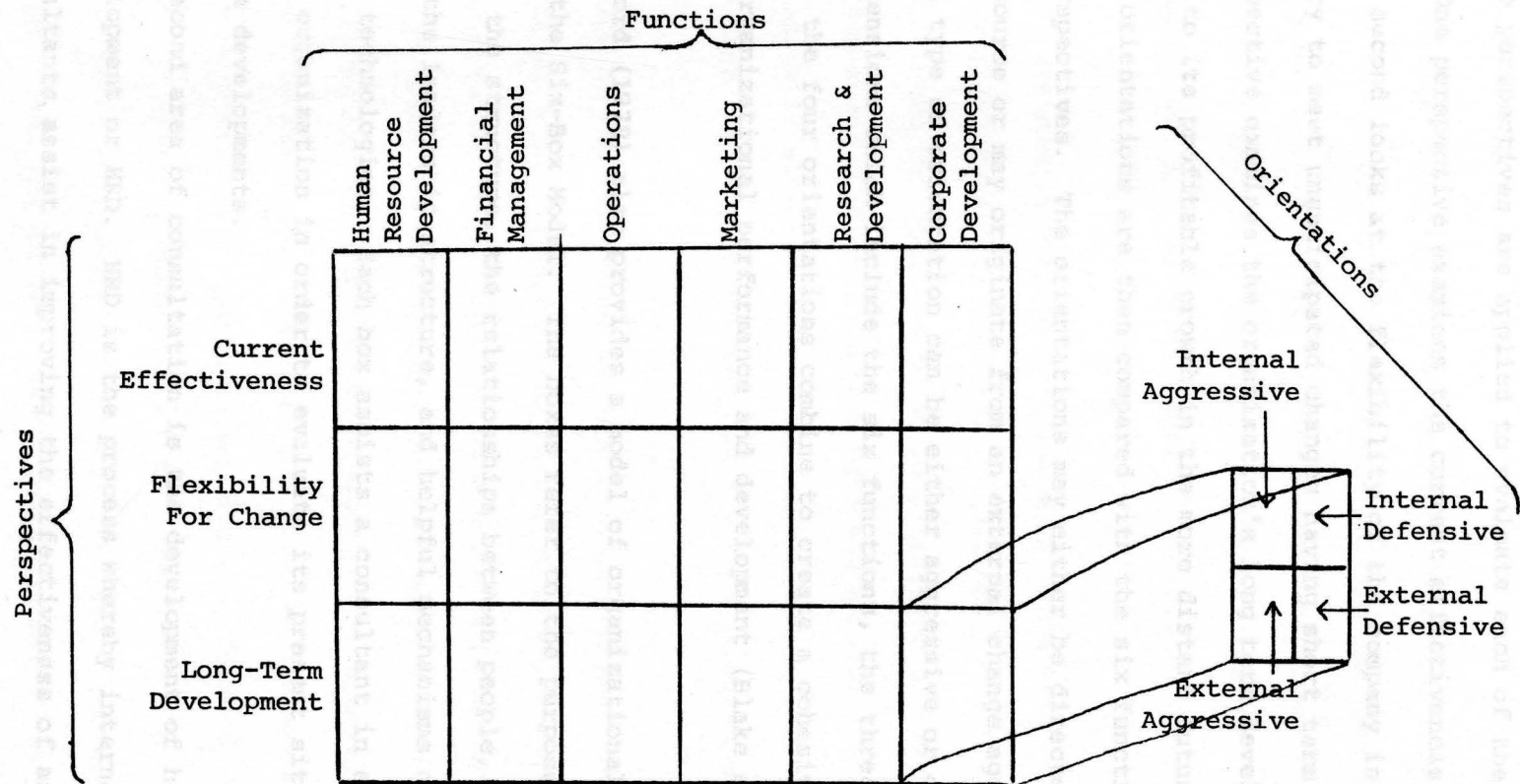
Three perspectives are applied to evaluate each of the six functions. One perspective examines the current effectiveness of the business. A second looks at the flexibility of the company in terms of its ability to meet unanticipated changes having short term effects. A third perspective examines the organization's long term development with respect to its profitable growth in the more distant future.

Four orientations are then compared with the six functions and the three perspectives. The orientations may either be directed from an internal source or may originate from an external change agent. In addition, the type of orientation can be either aggressive or defensive. All three dimensions which include the six functions, the three perspectives and the four orientations combine to create a cohesive model to evaluate organizational performance and development (Blake & Mouton, 1969).

Weisbord (1978) also provides a model of organizational diagnosis called the Six-Box Model. The boxes refer to the purpose of the organization, the structure, the relationships between people, the reward system, the leadership structure, and helpful mechanisms needed to coordinate technologies. Each box assists a consultant in examining aspects of an organization in order to evaluate its present situation and its future developments.

The second area of consultation is the development of human resource development or HRD. HRD is the process whereby internal or external consultants assist in improving the effectiveness of an organization through the use of behavioral science techniques such as naturalistic observation and effective communication skills. "Today,

more than ever before, managers realize that the long-term success of
any organization is closely tied to employee training and development"
(Donaldson & Scannell, 1979, p. 1). Human resource development in-
cludes three areas of activity: employee training on the job, the educa-
tion of the individual, and the development of the organization (Nadler,
1979).

Employee training encompasses "those activities which are de-
signed to improve performance on the job..." (Nadler, 1979, p. 40). In
distinguishing between training and education, training narrows an in-
dividual's differences; whereas education broadens an individual's dif-
ferences. Training is acquired through the development of specific
skills coupled with the proper attitude and a working knowledge of the
specific area.

Education of the individual is also critical as part of a total
development program. The purpose of the education of an employee is to
prepare the employee for upward mobility within the organization. Job
enrichment can increase the motivational needs of workers which can in
turn improve the quality and quantity of production. The term, job
enrichment "involves meaningful change in job tasks by increasing op-
portunities for responsibility, personal achievement, feedback, growth,
and advancement..." (Norton, Massengill, & Schneider, 1979, p. 28). A
promotion increases an employee's responsibilities and prior education
prepares the individual for change. Also, organizations often provide
for career development activities through classroom instruction, job
rotation, field trips, public seminars and tuition reimbursement pro-
grams.

Finally, "employee development is concerned with preparing the employee [to] move with the organization as it develops, changes, and grows" (Nadler, 1979, p. 88). Development focuses upon the future of the organization and the individual. In this sense, the goals of development are not clearly defined. Nevertheless, the need to plan ahead is necessary and vital to the growth of the total organization.

To implement a system which accounts for the development of human resources, Mackey (1981) has devised a "Four-Phased Approach" as an effective method of maintaining an HRD system. The system uses a computer to monitor large quantities of information in a building block fashion. Phase one is a compilation of data concerning the dynamics of the population of the organization. This is the movement of people into, through, and out of the system. An analysis is conducted in phase two relative to the organization's readiness or ability to alter its work force to meet the future demands of human resources. Phase three involves matching the skills, experiences, aspirations and availability of employees to current and future needs of the organization. Finally, phase four makes a supply and demand comparison to forecast and reconcile the supply of people with the organization's demand for human resources. In order to effectively implement the above procedures, planners are advised to take one step at a time in building the program, for each phase is cumulative and dependent upon the preceding phase.

The third area of consultation is planned change. Change is the result of examining organization development and improving the

human resources of a system. Consultants or change agents assist in implementing change to insure that the new method is assimilated successfully into the previously existing situation. Change can be implemented at a basic level between two individuals or it can span the range of a full organization. Margulius and Wallace (1973) address this issue in their book Organizational Change. The authors discuss both theoretical and practical aspects of change. However, the emphasis is placed more on practical techniques. The evaluation of a system's effectiveness is measured through the use of data collection and action research. Also, laboratory methods and laboratory training are additional tools social scientists utilize in studying behavior and change.

The approach taken by Margulius and Wallace (1973) is clearly people oriented for in the final analysis, it is "people who are called upon to do things differently" (p. 2). To implement planned organizational change requires not only effort and imagination but knowledge and understanding. Change is an inevitable part of development. Consequently, "in order to survive, modern organizations must devise means of continuous self-renewal" (Margulius & Wallace, 1973, p. 1).

Consultants often act as catalytic agents for planned social change. Tichy (1974) examines the values, cognitions, and actions of various types of external change agents and focuses in particular on the OD change agent. After OD consultants were given a questionnaire, the resulting data was placed in a comprehensive framework called the

General Change Model or GCM (see Figure 4). The model consists of

three components. They include: the values of both the change agent

and those of the client, the cognitive factors mediating change, and

the technology or tools and skills needed to effect change. Tichy

(1974) examines these three components of change with respect to two

dimensions: the congruence between values and actions and the con-

gruence between cognitions and actions.

The results of the questionnaire demonstrate that the "OD con-

gruence is high on the cognitive/action dimension and low on the

value/action dimension" (Tichy, 1974, p. 179). OD consultants reported

that they should strive for such goals as increased participation by

all members of a system, increased individual freedom, and greater

effectiveness in solving social problems. However, in actuality, OD

consultants worked only to improve productivity or problem-solving

ability in the system. The paradox is that while OD consultants main-

tain a value-oriented change approach, they are employed by organiza-

tions primarily to help with problems of efficiency and output.

Tichy (1974) also states that the change agent needs to deal

more explicitly with values prior to entering into an organization.

In addition, Tichy explains that the consultant should not promise

managers an increase in efficiency and productivity as a consequence

of OD intervention if the consultant is unable to provide data to

support the inquiry.

Another study conducted by Howes and Quinn (1978) examines the

applied organizational change literature on the elements which are

Figure 4

Tichy's General Change Model (Tichy, 1974)
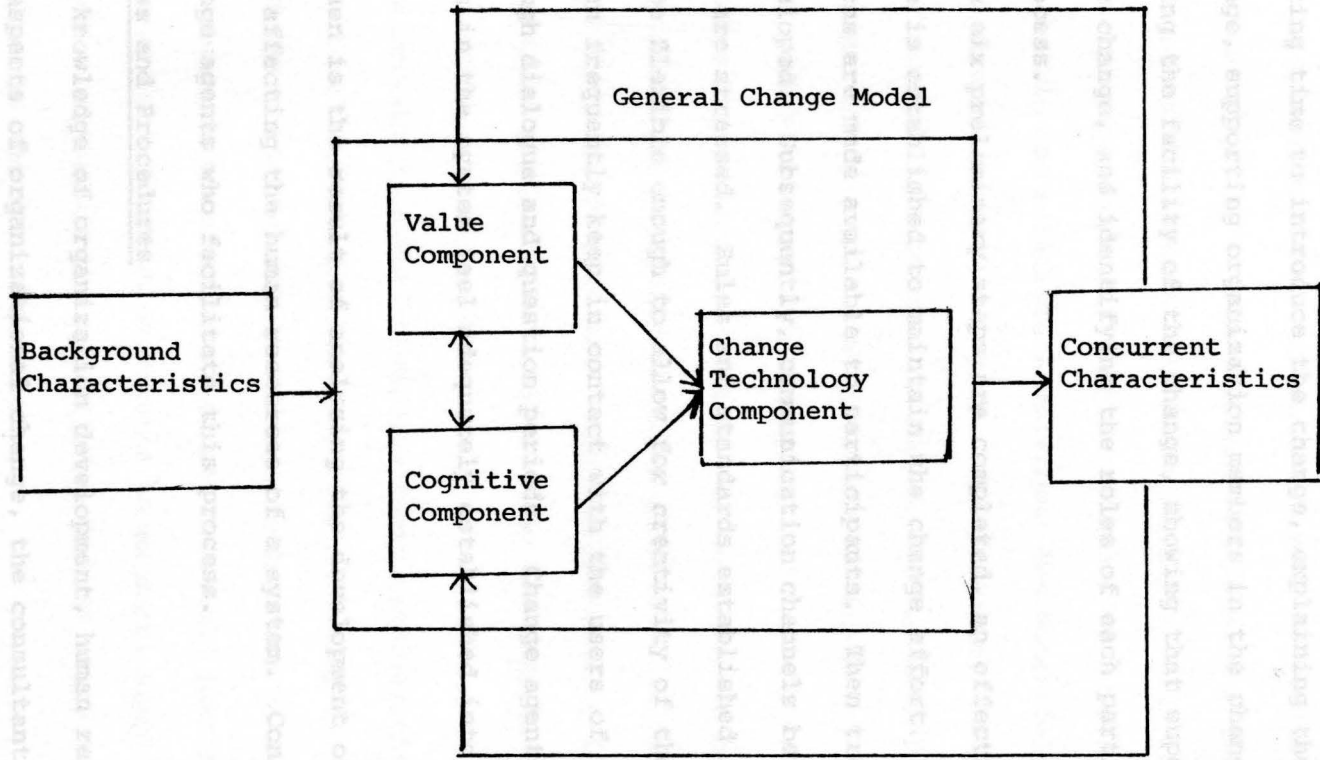
associated with successful implementation of change. The authors out-
line twelve prescriptive change levers needed to effect change. Six
steps assist managers in orienting the environment toward change. They
include: allocating time to introduce the change, explaining the rele-
vancy of the change, supporting organization members in the change
task, demonstrating the facility of the change, showing that super-
visors accept the change, and identifying the roles of each participant
in the change process.

