MANAGERIAL NEEDS WITHIN THE

AVIATION COMMUNITY

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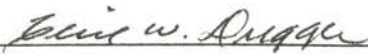the Degree of
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

A brief review of Aviation history reveals a background of tremendous individual accomplishment in overcoming aviation problems. The civil aviation industry began to divide in the 1920's into scheduled passenger service and "general aviation." Particularly since the Airline Deregulation Act of 1978, airlines have functioned similarly to other big business by focusing on market opportunities and the making of a profit. They have developed management practices as specialized and sophisticated as most other large organizations. By contrast general aviation is still closer in spirit and functions to the exciting days of barnstorming and record breaking. The industry went through rapid growth until the late 1970s when a variety of factors caused a decline. Since that time, the surviving operators have achieved success largely because of their ability to evolve from aviation enthusiasts to professional managers. As the general aviation industry matures, these trends will likely continue, although there will still be a strong experimental and innovative aspect in general aviation design that will affect the whole industry. In short, general aviation will be predominantly a business activity, but there will also be a segment who will fly just for the enjoyment. (Essentials of Aviation Management, page 13).

One thing is certain. It is a mistake to pick a person as a first-line manager. The person should always be looked at for their potential as a second- or third-line manager before giving them their first supervisory assignment. Growth potential must be figured strongly on the original choice. This is especially significant as we come to realize that the successful first-line manager today might not be a success in 10 or 15 years. The job of the manager has never been easy; it is more difficult today than ever before; it is not going to get any easier as we go along. Today's successful manager will fail miserably unless he continues to grow into a more complex and difficult job. (Management Development for the Line Manager, page 34).

Nature of the Problem

Over the last 30 years or so, the aviation industry as a whole has realized the need for an in-depth training program prior to certifying pilots and allowing them to fly the type of aircraft they will fly. This practice is also taken into consideration whenever a pilot upgrades to a more sophisticated complex aircraft. Federal Aviation Regulations (FARs) Part 61, prescribes the requirements for issuing pilot and flight instructor certificates and ratings, the conditions under which those certificates and ratings are necessary, and the privileges and limitations of those certificates and ratings (Federal Aviation Regulations/Airman's Information Manual, 1991 edition, p. 61-2). The primary reason for this requirement has been to assure that pilots have the knowledge and ability to perform the required tasks that come with flying sophisticated complex aircraft. Another important reason is for safety. Common sense dictates that you do not allow

anyone to fly an aircraft without training which instructs them in all
of the required activities needed to safely operate an aircraft.
During this same time frame, this principle described and adopted have
not applied to the managerial/supervisory aspect of the aviation
industry. Little attention, if any at all, has been paid to estab-
lishing a similar training program that applies to the manager's role
and responsibility. This same principle of training to assure that all
managers have the knowledge and ability to perform the necessary and
required tasks that come with managing sophisticated complex operations
prior to assuming these duties need to apply here also.

This is particularly true for the law enforcement side of Avia-
tion. This study will focus on the lack of managerial development
programs in Federal, State, and local law enforcement aviation depart-
ments. Due to the nature of law enforcement aviation tactics, i.e.
flying without lights; low altitude flights - usually below 500 feet;
flying in areas with tall obstructions - buildings, towers, power
lines, etc.; and flying in close formation with other aircraft without
their knowledge; the manager or supervisor of the shift or department
must be properly trained in the responsibilities and duties associated
with this particular function. Without any kind of formal management
development the risk for a catastrophic accident is increased sharply.
This study will focus on the law enforcement aviation community's
efforts towards management development and education, either prior to
or after promotion.

Statement of the Problem

Many studies have been made in management education and develop-
ment. Significant work is being done in this field by industrial

organizations, universities, management and professional associations, and management consultants. Much has been learned and accomplished. However, the continued development and education of managers is still a relatively new field. Businesses and educational institutions recognize the need for more effective manager development and education and are concerned with the vital importance of preparing individuals to accept and fulfill the responsibilities of leadership, to meet and deal with change, and to command the respect and confidence of their associates, the industry and the public at large.