After the six preliminary steps are completed, an effective
support structure is established to maintain the change effort. First,
supportive services are made available to participants. Then training
programs are developed. Subsequently, communication channels between
all participants are stressed. Rules and standards established in the
program need to be flexible enough to allow for creativity of thought.
Change agents then frequently keep in contact with the users of the
new program through dialogue and question periods. Change agents make
sure that members in the system feel adequately established into the
new system.

Change then is the result of analyzing the development of the
organization and affecting the human resources of a system. Consult-
ants are the change agents who facilitate this process.

Consulting Process and Procedures

Having a knowledge of organization development, human resource
development and aspects of organizational change, the consultant is

in a position to act upon the needs of a system. Various basic chronological procedures outline the process of consulting. An entry stage begins the process followed by the formation of a contract, a diagnostic analysis of the problem, the establishment of projected goals, an implementation of the defined plans, and finally a completion and termination of the process (Lippitt & Lippitt, 1978).

In the entry stage, the initial establishment of a potential consulting relationship may originate from either the potential client, the potential consultant, or a third party. The potential client may need a consultant to resolve a problem or the client may merely have "a desire to increase [the] competitive advantage by improving productivity and effectiveness..." (Lippitt & Lippitt, 1978, p. 9).

On the other hand, the first contact may be initiated by a consultant who is seeking new clients who need assistance in changing a pattern of functional ineffectiveness. Another possibility is where a third party perceives the client's need for help and undertakes to bring the client and consultant together.

After the contact is established, the consultant identifies and clarifies the nature of the problem by either listening to the client or obtaining information within the system in order to isolate the problem. At this point, an internal consultant would have a better working knowledge of the organization whereas an external agent would lack the context and history of the specific system and would consequently need to explore the situation further.

Once the problem is clearly identified, the consultant examines the client system's readiness for change. Similarly, the client also assesses the consultant's credibility, trustworthiness, and potential to work within the system.

In the formation of a contract, clarification of the problem needs to be established if the working relationship is to be successful. Various inquiries are examined: namely; will a change in the system increase profits or will a change increase the effectiveness of communication patterns between supervisor and subordinate? The mutual understanding of goals provides the basis for a strong, successful outcome (Lippitt & Lippitt, 1978).

In this clarification process, it is also necessary to establish who will be involved in the process, what activities will be implemented to help solve the problem, what support will be provided, what financial commitments will be made and how the contract will be terminated. Also, included in the contract is a clarification of the projected time period which will be allocated to the project (Lippitt & Lippitt, 1978).

A diagnostic analysis of the problem is then implemented through the identification of the forces which impede the movement toward a goal and the factors which facilitate change (Lippitt & Lippitt, 1978). The climate of the organization indicates the level of responsiveness toward change. The system may be very open to new ideas and methods or it may be defensive and closed toward any implementation of change. Nevertheless, part of the consultative process is an analysis of the existing situation.

The projected goals are then outlined in a step-by-step format which results in the desired outcome. Once the projected long range goals of the system are defined, an anticipatory rehearsal is conducted in order to pretest what will occur. Strategies are outlined and goals are identified.

Action is then taken and is successfully initiated because preliminary steps were taken in order to insure an effective program. Another benefit of a planned strategy is the continuity of long term gains. The change is not only implemented successfully but it continues to assimilate into the structure of the system. Another measure to insure successful results is to evaluate the project at specific intervals. Finally, feedback from participants in the project assists the consultant in the action process.

A completion and termination phase concludes the intervention process. However, before terminating, the consultant designs a contingency support system which enables the planned change effort to become an ongoing part of the system. Subsequently, the client's need for the consultant dwindles and the system eventually functions once again on its own merits. (Lippitt & Lippitt, 1978).

In addition to outlining various procedures of the consulting process, steps must also be taken in choosing the appropriate consultant for the job. Since the responsibility for selection reflects the client's professional reputation (Raine, 1980), the client must carefully choose the type of consultant that will best provide for the needs of the organization. Shay (1965) presents a sequential process of how to select an external consultant.
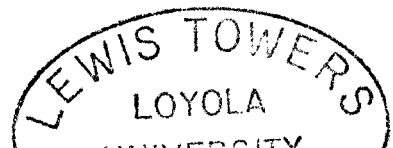
According to Shay (1965), the problem must first be defined by the client. At that time, clearer assessment of the type of external source which best meets the client's needs can be determined. For example, a company having budgetary and economic problems will probably seek a financial consultant to analyze its situation.

Shay (1965) further advises that in the selection of a consultant, a preliminary reference check should be conducted on the reputability of the consulting firm. Also, extensive discussions with the consultant help the client to assess the possibilities of working with the external agent. The proposal and fee arrangements are discussed in the preliminary interviewing process.

Shay (1965) then addresses the client-consultant relationship. He advocates a relationship of mutuality and equality with both client and consultant striking a balance in their working relationship in order to successfully complete a given task.

Shay (1965) discusses termination and the necessity for evaluation of the performance of the consultant. The consultant is evaluated in terms of the quality of the intervention process. The performance of the participants involved in the project is also assessed. Tangible as well as intangible results are defined in order to insure that the job is well done.

Additional advice on the hiring of an outside consultant is outlined and defined by a number of other authors (Becker, 1976; Broadwell, 1977; Kirkpatrick, 1978; Landauer & Neuman, 1979; Raine, 1980). Their advice is to read the current literature on the names

of prominent sources, check the references of the consultant, evaluate the individual's compatibility with the organization, and inform the consultant of current events in the company. In addition, clients need to be prudent and conservative with respect to fees. Consequently, they need to carefully critique the quality of the consultant's total presentation.

Kafatou (1981) summarizes the key issues involved in hiring an external agent. They include pre-planning, careful selection of the consultant, proper documentation of the contract, adequate client preparation, and control of the situation. Above all, the client system must be in control of the situation, for without adequate preparation on the part of the client, the consultant can easily take advantage of the situation.

Albert (1978), on the other hand, examines how to select an internal consultant. Again, the problem is defined by the client system. However, rather than seeking external assistance, the organization assembles an in-house task force to solve the problem. Effective collaboration then needs to be established between the workers in the organization and the internal consultants. Support of top management is of utmost importance to insure success of an internal project. In addition, participants in the operating units must be willing to work together. The internal consultant should strive to maintain a high level of objectivity in order to be effective. Internal politics should also be avoided as sensitive issues. If internal politics are a major part of the problem, the company should hire an external consultant.

The internal consultant, according to Dekom (1969) provides a company with expert knowledge at an economical rate. Furthermore, Dekom states that "the test of an internal consultant's effectiveness is not whether he is liked..., but whether his research has been thorough, his advice sound, and his implementation of his recommendations sensitive and productive - all to be judged by his professional colleagues first and then by his clients and supervisors" (p. 5).

Baker and Schaffer (1969) present an example of a company that multiplied its productivity through the utilization of internal consultants working with managers. The authors advise internal consultants to begin each assignment where and when management is ready, willing, and able to begin. Also, internal consultants need to design projects which will build onto other endeavors so that a cumulative effect results in the process. In addition, internal consultants must share the control and knowledge with management in order to create and maintain a unified effort. By working together on projects, more creative input is generated towards solving the specific problem.

At times, organizations find the need to utilize both internal and external agents for a maximum effect upon a specific problem (Dimock, 1978). An example of this situation is given by Gluckstern and Packard (1977) in their article "The Internal-External Change-Agent Team: Bringing Change To A 'Closed System.'" The specific closed institution was a jail setting. The authors found that after both internal and external consultants were actively working together, a change took place among them. At the beginning of the project, the external change agent

seemed to carry more authority because the agent was a representative
of a reputable university; whereas the internal agent was harassed by
his peers for agreeing to work with the external agent. As the study
progressed, the roles had reversed in that the internal agent began
teaching the external consultant various facts and procedures about the
jail system. The success of the internal-external change-agent team
was found in combining the energies of both individuals thereby pro-
ducing a complementary situation in which "liabilities are cancelled by
each other's strengths" (Gluckstern & Packard, 1977, p. 48).

Perspectives of Consulting

In addition to procedural methods of consulting, several authors
have described various perspectives of the intervention process, inter-
ventionist theory, process consultation, behavioral science consulting,
cyclical and confrontational theories and survey-guided development theory
are prominent perspectives of consulting which are outlined in this sec-
tion. Perspectives on the future of consulting are also given.

Argyris (1970) examines consulting as a process of intervention.
Thompson (1981) describes Argyris' three criteria needed for effective
interventions to occur. They include: "assisting the client in develop-
ing data about the organization, [helping] the client in making free,
informed choices about data, [and] assisting the client in becoming com-
mitted to certain actions" (p. 52). Dirks, Rottinghaus, and Lansky (1978)
apply Argyris' theory to a small, informal organization. The authors
show that Argyris' principles of intervention are applicable not only

to large organizations but also to smaller systems. In addition,
Argyris (1970) does not advocate change as being the ultimate end goal
of an intervention. His contention is that too much stress can be
placed upon change itself rather than the real problem at hand. A study
conducted by Varney and Hunady (1978) explains that after change commit-
ments are made, they do not often continue after two to three months
of the initial intervention.

A final element of Argyris' (1970) theory is that the "prepara-
tion for consultation on the part of both the consultant and the organi-
zation can have a direct effect on the outcome of the [intervention] "
(Larsen, 1979, p. 1). In other words, not only is it important for the
consultant to be knowledgeable and skilled in a specific area, it is
also necessary for the organization to be prepared to state its expecta-
tions and requirements of the consultant. When both parties are adequate-
ly prepared for a consultation process, a greater likelihood exists that
the outcome of the process will be a successful one.

Process consultation "involves the manager and the consultant
in a period of joint diagnosis" (Schein, 1969, p. 5). The consultant,
according to Schein, must examine both the structure of the organiza-
tion and the processes which occur between people. Schein (1969) ex-
plains the importance of communication skills, group dynamics, leader-
ship and authority styles. Cash and Minter (1979) compare the process
consultation model with the doctor-patient model. The doctor-patient
model of consultation is where "one or more executives in the organiza-
tion decide to bring in a consultant or team of consultants to 'look
them over,' much like a patient might go to his doctor for an annual

physical" (Schein, 1969), p. 6). The consultant, like the physician, then recommends a program of therapy. In comparing both process model and doctor-patient model, Cash and Minter (1979) conclude that while both models are valid and useful, the consultant should "be extremely careful not to commit to a psychological or set of role expectations with the client which the organizational environment cannot support" (p. 27). The consultant should begin where the client is in terms of readiness for a certain consulting approach.

Bruckman and Iman (1980) also apply Schein's process model to a small business setting in order to test whether the same principles that apply to a large organization can also be utilized by small businesses. The results of the study conclude that "the quality of the outcome of the process is in direct relationship to the pre-planning and supervision of the [individual] in charge of the consulting process, and to the receptivity of the client" (p. 46).

Bell and Nadler (1979) emphasize the perspectives of both client and consultant in their book, The Client-Consultant Handbook. Their philosophy advocates maximizing the potential of a positive client-consultant relationship based upon the acquisition of mutual understanding as well as self understanding. In addition, the authors recognize that the various types of consulting such as organization development consulting, management consulting and human resource development consulting all can be labeled under the term, behavioral science consulting. Although the authors stress both client and consultant perspectives, a greater focus is placed on the viewpoint of the client. The reason for this greater focus on the client is that often the client can be placed in a potentially dependent position

which can doom the consulting process. Consequently, by emphasizing the client's perspective, the client will be able to detect and prevent a possible dependent situation.

Another perspective of consulting is given by Blake and Mouton (1976). The authors provide a theoretical framework with an illustration of their own model called the consulcube. They maintain that behavior is cyclical in nature and can develop into a habitual, unconscious act. Consultation then is the cycle breaking mechanism used to change this repetitious behavior.

This cyclical nature of behavior is also described by Walton in his book, Interpersonal Peacemaking: Confrontations and Third Party Consultation (1969). However, rather than stating that all behavior is cyclical in nature, Walton focuses only on the cyclical nature of interpersonal conflict. The author's rationale is that conflict is often the reason to introduce an intervention strategy in an attempt to resolve conflict. Conflict is viewed as reoccurring several times between two parties. The purpose of the third party or consultant is to facilitate a constructive confrontation of the conflict situation in order to resolve the issue at hand.

Another perspective of consulting deals not only with the theory of human nature in an organization but also takes into account the scientific research of organization development. Survey-guided development is a sophisticated tool for using data as a springboard for development. This tool "emerges as a response to a practical need to see research findings implemented" (Bowers & Franklin, 1977, p. 5). The process of survey-guided development involves a model, a goal, an

activity and feedback. The model is a representation of cause and effect relationships and structural properties of an organization. The goal is a potential future state which is generated by the model. The action process involves the selection of an instrument which will assist in attaining the goal. Finally, objective feedback provides the organization with information in the form of deviations from what the model is expected to produce. The survey-guided development perspective provides a unique avenue for the consultant to explore.

A final perspective of consulting is given by Mirvis and Berg (1977) in their book entitled Failures In Organization Development and Change. According to the authors, the purpose of examining failure is not an end in itself, but is a means toward future learning and development. The majority of literature pertaining to organization development and change does not deal with the consequences of failure. Professionals seem to worship the concept of success without really appreciating or mentioning that "success is often born of failure and that to learn from our failures, we must nurture and support their examination" (Mirvis & Berg, 1977, p. vii).

Levesque (1973) also focuses on the failures of consulting in his article "How Not To Do Consulting." In the article, he addresses the various problems a consultant encounters. There are consequences of incorrectly addressing a problem or failing to recognize certain aspects of an organization. Often times, consultants fail to establish themselves into the mainstream of the client's activities. Consequently, the consultant works only to realize that reports go directly into the

file never to be used again. These and other failures in consulting
are outlined by Levesque (1973). With a more honest approach to con-
sulting, other aspiring novices in the profession can learn what not
to do so that energy can be applied to the more effective approaches
of consulting.

The future of consultation is addressed by a number of authors.
According to Hunt (1977), consulting will continue to expand into new
areas. However, he sees that the larger companies will be in a better
position to afford internal expertise than smaller companies. Smaller
organizations are not able to spare their own qualified people to under-
take additional special projects. Consultants will be assisting in the
development of effective control measures in service industries. These
effective control measures will assist management in self evaluation
and change.

Hunt (1977) states that the need for consultants will also be
found in governmental services. "As long as the profession continues
to exist and there is a turnover of its people, there will be a continu-
ing demand for new consultants" (Hunt, 1977, p. 139). Hunt also men-
tions that "the need for objective appraisal, the need for specialized
new talents, the need for quick and competent assistance, and the need
for government and institutions to carry out their newly expanded
roles, all will continue to produce a significant demand for consulting
services" (p. 140).

Blake and Mouton (1979) provide a perspective of the future of
consulting in their article "OD Technology For The Future." The authors

state that "OD professionals would rather stay in control and be in-
effective, than to release control to instruments, and in this way
generate the self-help dynamics essential for constructive change to
come about" (Blake & Mouton, 1979, p. 64). Blake and Mouton are ad-
vocating the instrumented team learning approach which stresses the
importance of optimal learning through various types of instruments
rather than building a dependence upon the trainer to help bring about
change. In this way, the client's dependency on the consultant is
eliminated and replaced by a reliance on systematic methods of change.
Unfortunatley, however, the authors see society as being stuck in this
dependent position and the only way to resolve the situation is to
create a greater internal commitment within organizations toward change
and excellence.

Goodstein (1978) also addresses the change phase as it relates
to the utility of organizational consultation. The majority of studies
conducted in this area support the continuance of planned organizational
change. For instance, Goodstein cites a study by Bowers (1973) who
compared various types of interventions and found that only survey feed-
back actually made a significant change in an organizational climate.
In addition to obtaining successful change through survey feedback, the
change must also occur developmentally in order to bring about any sub-
stantial impact in a system. Goodstein also cites a study by Franklin
(1976) in which a number of organizations involved in planned change were
assessed as to their success and failures. The results maintained that
"the successful groups were more likely to have used internal change

agents or consultants who were chosen and trained for this project and they showed more interest in the greater commitment to the change effort" (Goodstein, 1978, p. 160). Research supports the collaborative, participative approach to consultation and the maintenance of flexibility and openness to the process (Dunn & Swierczek, 1977; Glasser, 1977).

Another perspective which advocates the future of consultation is given by Burke and Goodstein (1980). In examining the past and present state of organization development, the authors are able to estimate its future development. The authors state that organization development is experiencing an identity crisis which stems from the core of its theory and practice. The problem does not lie in defining OD; rather it is the cause of a naive, inappropriate expectation. The expectation is that "an increased acceptance of the values of humanization and egalitarianism will promote organizational change in the direction of increased humanism, higher quality of work life, and greater decentralization of power" (Burke & Goodstein, 1980, p. 4). To an extent, this contention has become a belief rather than a reality. Consequently, the future is muffled and unclear. In order to effect change, the OD practitioner or change agent must facilitate value clarification within the system rather than initiate value change. The consultant's role is of crucial importance to the future development of organizations. OD will continue to develop and grow with the aid of "consultation that is data based, facilitative, process focused, and collaborative in nature" (Burke & Goodstein, 1980, p. 10).

The need for further research in OD is discussed by Bowers and Franklin (1977). They recognize the future of consulting. However, they see that in order for it to grow and develop, significant advances need to take place. Diagnostic procedures need to be improved with respect to their speed and accuracy, their comprehensiveness and their efficiency. In addition, consultants need to be further trained in multiple skills so that their ability to select and apply treatments is in accord with organizational needs. A greater emphasis needs to be placed on training specialists and developing new and better methods of training.

<u>Summary</u>

This chapter begins with a presentation of the historical development of consultation from its origin at the turn of the twentieth century up to its current state of development. Consultation is defined in terms of three areas of concentration: organization development, human resource development, and change. Next, the process and procedures of consulting are outlined. This section includes a chronological step-by-step list of procedures beginning with an entry stage, followed by the development of a contract, an analysis of the problem, a definition of projected goals, the implementation of specific plans, and concluding with the completion and termination of the process. In addition, various procedures are defined with respect to the hiring of the best external consultant for the job and how to effectively wotk with an internal consultant.

The chapter concludes with an examination of various perspectives on the consulting profession. A description of intervention theory, process consultation, behavioral science consulting, cyclical and confrontational theories, survey-guided development and the consequences of failures in the consulting process is given. Perspectives on the future of consultation are also provided.

Chapter III will focus specifically on defining and critiquing three perspectives of consulting. Then in chapter IV, a new model of consulting will be introduced based on the critique of these three theories. Finally, chapter V will summarize the study and provide a discussion of recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER III

THREE PERSPECTIVES OF CONSULTING

The consulting models outlined in chapter II can be placed in
one of three categories: theoretical, theoretical and pragmatic, or
pragmatic. The authors whose theories exemplify these three orienta-
tions include Argyris (1970) who provides a theoretical examination
of the intervention process, Blake and Mouton (1976), who describe
their theory of human behavior combined with a practical model of
consulting, and Weisbord (1978), who gives a practical explanation
of diagnosing organizations.

This chapter will analyze these three approaches of consulta-
tion relative to their consistency between theory and application.
In addition, the three approaches will be compared to each other with
respect to their similarities and differences.

The Intervention Theory of Argyris

The model of consultation which exemplifies a theoretical
framework is presented by Argyris (1970) in his book, Intervention
Theory and Method: A Behavioral Science View. Argyris defines inter-
vention theory; "To intervene, [according to Argyris], is to enter
into an ongoing system of relationship, to come between or among
persons, groups, or objects for the purpose of helping them" (p. 15).
Here, the process of going between two parties is given a positive

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connotation in that the outcome is assumed to aid and even improve the previously existing situation. However, an intervention can also disrupt the current state of affairs. Yet, Argyris (1970) does not explore this possibility. Not only can a process of intervention result in a positive outcome, it can also be detrimental to the parties involved in the process. Employees may go on strike, workers may resign if they are disillusioned with the company, or people may rebel by purposely slowing their work rate. Consequently, productivity would decrease and employee morale would also decrease. An intervention strategy would prove to be unproductive.

Argyris (1970) lists the basic requirements or primary tasks of an intervention activity. The first task is the generation of valid information. In order for an intervention to be effective, information must be exchanged between interventionist and client. Although change can also occur without major assistance from the interventionist, the change lacks "the attribute of helping or organization to learn and to gain control over its problem-solving capacity" (Argyris, 1970, p. 18).

A second basic condition of the intervention process is the element of free, informed choice. By this, Argyris (1970) means that the client has the right to maintain discreteness and autonomy from the interventionist. The locus of decision making lies in the client system and not with the consultant. Free choice allows the client to explore various alternatives which are important to the current needs of the organization.

In order for a client system to remain autonomous, an element of internal commitment must exist. Commitment implies responsibility and a willingness to succeed. The commitment to learn and to change needs to remain constant if consistency between theory and application is to be maintained. Internal commitment, according to Argyris (1970), "means the course of action or choice that has been internalized...so that [an individual] experiences a high degree of ownership and has a feeling of responsibility about the choice and its implications" (p. 20). A client will maintain an open perspective to reexamining the present situation if a continual positive awareness of the consulting process is practiced.

The three primary tasks in the intervention activity are generating valid information, encouraging free choice, and supporting internal commitment. According to Argyris (1970), the combination of these basic requirements is necessary in creating and maintaining effective interventions.

In addition to the three primary tasks of valid information, free, informed choice, and internal commitment, an interventionist utilizes three basic intervention techniques based upon the specific problem of the client system. The first technique is the use of tested methods. Tested methods assure the client system of relatively quick action with a respectable probability of success. Tested methods include "an already validated questionnaire, an already tested confrontation meeting, or a T-group approach" (Argyris, 1970, p. 31). These tested methods can be used to help solve problems such as poor

communication, lack of trust, or lack of internal commitment to organizational policies.