While all this effort has been directed at business in general, a closer look at managerial development and education in the aviation industry is needed. The problem in this study may be stated as follows: Why has the aviation industry set rigid training programs for pilots and not for those who are tasked with managing these pilots as well as the organization itself? Furthermore, it is important to determine the attitude of the aviation industry towards management development and education to determine if changes need to be made to bring the aviation industry in line with and on the same professional level of today's successful businesses.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to determine if management development and education is occurring whether prior to or after being promoted to a management position, within the law enforcement aviation community. Currently, there is only one book written specifically for Aviation Management. It only deals with management development by general broad statements on importance and types of development.

With the ever increasing technical improvement in the performance and safety of flight vehicles and equipment, improved standards of professionalism and training for pilots, and wider public understanding and acceptance of the general aviation industry and its benefits to the public as a whole, it is incumbent upon the aviation industry to ensure that it's managers, from CEO to first-line supervisor, are afforded the opportunity to grow. Managerial development and education is critical in order for the aviation industry to grow and prosper.

The data collected through this study will allow the reaching of tentative conclusions about ways in which to improve managerial development and educational needs. The data may also identify deficient attitudes throughout the industry in this area and start upper level managers thinking on how to improve the situation.

Limitations of the Study

This study evolved from the review of the literature and from visiting with individuals in various federal and local law enforcement agencies with aviation departments. At each of these agencies there has been no management development program for first-line supervisors or second level managers. The only management development that occurred was from the desire of the individual to better themself and not from organizational's desire to improve management. Management development theory, practice and implementation data was obtained from current data from various libraries, both public and private universities; and from public libraries, in which access was available.

Since only one Aviation Management book could be found, the data concerning industry attitude toward managerial development and

education, and what training programs are or are not in place is to be relied on the questionnaire developed.

Assumptions

The following assumptions were made:

1. That the library research for books pertaining to aviation management was complete and to define the problem.
2. That the questionnaire covered needed areas.
3. That the questionnaire was properly worded to ensure the accuracy of the data.
4. That the questionnaire respondents were able to respond fully and accurately to questions asked.

Definitions

In order to understand the terms used in this study, the following definitions are provided:

Aircraft. Device(s) that are used or intended to be used for flight in the air. Airman's Information Manual (AIM) A primary Federal Aviation Administration (FAA) publication whose purpose is to instruct airmen about operating in the National Airspace System of the United States. It provides basic flight information, Air Traffic Controller (ATC) procedures and general instructional information concerning health, medical facts, factors affecting flight safety, accident and hazard reporting, and types of aeronautical charts and their use.

General Aviation. All civil aviation operations other than scheduled air services and non-scheduled air transport operations for remuneration or hire.

<u>Federal Aviation Administration (FAA)</u>. This organization is respon-

sible for supervising, controlling, and regulating civil aviation.

<u>Manager</u>.   Any person who supervises people and gives direction to

those people in an effort to accomplish the goals of the organization.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE SELECTED LITERATURE

Introduction

Since the movement of aviation as a significant component of the economy started in the 1920's and 1930's, great strides have been made in the development of passenger and cargo service. With this came rapid growth and expansion. Development and education of pilots, crew-members and mechanics became evident and resulted in Federal Regulations prescribing training requirements, aircraft operations and maintenance. In addition to this the aviation industry also imposed it's own training and safety standards and requirements through professional organizations and self regulation. Unfortunately, the industry did not do the same with managers responsible for running the organizations. Improving aviation managerial/supervisory development and education will become vital to the aviation industry's survival in the 1990's and beyond.

In an effort to define what a manager is, we must look at the various definitions that have been used. In _Personnel: The Management of People at Work_ (1980) Dale S. Beach defined a supervisor through the use of the definition that is contained in the Labor-Management Relations Act of 1947 (Taft-Hartley Act). Section 101, sub-section 2(11) defines a supervisor as "any individual having authority, in the