A second technique of intervention activity involves the creative arrangement of existing knowledge. Examples of this technique include intergroup exercises and T-group methods. The T-group is a group which has no stated goals other than to become a group. The group participants are left to their own resources. "The T-group is ... used extensively in a wide variety of training programs, and it is considered a laboratory for helping individuals comprehend group process" (Napier & Gershenfeld, 1973, p. 270). Creative arrangement of existing knowledge involves a continual modification and experimentation of T-groups and intergroup exercises without previous exploration or analytical study.

The third intervention technique is where "the resources of the client system and the resources of the interventionist are joined together to conduct an intervention that helps the client understand the nature of its problem and adds to the basic theory of intervention activity" (Argyris, 1970, p. 32). For instance, a specific inquiry concerning a practical problem of the client system can be translated by the interventionist into a theoretical issue. The client may ask: "how can we introduce product planning and program review into the organization?" (Argyris, 1970, p.34). The interventionist's interpretation of that question may be: "how can we institute a basic change in the living system?" (Argyris, 1970, p. 34).

The client takes a specific problem and examines it in a broader

sense with the assistance of the consultant. The translation process aids the consultant in helping the client to solve more similar problems in the future. This activity is demanding of both client and consultant. The consultant must be especially competent in conducting research and in intervening if this activity is to be successful.

The practical problems of the client are conceptualized by the interventionist to help the client understand the nature of a specific problem. For instance, a client may inquire about how to introduce product planning and program reviews into the organization. The interventionist would translate that question to read: how can the organization institute a basic change into its system?

In critiquing Argyris' (1970) intervention theory, various points emerge relative to the consistency between theory and application. The nature of Argyris' theory is general enough to encompass a wide variety of situations. The three primary tasks: valid information, free choice, and internal commitment, can be applied to a broad spectrum of consulting processes. The theory provides consultants with a basic foundation for a strong and effective consulting approach.

Although Argyris' (1970) contentions are basically theoretical in nature, practitioners have applied his intervention theory to consulting situations. For example, Dirks, Rottinghaus, and Lansky (1978) use a small group situation to conduct a study that illustrates the application of Argyris' primary intervention tasks. The study shows that Argyris' theoretical contentions can be applied to a practical consulting situation.

The client was a small local community within a large metro-
politan city. The committee was a volunteer organization of community
residents and mental-health professionals. The design of the study
was based on a survey-feedback model. The consultants intervened in
order to help the group establish more defined goals and accomplish
tasks.

Argyris' (1970) three primary tasks of valid information,
informed choice, and internal commitment formulated the basis of the
study. The consultants helped the client obtain valid information by
generating data, checking for consistency over time, and making infer-
ences. Data was collected through the use of questionnaires, tape
recordings, group effectiveness scales, and interviews. The consul-
tants maintained free choice on the part of the client. The client's
acceptance of the intervention was made independently without any
external assistance. Discussions were made solely by the client.
Internal commitment was created as the group continued to make free,
informed discussions. The group's dependence on the consultants
decreased as a result.

The outcome of the intervention proved successful. "The group
wrote policy statements regarding committee goals, membership bound-
aries, authority structure, decision-making processes, role relation-
ships, and ways to obtain community support and recognition" (Dirks
et al., 1978, p. 325-26).

Argyris' (1970) three primary tasks imply that by having both
client and consultant generate valid information, both parties can check

for consistency in order to make inferences about a particular problem area. Also, by having the consultant encourage free, informed choice, the client accepts the intervention more readily because change is not imposed upon the client by an external source. Part of free choice includes maintaining "minimal discrepancy between the interventionist's espoused theory and the way he or she acts in the consultation" (Dirks et al., 1978, p. 327). Free choice involves risk taking, honesty and experimentation. The support of internal commitment increases decision making and decreases the client's dependency on the consultant (Argyris, 1953).

Although applicability and consistency prevail in Argyris' (1970) theory, inconsistencies can be seen in some of his logic. Argyris initially contends that in the change process, the total client system must be aware of the innovations in order for the system to assimilate the change. Yet, Argyris also states that "if ... changes are being considered that can be made at lower levels of a client system and do not require the approval of top management to institute and maintain, the involvement of upper management may not be required" (p. 27). However, there is always the possibility that top management may stumble upon a change which was not conveyed to all members of the system. Consequently, the safe, more ethical manner of proceeding is to make all employees aware of changes occurring regardless of the importance of the specific change.

Argyris (1970) also advocates the scientific method of research for it provides a rational, realistic approach to study.

Although a behavioral science view of human nature is valid and re-
liable, human behavior can be researched only to a point (Argyris,
1970). Thereafter, certain aspects of behavior defy any statistical
analysis. Behavior is both rational and irrational. It is not
enough to restrict the study of intervention theory to a behavioral
science approach. Other perspectives of human behavior must also be
considered. Emotions and feelings can often be irrational and un-
reasonable. Argyris' three primary tasks can only be successfully
implemented when the proper emotional atmosphere prevails. Both client
and consultant need to maintain a positive, productive working rela-
tionship if the intervention activity is to be successful.

In spite of the inconsistencies in Argyris' (1970) theory, the
majority of his contentions are logical and applicable to any strategy.
The comprehensive nature of Argyris' theory has and will continue to be
relevant to a variety of consulting situations.

Blake and Mouton's Consultation Theory

Like Argyris (1970), Blake and Mouton (1976) also provide a
theoretical framework for consultation. The authors maintain that
behavior is cyclical in nature and can develop into a habitual, un-
conscious act. Consultation is viewed as the cycle breaking mechanism
utilized to change this repetitious, cyclical behavior. Consequently,
a client becomes more aware of any repeated behavior through the inter-
vention efforts of a consultant.

In addition, Blake and Mouton (1976) developed a model for the consultation process. The model or consulcube explains consultation through a geometric, one hundred-celled cube. The preliminary conception of this consulcube began with the establishment of the D/D matrix or Diagnosis/Development matrix (Blake & Mouton, 1974). Figure 5 shows both the D/D matrix and the consulcube.

The D/D matrix is a two dimensional model including five types of intervention strategies and five units of change. One difference between the matrix and the consulcube is that the matrix labels the first type of intervention as being cathartic whereas the consulcube categorizes the first type of intervention as being acceptant. Both terms refer to the same type of intervention strategy. With the development of the consulcube, Blake and Mouton's model expands the D/D matrix to a three dimensional model which not only includes types of intervention and units of change but adds a third element, focal issues.

The one hundred-celled consulcube is composed of five kinds of interventions, five units of change and four focal issues. The five kinds of interventions are: acceptant, catalytic, confrontational, prescriptive, and theoretical. These five approaches are characteristic of a consultant's style or intervention technique.

The acceptant change agent provides the client with a sense of personal security to freely express thoughts and feelings without fear of adverse judgments or rejection from the consultant. A catalytic intervention assists the client in collecting data and information which

Figure 5

The Diagnostic/Development Matrix (Blake & Mouton, 1974)

and The Consulcube (Blake & Mouton, 1976)

Types of Intervention	Units of Change				
	Individual	Team	Intergroup	Organization	Society
Cathartic	A	B	C	D	E
Catalytic	F	G	H	I	J
Confrontation	K	L	M	N	O
Prescriptive	P	Q	R	S	T
Principles, Models, Theories	U	V	W	X	Y

The Diagnostic/Development Matrix

Units of Change

Larger Social System — A_5 — D_5
Organization — A_4 — D_4
Intergroup — A_3 — C_3
Group — A_2 — B_2
Individual — A_1

Kinds of Interventions

Acceptant	A	B	C	D
Catalytic	E	F	G	H
Confrontation	I	J	K	L
Prescriptive	M	N	O	P
Theory & Principles	Q	R	S	T

L_1 P_2 T_1

Power/Authority   Morale/Cohesion   Norms/Standards   Goals/Objectives

Focal Issues
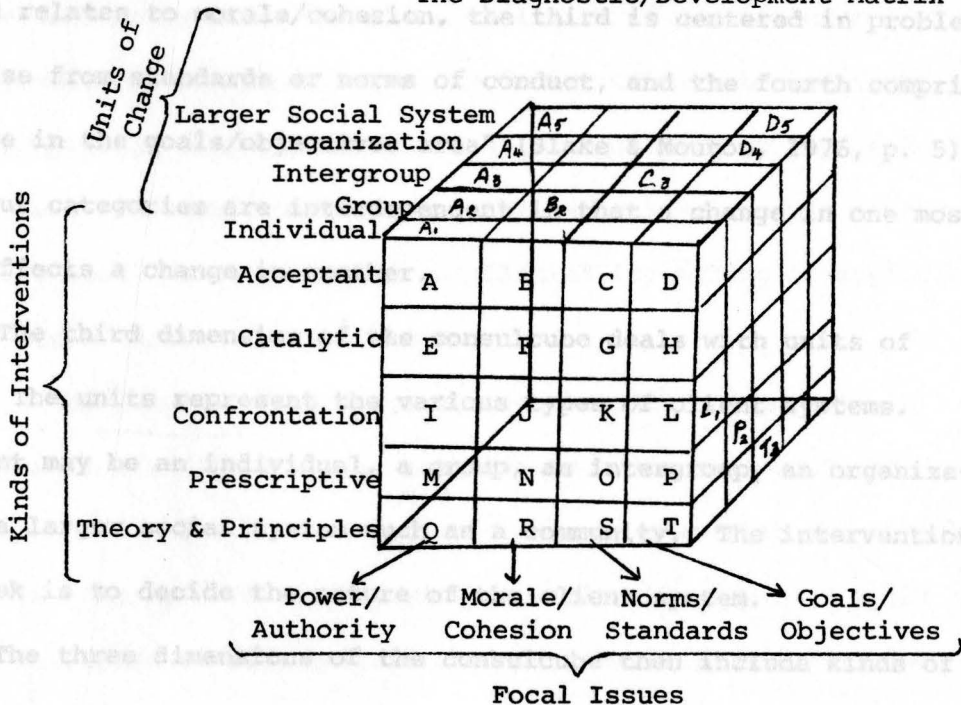
The Consulcube

aids the client in gaining a greater awareness of how to solve a particular problem. The confronter challenges the client to examine any value laden assumptions which can distort the actual situation. The prescriptive consultant takes full responsibility for developing evidence for diagnosis and for formulating solutions to rectify a given situation. The theoretical interventionist teaches the client to internalize systematic and empirically tested ways of understanding so that the client can perceive a situation in a more analytical manner.

Four focal issues encompass the second dimension of Blake and Mouton's (1976) consulcube. A focal issue is defined as an aspect of a situation which is the cause of a client's difficulties. Of the four categories, "the first involves the exercise of power/authority, a second relates to morale/cohesion, the third is centered in problems that arise from standards or norms of conduct, and the fourth comprises any issue in the goals/objectives area" (Blake & Mouton, 1976, p. 5). These four categories are interdependent in that a change in one most likely effects a change in another.

The third dimension of the consulcube deals with units of change. The units represent the various types of client systems. The client may be an individual, a group, an intergroup, an organization or a larger social system such as a community. The interventionist's task is to decide the nature of the client system.

The three dimensions of the consulcube then include kinds of interventions, focal issues, and units of change. Each cell in the

consulcube represents a specific type of intervention being applied to a particular client who is facing a unique problem. Each cell of the cube is labeled A_1, B_2, C_3, D_4, etc. (see Figure 5). For example, A_1 denotes an acceptant intervention where the client is an individual who is dealing with a power/authority issue. The cube helps to answer the question of what needs to be resolved, how the consultant will deal with that issue, and what type of client system the consultant helps. The cube is descriptive in nature.

In critiquing Blake and Mouton's (1976) theory and model of consultation, various aspects of the approach can be regarded as useful whereas other issues seem to contradict themselves. The consulcube facilitates an understanding of consultation by functioning as an organized, concise depiction of the major elements of consultation. Each cube cell "represents the characteristics of a particular kind of intervention being applied to a particular client who is facing a particular problem of breaking out of an unproductive or self-defeating cycle" (Blake & Mouton, 1976, p. 6). The generalized nature of the model lends itself to versatility and flexibility making it applicable to a variety of consulting situations.

On the other hand however, inconsistencies can be seen in Blake and Mouton's (1976) theory relative to their philosophy of human nature and their model of consulting. In examining the logic of the cyclical nature of human behavior, consultation may be a cycle breaking machanism to stop certain type of behavior. However, once

that behavior ceases, a new behavior emerges and continues in the same cyclical manner. Effective intervention occurs when change is continually assimilated in the system's total functioning process. Argyris (1970) addresses this issue when he discusses free, informed choice and internal commitment on the part of the client system. However, Blake and Mouton do not examine this crucial aspect of the consultation process.

Careful inspection of Blake and Mouton's (1976) consulcube also reveals a slight discrepancy in the types of intervention strategies. The approaches are arranged according to the kind of involvement of the consultant. The acceptant intervention is not as forceful or demanding as the prescriptive one. Blake and Mouton (1976) place the theoretical approach after the prescriptive one. This implies that the theoretical intervention type is a more assertive approach than the prescriptive one. However, in utilizing the theoretical perspective, the consultant offers theories pertinent to the client's situation. The consultant helps the client internalize systematic and empirically tested ways of understanding. "When learned so well as to be personally useful, these principles permit the client to view his or her situation in a more analytic, cause-and-effect fashion than had hitherto been possible" (Blake & Mouton, 1976, p. 5).

In order to place the theoretical perspective in a more appropriate sequential location, the list would read: acceptant, theoretical, catalytic, confrontational and prescriptive. In this respect,

the theoretical approach is situated in the proper context relative to its kind of intervention.

Another discrepancy of Blake and Mouton's (1976) perspective is that the consultation process is primarily discussed from the view-point of the consultant rather than the client. Yet, in order to address the total consulting process, the viewpoints of both consultant and client are essential (Bell & Nalder, 1979). Also, according to Goodstein (1978), the consulcube makes no distinction between the various types of professional workers engaged in the process of inter-vention such as psychologists, social workers, priests, supervisors, etc.. The emphasis rests on describing the aspects of consultation.

Blake and Mouton's (1976) consulcube depicts a closed structure which does not acknowledge change within the framework of the model. Although mobility and flexibility are provided for within the cube, the formalized rigidity and exactness of the model does not reflect the real world, which often times does not function in a closed, orderly manner.

Weisbord's Theory of Organizational Diagnosis

In order to provide for an effective intervention, a consultant needs to have a working knowledge of how to assess an organization. Weisbord (1974) examines one approach to organizational diagnosis through the context of a medical center case study. Two basic theo-retical issues are involved in Weisbord's study to improve organizations.

The first is to establish an adequate map of the way the organizational parts fit together. "This permits diagnosis of the gap between the way things are and the way they should be" (Weisbord, 1974, p. 211). The second deals with finding a solution to close the gap. This involves confronting conflicting matters in order to redirect energy into bridging the gap and making room for new possibilities. Both elements are needed in assessing the functioning of organizations.

In this study, Weisbord (1974) applies the differentiation-integration or D-I theory of Lawrence and Lorsch (1969) to a medical center model. The D-I theory is composed of two parts: differentiation and integration. Differentiation divides tasks and organizes each differently according to what the environment dictates as essential. Integration coordinates various tasks together. Weisbord proposes a mixed model in which there is differentiation in task management (see Figure 6). This model assists in sorting out the variety of professional tasks. After adequate differentiation of tasks is defined, task integration can take place.

In the mixed model however, Weisbord (1974) recognizes the need for a new, three dimensional model. Figure 7 illustrates an expansion of the original mixed model. This second model also applies to medical centers.

Weisbord's (1976) second model depicts three systems which are present in any organization. They include task, identity, and governance. The task system is the specific work of the organization.

Figure 6

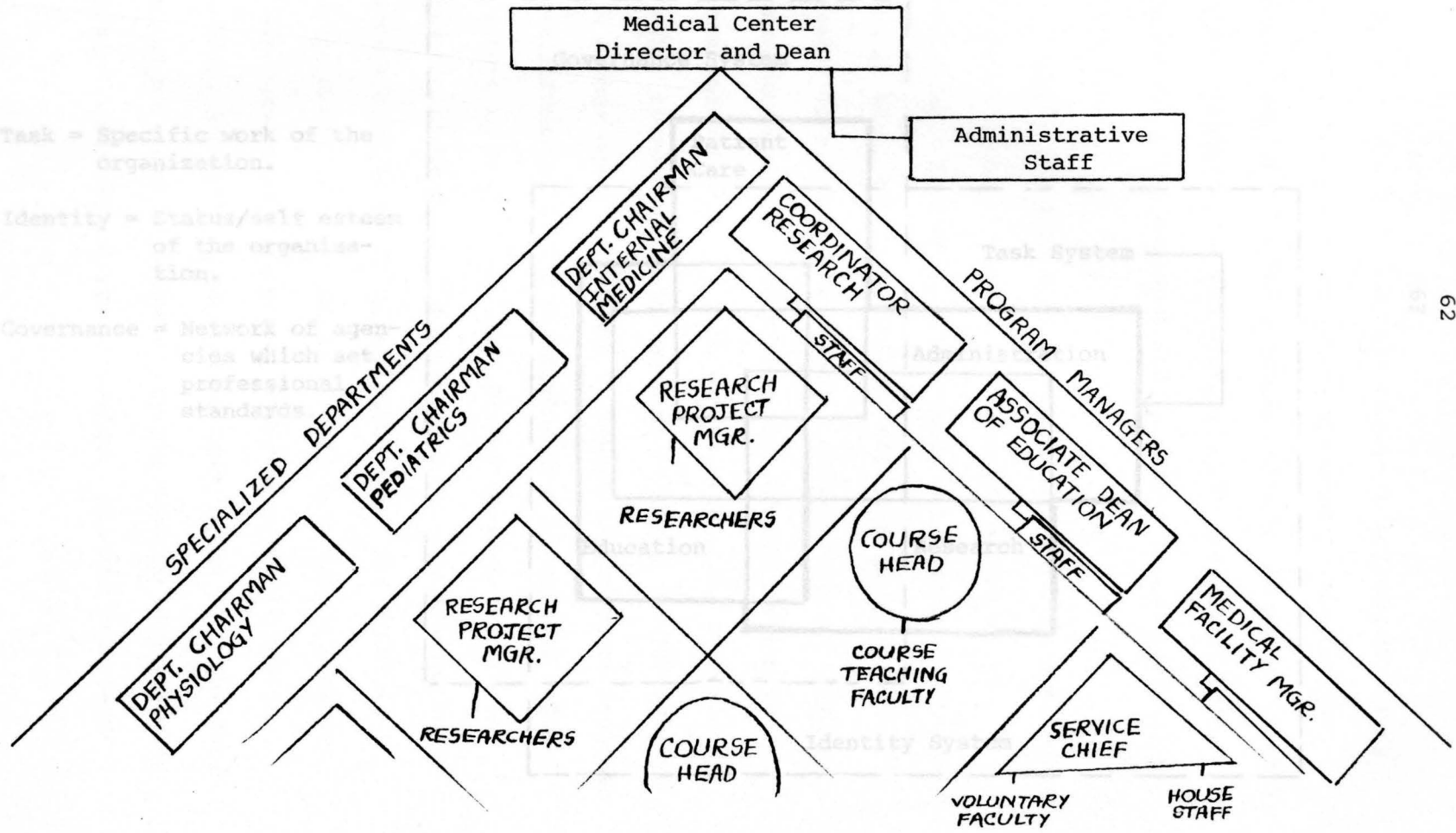Weisbord's Mixed Model for Medical Centers (Weisbord, 1974)

Figure 7

Weisbord's Model of

The Organizational Fit in Medical Centers (Weisbord, 1976)

Governance System

Task = Specific work of the
organization.

Identity = Status/self esteem
of the organiza-
tion.

Governance = Network of agen-
cies which set
professional
standards.