interest of the employer, to hire, transfer, suspend, layoff, recall, promote, discharge, assign, reward or discipline other employees, or responsibility to direct them, or to adjust their grievances, or effectively to recommend such action, if in connection with the foregoing the exercise of such authority is not of a merely routine or clerical nature, but requires the use of independent judgment." In Personnel Management: The Utilization of Human Resources (1980), Herbert J. Chruden and Arthur W. Sherman, Jr. identify the supervisor as the lowest ranking member of the management hierarchy with direct responsibility for supervising non-managerial employees. Since the passage of the Taft-Hartley Act in 1947, the supervisor is legally considered to be a member of management. They also use the Taft-Hartley Act definition of a supervisor. In The Practice of Supervision: Achieving Results Through People (1987), Andrew J. DuBein defines a supervisor as a first level manager who accomplished work with and through subordinates. He or she directs the work activities of people who themselves are individual performers - not managers. In The Dartnell Personnel Administration Handbook (1979), Wilbert E. Scheer defines the supervisor as the person who oversees a section of the whole; he is the one who gets things done. Scheer also defines the manager as the person who determines what should be done but not always specifically the methods to be used. He translates the several functions of subordinates to objectives and directs and review progress. In Management of Personnel: Manpower Management and Organizational Behavior (1972), J. D. Dunn and Elvis C. Stephens state that individuals who hold supervisory positions in an organization are called managers, and they have responsibility for coordinating the work of the enterprise as it moves

towards its objectives. A manager is usually considered to be someone who has one or more persons under his supervision. In _Human Resources Management: The Complete Guidebook for Design Firms_ (1984), Mark C. Zweig defines a manager as someone dedicated to the planning, organization, leadership, and control of people and resources in a firm. In _Handbook of Human Resources Administration_ (1986), Joseph J. Famularo defines a manager as a person whose work calls for him to plan, organize, motivate, and control the work of others. A manager may carry the title "foreman" to show that the scope of his managing is relatively small; he may carry a more lofty title, "president" or "chief executive," to indicate that his scope in terms of the company is all-encompassing. Regardless of the title, he is a manager by virtue of the fact that he coordinates the work of others.

As can be seen from the definitions defined above the terms manager and supervisor are synonymous. For the purpose of this paper the term manager will be used for both.

Background Literature

In _Manager Development: Principles and Perspectives_ (1961), George C. Houston states that we are now ready to consider an approach to manager education and development designed to prepare managers to meet the fundamental challenges of today and tomorrow through the development and use of conceptual skill. The success of this approach to manager education and development depends on the existence of six basic conditions:

1. That our leaders in business and education will be sufficiently convinced of the need for such an approach and the

long-range benefits to be derived that they will support and
participate in this kind of effort.

2. That business leaders will be prepared to have their top- and
middle-management personnel devote reasonable periods of time
off the job at intervals during their business careers to
participate in professionally planned, organized, and
conducted programs of concentrated and systematic study,
thought, and discussions.

3. That such periods of study off-the-job will be consciously
integrated with the long-range plan for each manager's self
development so that he will have both the opportunity and the
incentive to consciously apply what he has learned to the
problems of the business and the situations he encounters in
his daily work.

4. That the participant have a clear understanding of the nature
and objectives of the learning experience.

5. That the participant contribute a high level of personal
effort, involvement, and self-discipline.

The major limitations which tend to impair the effectiveness of much of
the current manager education and development effort appear to be
these: The limitations of attitude, time, resources, educational
content and method, and limitations of measurement. It will work only
if leaders in our business enterprises, our educational institution,
and responsible managers themselves recognize the challenges we face,
see the need for and value of this kind of learning experience, and are
prepared to devote their time, thought, effort, and other resources

toward making the possibilities inherent in this approach become a reality.

In Professional Management: Theory and Practice (1962), Theo Haimann states, in performing the staffing function a manager must make certain that there are a sufficient supply of young men available who, in a number of years, will be the junior and middle level executives and who, in 15 or 20 years, will be able to fill top executive positions. Because of their growing needs, business enterprises began to search for a continuous supply of potential young executives when their existing sources were no longer sufficient. They turned to the universities and colleges for their personnel. A college education, however, is not an absolute prerequisite for inclusion into a junior executive development program, and every member of the organization, regardless of his formal education, should have the opportunity for promotion from the ranks and to be included in junior executive training programs. Foremen should be asked to nominate candidates for such preparatory training, and those who pass the usual tests and executive interviews should be selected as management trainees. This source, however, in most instances, provides only a very small fraction of the number of executive trainees who are needed. Hence, colleges have increasingly become the source of candidates for executive training program.

In Executive Skills: Their Dynamics and Development (1962), Roger Bellows, Thomas Q. Gilson, and George S. Odiorne state that formal executive development programs have been expanding rapidly. In 1950 the American Management Association conducted conferences, seminars, workshops, and courses which were attended by almost 5,000 executives.