Patient
Care

Task System

Administration
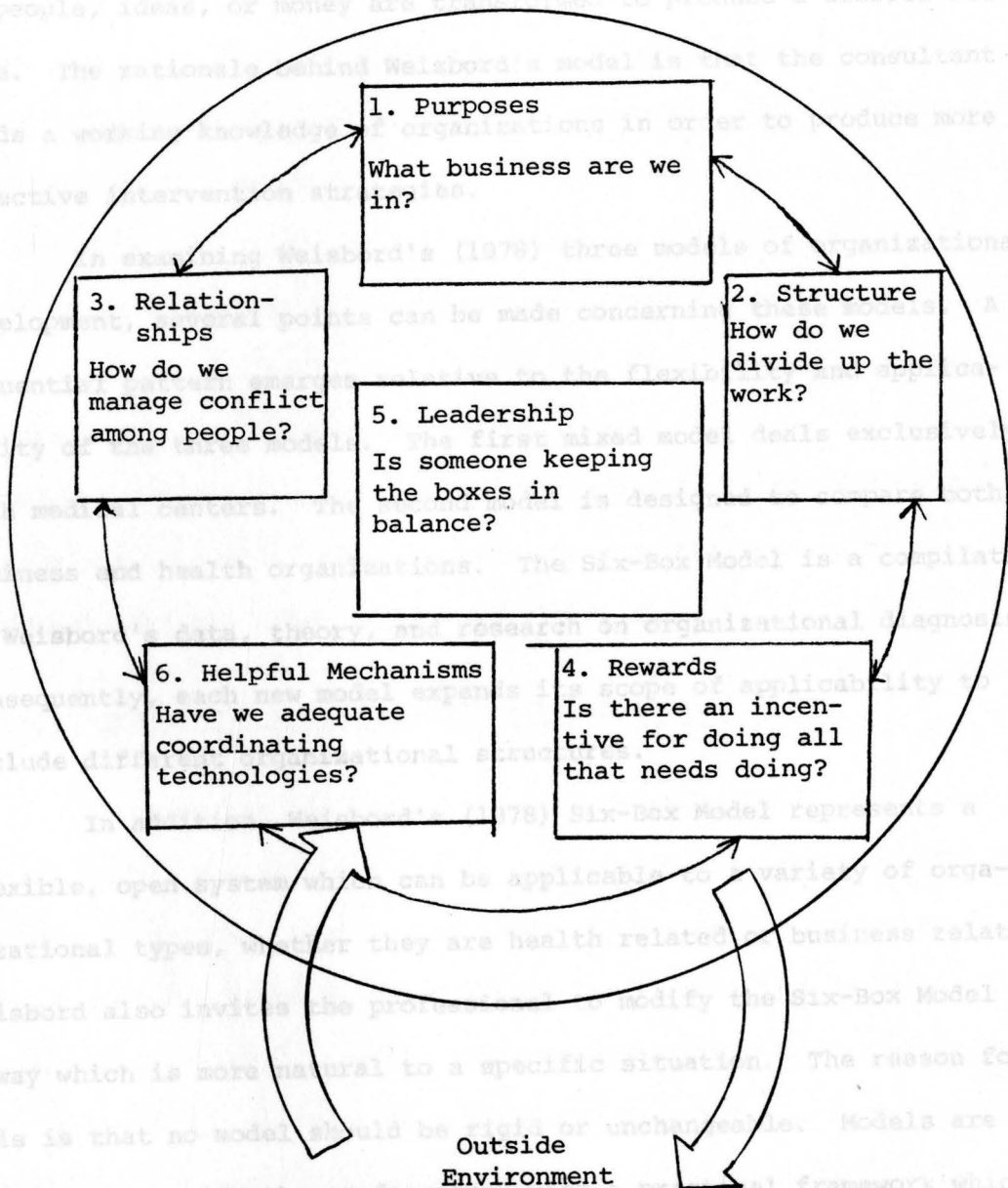
Education

Research
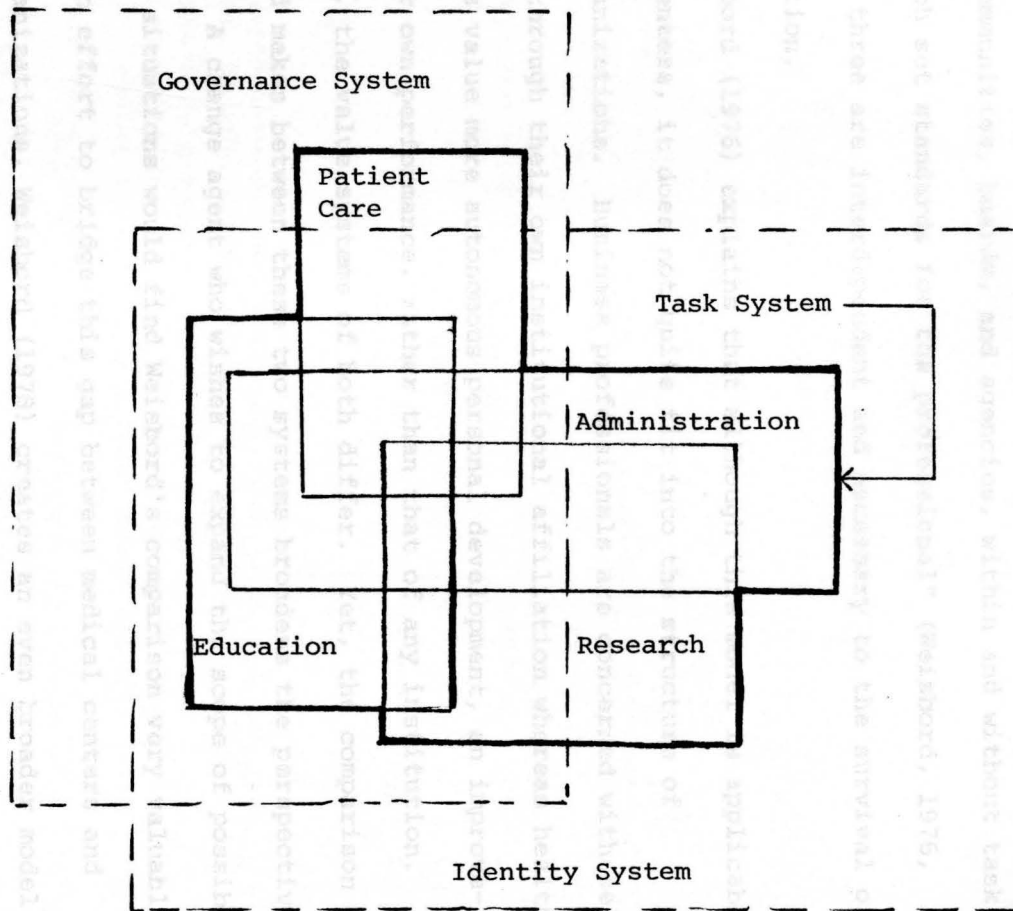
Identity System

The identity system refers to the professional development or status
and self esteem of an organization. The governance system "is the
network of communities, boards, and agencies, within and without task
systems, which set standards for the professional" (Weisbord, 1976,
p. 28). All three are interdependent and necessary to the survival of
the organization.

Weisbord (1976) explains that although this model is applicable
to medical centers, it does not quite fit into the structure of
business organizations. Business professionals are concerned with self
improvement through their own institutional affiliation whereas health
professionals value more autonomous personal development, an improve-
ment of their own performance, rather than that of any institution.
Consequently, the value systems of both differ. Yet, the comparison
that Weisbord makes between these two systems broadens the perspective
of OD today. A change agent who wishes to expand the scope of possible
intervention situations would find Weisbord's comparison very valuable.

In an effort to bridge this gap between medical centers and
business organizations, Weisbord (1978) creates an even broader model
which is flexible enough to apply to any situation. The model is
called the Six-Box Model of organizational diagnosis and it includes
the following six categories: purposes, structure, relationships,
rewards, leadership, and helpful mechanisms (see Figure 8). The cate-
gories are general in order to allow an interventionist to apply what-
ever theory is applicable to a given situation. All six areas are

Figure 8

Weisbord's Six-Box Model (Weisbord, 1978)

1. Purposes
What business are we in?

2. Structure
How do we divide up the work?

3. Relationships
How do we manage conflict among people?

5. Leadership
Is someone keeping the boxes in balance?

6. Helpful Mechanisms
Have we adequate coordinating technologies?

4. Rewards
Is there an incentive for doing all that needs doing?

Outside Environment

interrelated and provide the manager or consultant with a workable model to improve organizational strategy. The interaction of the six categories creates an input/output system in which resources such as people, ideas, or money are transformed to produce a desired outcome. The rationale behind Weisbord's model is that the consultant needs a working knowledge of organizations in order to produce more effective intervention strategies.

In examining Weisbord's (1978) three models of organizational development, several points can be made concerning these models. A sequential pattern emerges relative to the flexibility and applicability of the three models. The first mixed model deals exclusively with medical centers. The second model is designed to compare both business and health organizations. The Six-Box Model is a compilation of Weisbord's data, theory, and research on organizational diagnosis. Consequently, each new model expands its scope of applicability to include different organizational structures.

In addition, Weisbord's (1978) Six-Box Model represents a flexible, open system which can be applicable to a variety of organizational types, whether they are health related or business related. Weisbord also invites the professional to modify the Six-Box Model in a way which is more natural to a specific situation. The reason for this is that no model should be rigid or unchangeable. Models are created to provide the professional with a practical framework which can be implemented in various situations. The fact that the six

categories of the Six-Box Model are general and broad adds to the versatility of the model.

On the other hand, there are limitations to this type of model. For one, a consultant can only use it to a certain extent. Beyond that point, the model does not prove to be of assistance to a consultant. The model provides a consultant with an organized format to diagnose an organization. However, it does not elaborate any further as to the implementation of change or the consequence of change. In addition, there is no organizational outline behind this category. An organizational outline in a model would state the steps involved in examining a system's purpose, structure, rewards, etc., Although the five areas of purpose, structure, rewards, helpful mechanisms and relationships interrelate, the model does not indicate the relationship between leadership and the other areas (see Figure 8).

A Comparison of the Three Consulting Perspectives

In comparing the perspectives of Argyris (1970), Blake and Mouton (1976), and Weisbord (1978), certain commonalities exist. Each approach is unique. Argyris and Blake and Mouton use a more rigid type of analysis where Weisbord allows for flexibility, change, additions, and deletions. Argyris adheres consistently to the three primary tasks of an intervention. Blake and Mouton plot a very specific closed type of consulting model. No provisions are made if only two of Argyris' three primary tasks are satisfied or if a specific consulting process does not fall within the realm of the consulcube

structure. Weisbord, on the other hand, provides for a flexible, open type of model; one which can be applied and utilized in any organizational diagnosis.

Furthermore, there is a difference in the manner and treatment of the approach that each author takes. Argyris (1970) utilizes a negative perspective in order to justify that intervention theory and research are needed. He discusses the causes of organizational deterioration and conveys the idea that society is advocating ineffectiveness through its apathy and lack of motivation to improve. Consequently, Argyris (1970) states that "it is time that these processes were reversed" (p. 7). He proposes to assist in this reversal process by introducing intervention theory as a means to greater effectiveness for society's organizations.

Blake and Mouton (1976) approach both consultation and education as being "the two most important influences behind the forward movement of society" (p. iii). In fact, their contention is that consultation is even more important in providing society with its forward thrust. No mention is made of a deteriorating society; perfection and excellence are emphasized.

A very practical approach is presented by Weisbord (1974). In his article on the mixed model for medical centers, he stresses the notion of confronting problems in a practical manner in order to redirect energy into more positive approaches. Weisbord's (1978) organizational diagnosis emphasizes the practicality of working through a sequential analysis in order to teach organizational diagnosis. His

perspective is that theory is not enough; theory must be combined with practice in order for effective change to occur.

Although differences exist between the approaches of the three perspectives, various similarities can also be cited. A basic premise of all three authors is that consulting is evolving and changing with the needs and demands of society. Consultation is an important influence behind the forward movement of society. "The reason is that consultation alone deals with actual 'here-and-now' problems - ones that, if solved, can make a real difference to real people in the way they live and work" (Blake & Mouton, 1976, p. iii). Generalized theories and models are created to provide structure and continuity to consultation.

In addition, all three approaches provide a pattern of diagnosis in consultation. Argyris (1970) outlines the steps involved in effective intervention. The consultant first meets with the prospective client; then a selection process is made; activities are diagnosed; plans are implemented; feedback is given relative to the process; and finally termination occurs. Blake and Mouton (1976) examine the roles of the consultant and the client. They also discuss the formation of a contract and the appropriate times to use a specific intervention model. Weisbord (1978) discusses the six areas of purpose, structure, relationships, rewards, leadership, and helpful mechanisms.

Argyris (1970) presents basic elements needed for effective intervention to occur. Although Argyris does not develop a model of

intervention theory, his concepts combined with those of Blake and

Mouton (1976) and Weisbord (1978) indicate that, in essence, the ap-

proaches are not all that different from each other. There is an

element of overlapping. Figure 9 depicts this overlapping.

Blake and Mouton's (1976) consulcube is used as the basis of

this comparison. The focal issues of Blake and Mouton are similar to

Weisbord's six categories of organizational diagnosis. Blake and

Mouton's focal issues are those aspects of a consulting situation which

are causing difficulty for the client. Weisbord's six categories also

focus upon specific areas which need further diagnosis. Both focal

issues and six categories address the issue at hand whether it be a

morale/cohesion problem, a leadership problem, a structural issue, etc..

Both Blake and Mouton (1976) and Argyris (1970) discuss ways to

approach an intervention situation. Argyris states three methods of

intervening. A consultant can test various methods; creatively arrange

existing knowledge or propose to combine resources as part of a total

intervention process. Blake and Mouton also discuss methods of inter-

vention. They include acceptant, catalytic, confrontational, prescrip-

tive and theoretical. Although Argyris only uses three methods of inter-

vention and Blake and Mouton use five, both examine types of consulting

approaches.

In analyzing the units of change of a system, Argyris (1970),

Blake and Mouton (1976), and Weisbord (1978) also adhere to five types

of units. They include: individual, group, intergroup, organization,

and the larger social units.