By 1960, the number of participants was about 60,000. During the same decade, college residential programs in general management increased ten-fold. Many of the larger companies have established their own centers where executives are sent for periods varying from 1-week to 2-months. In specialized fields, many programs now follow the pattern of the American Banking Associations graduate school, which dates back to 1935. The number of these programs has been multiplied to a point where keeping track of those of importance in any particular field is difficult. Most organizations have concluded that formal and informal activities aimed at the development of managers are useful. Their number will continue to grow. We can only hope that their quality will improve and that the knowledge necessary for proper choices will become more generally available.

In *Management: Theory and Practice* (1965), Dr. Ernest Dale, Ph.D. explored the interest in the subject of management development. This was largely the effect of World War II and the industrial expansion that occurred while the war was in progress and afterwards. Coming as it did immediately after a severe and long-drawn-out depression, expansion found companies generally unprepared to staff the new executive positions that had to be created when new and larger activities were undertaken. During the 1930's managers tended not to move from company to company very much; they stayed where they were because they knew that jobs were hard to get. With little mobility in the executive ranks and contraction rather than expansion the rule in business enterprises, there was little need for "promotable" executives, for there were few opportunities for promotions. And since business failures and contractions had left many people out of work, it was always possible

to hire from outside if a company could not fill an executive job from the ranks of it's own employees.

All that changed practically overnight, or at least within a year or two. While the economy slept, those in executive positions had been growing older, and no one had been trained to take their places, though many of them were only a few years from retirement. And there was little possibility of hiring new managers from the outside, for the ranks of the unemployed thinned rapidly.

It was then that the idea of management development began to arouse widespread interest. Companies wanted to avoid being caught again so badly without candidates for new jobs or without replacements for key men who died, or left for other jobs.

As for supervisory training, Dale's research found that the attitude was that most companies feel that the men they promote to first-line supervision are likely to know enough about the actual work not to need further training in it, but they may well need pointers on the best ways of handling their men.

In Small Business Management (1966), H. N. Broom and Justin G. Longenecker state the small business faces a particularly serious problem in the matter of training managerial employees. This is true even though the owner is the only supervisor or manager in the firm. When the time arrives for him to withdraw from active direction of the business, it is imperative that a replacement be available. In many types of business, the new manager should have months and perhaps years of preparation before he assumes the position of leadership. Consider the small accounting firm whose accounts have been developed and serviced by the head of the business. What would happen to such a

business if the owner were hospitalized for an extended period of time? The absence of a competent individual trained to step in when the original manager steps out might easily cause liquidation of such a firm.

In the late 1960's emphasis of selecting of individuals for first-line supervision with future managerial potential began. Elton T. Reeves, Management Development for the Line Manager (1969) stressed one thing should be established. It is a mistake only to pick a person as a first-line supervisor. He should always be looked at for his potential as a second- or third-line member of management before giving him his first supervisory assignment. Growth potential must figure strongly in the original choice. This is especially significant as we come to realize that the successful first-line supervisor today might not be a success in 10 or 15 years. The job of the supervisor has never been easy; it is more difficult today than ever before; it is not going to get any easier as we go along. In the next 2 decades, today's successful manager may fail miserably unless he continues to grow into a more complex and difficult job.

O. Glenn Stahl summarizes a feeling within the government area in his book, The Personnel Job of Government Managers (1971). In this book he states that it has been only a few decades since government executives had to be prodded or cajoled into allowing their employees to take part in educational programs designed to strengthen their performance. The reasons for this reluctance were complex among them, undoubtedly, was a sense of insecurity on the part of these executives, an unarticulated (even to themselves) fear that acknowledging a training need was somehow an exposure of their own failures.

It must be acknowledged that one of the most subtle educational influences in administration (positive or negative) is the behavior of top management on the job. With all due regard for the independent-mindedness of the average employee, there is ample evidence that he takes his cues from his supervisory officials - more than from any other source. What managers do is infinitely more important in its effect on employees than what they say.