Figure 9

An Overlapping Structure of Blake and Mouton's Consulcube (Blake & Mouton, 1976),

Argyris' Intervention Theory (Argyris, 1970), and Weisbord's Six-Box Model (Weisbord, 1978)
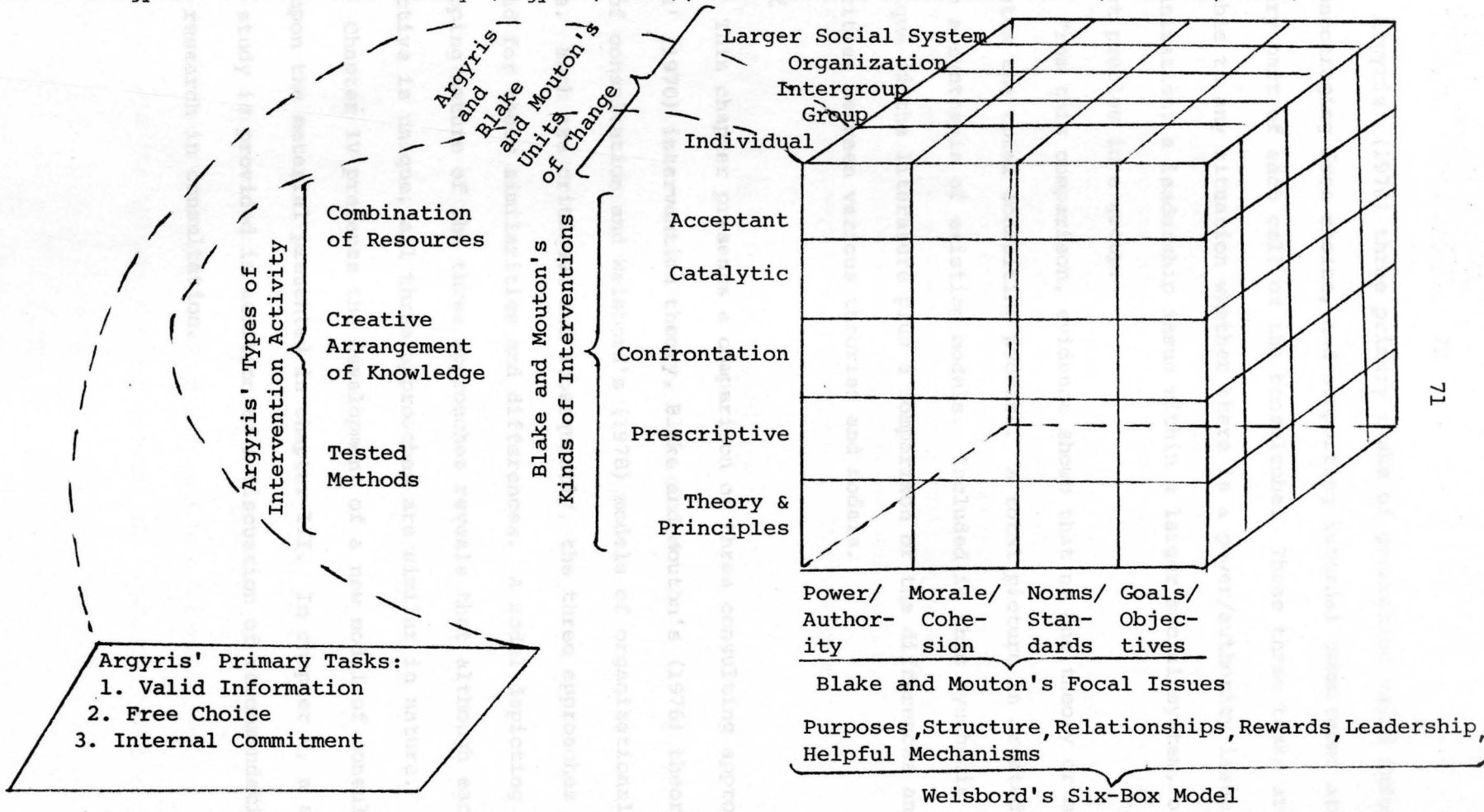
Argyris' (1970) three primary tasks of generating valid information, encouraging free choice, and supporting internal commitment are a necessary part of each cell of the consulcube. These three tasks are applicable to any situation whether there is a power/authority issue in an organization, a leadership issue within a larger social system, or a conflict problem in a group.

From this comparison, evidence shows that no one theory or model explicates the total consulting process. A total picture is created through a synthesis of existing models. Included in this synthesis is a critique of the literature plus a comparison of the differences and similarities between various theories and models.

Summary

This chapter presents a comparison of three consulting approaches: Argyris' (1970) intervention theory, Blake and Mouton's (1976) theory and model of consultation and Weisbord's (1978) models of organizational diagnosis. Each are critiqued and subsequently, the three approaches are compared for their similarities and differences. A model depicting the overlapping nature of the three approaches reveals that although each perspective is unique, all three approaches are similar in nature.

Chapter IV presents the development of a new model of consulting based upon the material presented in chapter III. In chapter V, a summary of the study is provided in addition to a discussion of recommendations for future research in consultation.

CHAPTER IV

THE DYNAMIC CONSULTING MODEL

An analysis of the concepts developed by Argyris (1970) and

the models of Blake and Mouton (1976) and Weisbord (1978) reveals that

although each viewpoint has unique elements, all three perspectives

have similar qualities. This chapter synthesizes elements from these

perspectives along with other approaches described in chapter II and

develops a new model of consultation. A description of the basic

elements of an effective model is introduced and explained. This

explanation is followed by an evaluation of the new model.

Basic Elements of an Effective Consulting Model

A model is a graphic representation of a process. The parts

of the model correspond to the process. An effective consulting model

includes a combination of three key elements. The first element involves

an examination of both the structure of an organization and the internal

processes used to effect change. "Management consulting firms are often

brought in to examine the existing management structure and to recommend

alternative forms which are presumed to be more effective for achieving

organizational goals" (Schein, 1969, p. 11). The consultant often ex-

amines the process of an organization. These processes include having

an understanding of the patterns of informal and formal relationships,

traditions, and the culture which surrounds the structure of an orga-

nization.

Flexibility is a second element which adds to the versatility and applicability of a model. As seen from Weisbord's (1978) example of the Six-Box Model, a model must be able to conform to a wide variety of situations such as business, education, law, and government in order to be applicable and useful. Flexibility allows for greater generalization. However, a model also needs to be specific enough to provide both consultant and client with a practical, conceptual scheme of how to organize an effective intervention approach. An effective model is general enough to encompass a broad range of situational types and specific enough to guide both consultant and client in practical matters. For instance, an effective consulting model would be applicable to financial consultants, HRD consultants, or legal consultants. It would also outline procedures on how to create and maintain change within a system.

A third element which is crucial to the development of a new model of consultation is consistency. When a parallel exists between the theory and the model, continuity is created and maintained. The contentions set forth in theory need to be depicted accurately in the representation. The combination of a description of theory plus a corresponding model enhances the presentation and leads to its acceptance.

Thus, an effective consulting model depicts the structure of an organization combined with the process of consulting. It includes a balance between generality and specificity, and a consistency between the theory of consulting and its model. Any model of consultation must include these elements.

The Dynamic Consulting Model

The basic philosophy of this dynamic consulting model or DC model is based upon Blake and Mouton's (1976) theory of human behavior. Behavior is cyclical in nature and can be repetitive to the point where behavior becomes an unconscious act. Consultation is the intervening force which changes this cyclical process. Once an intervention is completed, behavior follows a new cyclical pattern. Behavior is not only cyclical but spiral in nature. The intervention process stimulates the behavioral cycle to change and move to a new pattern of behavior thus creating a spiral effect.

Figure 10 depicts this spiral effect of human behavior. A spiral is defined as a winding, three dimensional curve, formed by a point that moves around a fixed center. The spiral continually increases its vertical distance from its original position. Also, the spiral can take the form of a cylinder or can be conically shaped. The cylindrical form represents a system which changes yet does not grow at a rapid rate. On the other hand, the conically shaped spiral indicates greater growth of an organization's resources. This growth is indicated by the increased size of the spiral units. An organization's growth can encompass an actual size increase in which case more employees are hired or new buildings are erected; this is physical growth. However, an increase can also represent growth in knowledge or increased morale among workers; this is a qualitative change. The nature of growth depends upon the manner in which growth is interpreted.

Figure 10

Cylindrical and Conical Spirals
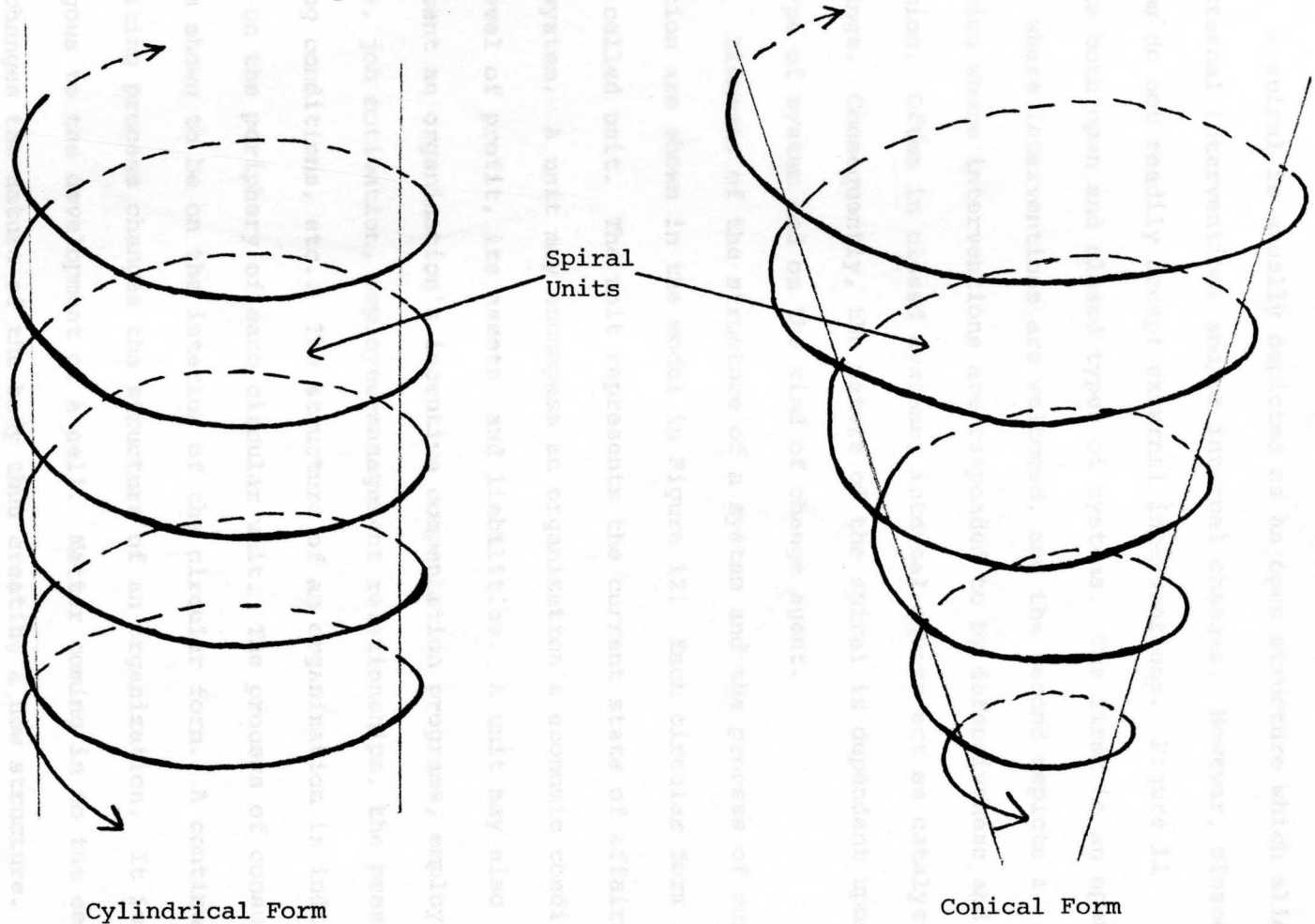
Spiral
Units

Cylindrical Form

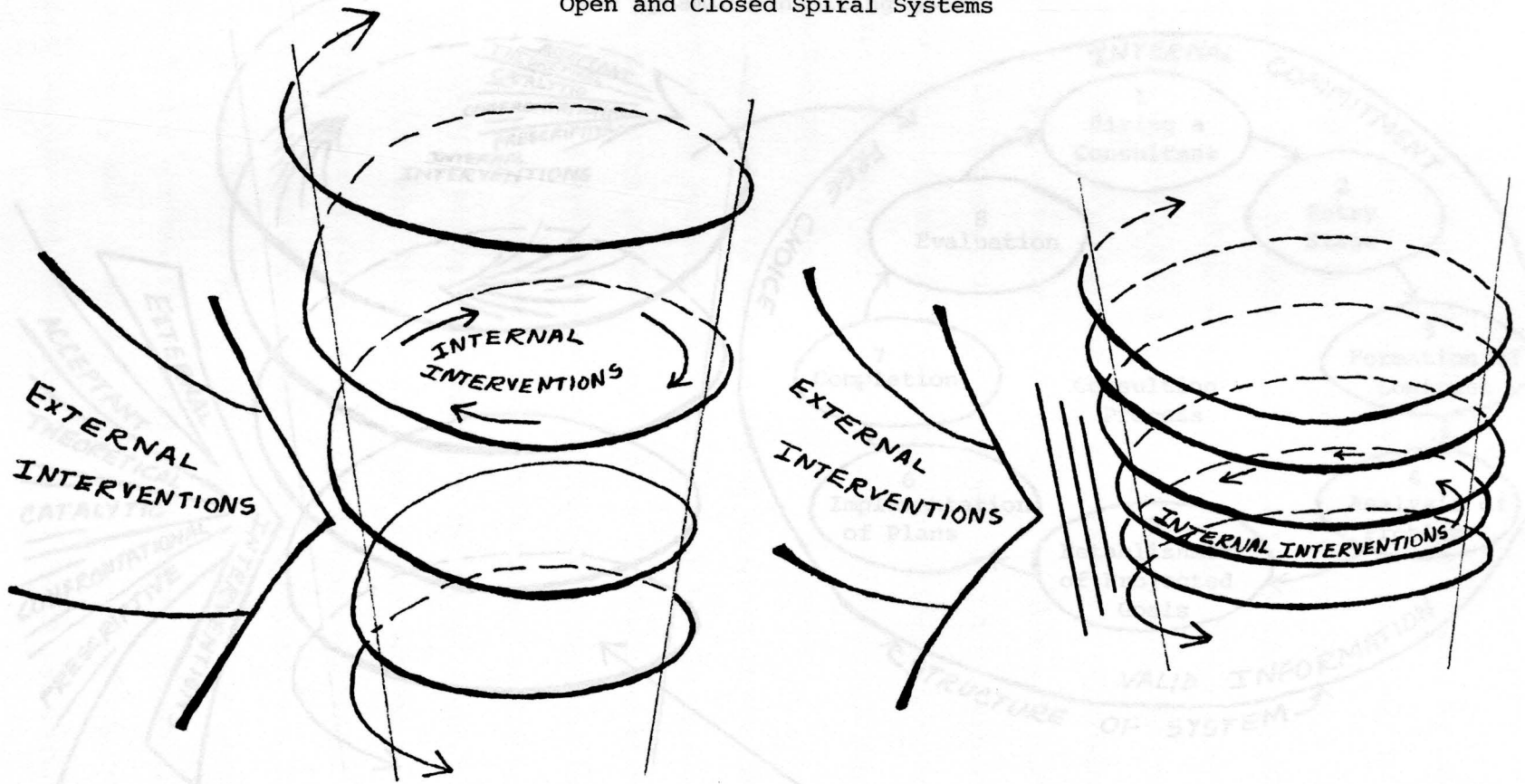Conical Form

Joan L. Vougis, 1982.

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A spiral is usually depicted as an open structure which allows for external interventions and/or internal changes. However, closed systems do not readily accept external interventions. Figure 11 depicts both open and closed types of systems. The first is an open spiral where interventions are welcomed, and the second depicts a situation where interventions are responded to by defensiveness and suspicion. Often in closed systems, internal agents act as catalysts of change. Consequently, the nature of the spiral is dependent upon the type of system and on the kind of change agent.

Elements of the structure of a system and the process of consultation are shown in the model in Figure 12. Each circular form is a one celled unit. The unit represents the current state of affairs of a system. A unit may encompass an organization's economic condition, its level of profit, its assets and liabilities. A unit may also represent an organization's incentive compensation programs, employee morale, job motivation, employee-management relationships, the present working conditions, etc.. The structure of an organization is indicated to be on the periphery of each circular unit. The process of consulting is shown to be on the interior of the circular form. A continual consulting process changes the structure of an organization. It is analogous to the development of a cell. Matter coming in to the cell wall changes the nature of the body thus creating a new structure. The combination of these two elements of structure and process acts as a dynamic moving force which is in a continual state of flux.

The spiral model depicts change and movement whereas the

Figure 11

Open and Closed Spiral Systems

EXTERNAL INTERVENTIONS

INTERNAL INTERVENTIONS

EXTERNAL INTERVENTIONS

INTERNAL INTERVENTIONS

Open Spiral System

Closed Spiral System

Joan L. Vougis, 1982.

Figure 12

The Dynamic Consulting Model

ACCEPTANT
THEORETICAL
CATALYTIC
CONFRONTATIONAL
PRESCRIPTIVE
INTERNAL
INTERVENTIONS

ACCEPTANT
THEORETICAL
CATALYTIC
CONFRONTATIONAL
PRESCRIPTIVE

EXTERNAL
INTERVENTIONS

A Spiral
Unit Cell

INTERNAL COMMITMENT

FREE CHOICE

1
Hiring a
Consultant

2
Entry
Stage

3
Formation of
Contract

8
Evaluation

Consulting
Process

4
Analysis of
Problem

7
Completion

6
Implementation
of Plans

5
Establishment
of Projected
Goals

STRUCTURE OF SYSTEM

VALID INFORMATION

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Joan L. Vougis, 1982.

consulcube of Blake and Mouton (1976) is a formalized, rigid structure. The DC model can represent an individual, a group such as a work team, an intergroup of two departments, or organization, or a larger social system such as a community, city, state or nation. In addition, the arrow around the spiral represents external interventions and the internal arrows depict changes that occur as a result of the consulting process. The acceptant, theoretical, catalytic, confrontational and prescriptive intervention modes of Blake and Mouton's (1976) consulcube are indicated in the arrows representing the external and internal intervention methods (see Figure 12). Additional lines in the arrows indicate that there are various gradations and combinations of these approaches (Huse, 1980).

Consistency is also maintained in the DC model through a parallel between the cyclical nature of behavior and the continuous nature of the consulting process. Consultation is the intervening force which assists a system through self evaluation and self improvement. However, interventions often create conflict and resistance to change (Walton, 1969). During this period, a system can regress to a lower spiral only to raise itself again after change becomes assimilated into the system. Once a system becomes autonomous, additional external assistance is no longer needed and the system functions on its own merits.

Three elements formulate the basis for the DC model: the structure of a system, flexibility of the model, and consistency between theory and the model. Blake and Mouton's (1976) philosophy of human behavior and their five kinds of consulting modes which

characterize both internal and external types of intervention ap-
proaches are used. In addition to the modes, other lines in the
arrows indicate that gradations and combinations exist. Lippitt
and Lippitt's (1978) six phases of the consulting process are out-
lined in the interior portion of the cell. Added to these six phases
is a step on hiring a consultant and on evaluating the consulting
process after termination. Argyris' (1970) three primary tasks
are also part of the DC model.

Walton's (1969) theory of the cyclical nature of conflict is
incorporated into the model through the spiral depiction of human
nature. Schein's (1969) two elements of structure and process are
included in the model. The dynamic consulting model is a combination
of these perspectives.

Evaluation of the Dynamic Consulting Model

The dynamic model includes elements of various other approaches
to consulting. It is a new and unique visual conception of consult-
ing. Furthermore, the model provides the consultant with a map of
organized thought relative to the total consulting process.

In addition, unlike other models, the dynamic model shows
continual movement in the process of consultation. The reason for
stressing process over structure is that the process of consulting
remains relatively stable as opposed to the structure of organizations
which varies with each system. The model is dynamic in that it is
always in a state of development. This constant change is an accurate

depiction of the real world which is in a state of flux. The spiral

effect also implies an upward, progressive movement toward greater

effectiveness. Failures occur when complications arise and impede

the movement of the spiral. However, with the assimilation of change,

the system continues to grow.

A sense of newness is created in the model through the unique

synthesis of various consulting concepts. However, the elements

which comprise the dynamic model are not new but ones which have been

used in other contexts. The originality consists of the manner in

which the interrelationships of the old concepts are depicted.

No matter how accurate or flexible a model can be, "no single

model or conceptual scheme embraces the whole breadth and complexity

of reality, even though each in turn may be useful in particular

instances. This is why management remains an art, for the practitioner

must go beyond the limits of theoretical knowledge if he is to be

effective" (Tilles, 1963, p. 81).

Summary

Three basic elements of a consulting model are first outlined

in this chapter. They include the structure of an organization and the

internal processes used to effect change, flexibility with a balance

between generality and specificity, and consistency between the theory

and its model. The dynamic consulting model is then introduced. The

model synthesizes elements from a variety of approaches including

Argyris (1970), Blake and Mouton (1976), and Weisbord (1978). An

evaluation of the model points out that although aspects of the spiral scheme are used by other authors, a sense of newness is created in the manner in which the elements are used.

Chapter V summarizes the study. In addition, a variety of perspectives are given relative to recommendations for further research in consultation.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

This chapter includes a summary of the previous four chapters. Then, a discussion of the significance of the study, conclusions, and recommendations for future research is provided.

Summary

Chapter I introduces the subject of this study and explains the purpose, and significance. The purpose of the study is to compile, clarify, and critique the literature on consultation and to develop a new model based upon the critique. A list of key terms is provided.

In chapter II, a brief history and definition of consultation provides a framework for subsequent material. Consulting processes and procedures are outlined. An examination of various perspectives of consulting concludes the chapter.

Chapter III focuses upon three specific perspectives of consulting given by Argyris (1970), Blake and Mouton (1976), and Weisbord (1978). Argyris provides a theoretical examination of the intervention process, Blake and Mouton describe their theory of human behavior combined with a practical model of consulting, and Weisbord gives a practical explanation of diagnosing organizations. All three are critiqued relative to the consistency of their theories and models. The three are then compared for their similarities and

differences. Results of the comparison reveal that although each perspective is unique, all have similar elements. A model depicting the overlapping nature of the three approaches further explains their similarities.

The fourth chapter presents a new model of consulting based upon the material in chapters II and III. Three basic elements of an effective consulting model are first defined. They include: the structure of an organization combined with the process of consulting, flexibility with a balance between gererality and specificity, and consistency between theory and application. The new dynamic consulting model is introduced and explained relative to its functioning. An evaluation of the model explains its significance and adaptability. Originality of the model is created through the manner in which the interrelationships of old concepts are depicted.

Description of the Study

A lack of experiential learning in the consultative field on the part of the author necessitates the use of documentary research as the basis of this study. In creating a new model of consultation, the conceptual scheme can only depict reality to a certain extent. Beyond that point, the practitioner needs to apply the model in order to effect change. Models assist the practitioner in organizing thought. However, it is the responsibility of the practitioner to implement that knowledge.

Significance of the Study

The significance of this study lies in the inclusion of a critique of the literature on consultation. The critique provides a unique contribution to the literature through the synthesis of three key perspectives given by Argyris (1970), Blake and Mouton (1976), and Weisbord (1978). In addition, the development of a new model of consultation provides both consultant and client with a perspective which combines the approaches of a variety of authors to formulate one, dynamic consulting model.

Conclusions

This study offers the consultant a new way of conceptualizing the whole consulting process. Today's economy is in a recession which effects the consulting profession. Limited amounts of financial resources are resulting in cut backs on external assistance and a greater reliance on internal consultants. Yet, the need for external change agents still exists. The dynamic consultation model provides the consultant with a comprehensive perspective on the total process of consultation.

Recommendations for Future Research

1. Research can be conducted in a statistical study relative to the effectiveness of external and internal consulting in business

organizations. The dynamic consulting model would provide the re-
searcher with a guideline for the study.

2. A study can be conducted with human resource consultants to
determine what models are currently being used in their research. The
dynamic consulting model would then be introduced to these consultants.
They would be asked to evaluate their previous research in terms of
this new model.

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The final copies have been examined by the director of the thesis and
the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary
changes have been incorporated and that the thesis is now given final
approval by the Committee with reference to content and form.

The thesis is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the re-
quirements for the degree of Master of Arts.

_____4-22-82_____   ___Marilyn Susman_____
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