In August 1973 the Executive Manpower Management Technical Assistance Center of the U. S. Civil Service Commission published a paper which provided guidelines to reflect and reinforce the broad requirement for an executive development program as established in the Guidelines for Executive Development in the Federal Service issued by the U. S. Civil Service Commission in October 1971, (FPM Letter 412-1). Each agency was to establish an effective program which would identify and develop high-potential individuals in the mid-management echelons. These guidelines are designed to assist agencies in designing and operating systems to identify managerial potential, they are not prescriptive. Every agency must, however, have a sound and reasonable system for the identification of potential for management.

The major purposes of the identification of managerial manpower are:

1. To identify individuals who possess the capabilities for successful performance in top management positions,

2. To provide an inventory of the potential managerial talent presently employed in the organization thus making it possible to develop employees so that they are ready for

management responsibilities and to spotlight areas where

deficiencies in numbers or specific skills exist.

Whether or not this program exists as intended is to be determined on

an agency by agency basis.

In <u>Professional Management: New Concepts and Proven Practices</u>

(1973), Louis A. Allen states that efforts to help managers develop

their knowledge, attitudes, and skills often fail. There are many

reasons. One is that success in management depends on the ability to

deal effectively with fast-changing and usually ill-defined human and

technical problems, and not on rate performance of prescribed skills.

Most programs fail to identify management and organization development

needs accurately, and as a consequence, cannot provide participating

managers with the skills necessary to solve their real problems. The

most prevalent reason for the lack of success of an enterprise's deve-

lopment programs is its failure to think through the objectives and

methods to which it can best commit itself. Instead, enterprises tend

to rely on a miscellany of educational exposures which, it is hoped,

will help managers improve their performance. Their efforts, too

often, are based upon what happens to be the "in" program for the

season, whether this be management by objectives, leadership styles,

job enrichment, or sensitivity training. Often the entire management

group, from chief executive to first-line supervisor, diligently com-

plete the required sessions. However, managers often simply do not

practice the new approaches which they have been taught. This may be

because the new methods, while sound, require more time and effort then

operations-oriented managers are willing to invest. Resistance to

change is a second factor. The new approach may be distinctly superior to what the company currently practices, but, almost always, greater time and effort are required to implement than to teach it. And once the program gets beyond the scope of the management development staff, the organized effort to monitor application is not available, so the fruit fails at its budding. A third, and not always obvious reason that a management development effort fails, is lack of an orderly, logical, formalized system of management into which it can fit. New management approaches too frequently introduce new vocabulary featuring poorly defined and arbitrary substitutes for more commonly understood and accepted terms. This not only compounds the difficulty inherent in learning new habits, but also adds confusion in dealing with established methods. A manager must acquire the basic knowledge of his profession. He can do this by laborious trial and error or through years of experience or he can learn most of the facts, principles, and vocabulary he needs through a sound educational program. Development requires not only acquisition of new knowledge, but experience in use of new practical skills which can be gained only through practice on the job. It must also be supported and reinforced by other related activities, including carefully thought through objectives, sound organization, performance standards, and balance compensation.

Robert F. Pearse did an American Management Association Survey Report, Manager To Manager: What Managers Think of Management Development (1974). This survey was designed to provide practicing managers an opportunity to share with their peers their thoughts and feelings about contemporary management training and development. Highlights of the survey produced some of the following results.

- With regard to the acquisition of managerial skills, managers
  consider in-house, out-of-house, and university-based
  training to be substantially less significant than actual on-
  the-job training and self-development. When managers eva-
  luate the relative worth of training courses they have taken,
  they say courses on interpersonal relationship skills are
  about twice as beneficial as courses on improved personal
  effectiveness. Courses on administrative skills and on
  technical problem solving are also considered less helpful
  than interpersonal skills training.
- Nearly half of the top and middle managers surveyed said they
  felt a need for courses which formal company-sponsored
  management education programs have not yet exposed them to.
- About 85% of the respondents said they would like to take
  more short management training courses aimed at developing a
  single skill. They want more short courses in
  communications, improving the effectiveness of individual
  subordinates, and improving work group or departmental
  effectiveness.

There is a case for a more sophisticated approach to management
development as a human resources investment. We can assume that in the
complex urban, high-technology society of the future, effective manage-
ment will make the difference between successful and unsuccessful orga-
nizations. It follows that the "Life line of future organizational
survival and growth will depend on two areas: (1) Successful human
resources utilization and development, and (2) Successful innovation
and adaptation to a rapidly changing external environment." To manage

the highly trained "knowledge workers" of the coming post-industrial
society (as Peter Drucker suggests in the Age of Discontinuity),
management practitioners will have to have far more managerial skills
training through formal education programs than they have received in
the past and more than most of them are getting today.

The criticism of education for management is not new, and gene-
ration after generation has sought to improve the delivery of its
product, i.e., managerial knowledge. The Evolution of Management
Thought (1979), Daniel A. Wren suggests that the problem for modern
management educators has been that of trying to make the student's
transition from the classroom to the world of practicing less painful
and more relevant. Various vehicles for education have been tried:
The case method (which began in the early 1900s), role playing (which
started in the 1930s), computerized business "games" (which emerged in
the 1950's), and a host of other traditional and non-traditional
pedagogical devices. An amalgamation of many of these techniques
reappeared in the 1970s as the "experiential approach" to education for
management. The common theme of these efforts was to create a
situation in the classroom which simulated as much as possible real
managerial situations and problems. In groups or alone, students
became involved in accomplishing simulated tasks and learned by doing.
The focus was on the process of interaction and interpersonal relation-
ships rather than the content of knowledge itself, i.e., the applied
skill as opposed to the textbook theory. Rather than just reading
about planning, students were given a project which they planned;
rather than reading about leadership, etc., students became involved in

the activity. The approach did not eliminate the need for text theory, but supplemented it through those experiences.

The experiential approach, like the contingency approach, is a return to more pragmatism in management education. It is an endeavor to make education more relevant and to bridge theory and practice. In these approaches, the hope is that managers can be trained to analyze situations, sharpen their handling of them, and make the leap to the world of work without tripping over their college degree.

In Essentials of Aviation Management (1977), J. D. Richardson states that special attention needs to be given to the development of supervisors and managers. At the onset one should recognize the three basic principles of management development:

1. All development is self-development.

2. A development program should be tailored to individual differences and needs.

3. Development is a long-range process.

Since it is a foregone conclusion that managers must be developed in ways other than through experience alone, different techniques are to be considered. In general, development efforts have been separated into on-the-job and off-the-job programs with each category including several different methods or techniques. Guidelines for initiating and conducting a development program using the above techniques can be obtained from standard personnel or training textbooks.

In The Evolution of Management Thought (1979), Daniel A. Wren states the criticism of education for management is not new, and generation after generation has sought to improve the delivery of its product, i.e., managerial knowledge. Modern authors have found

discrepancies between what managers do in practice and what "theory" says they do. Mintzberg observed managers in action and reported that their activities were sporadic, short-term copings rather than deliberative, analytical and logical. Rather than engaging in the traditional functions of the management process, Mintzberg classified the roles of the manager into: (1) interpersonal (figurehead, leader, and liaison); (2) informational (monitor, disseminator, and spokesman); and (3) decisional (entrepreneur, disturbance handler, resource allocator, and negotiator). Mintzberg was less clear on how these roles would be taught, but suggested that education for management should be through the simulation of situations and feedback to students to help them improve their skills. The problem for modern management educators has been that of trying to make the student's transition from the classroom to the world of practicing less painful and more relevant.

Recent Literature

In _Personnel Management, A Human Resources Approach_ (1980), Leon C. Megginson emphasized the following in selecting and developing employees for management development. The procedures for identifying and selecting managerial talent includes (1) establishing criteria for measuring executive success, (2) identifying predictors to be used in identifying and selecting managerial talent, and (3) using special selection techniques to find out if given applicants have those abilities.

Some commonly used criterion measures are (1) performance appraisals, (2) salary, (3) rank or position, in the organization, and

(4) rapidity of promotions or salary increases. The trend now is away from a single criterion measurement towards a systems approach to selection.

There are certain characteristics that managers have to a higher degree than does the general public. These serve as predictors which differentiate the successful executives from others. These are intelligence, education, and certain personality traits.

Some characteristics of effective executive development programs are (1) a deep and integral part of the organizational system, (2) top management usually supports them, (3) they are a significant part of every manager's job, and (4) participants view the programs positively. Some reasons why managers resist training include the normal human distaste for change, the resistance to having a mere teacher telling them what to do, and the manner of the training.

Things that should be developed in present and future executives are (1) general knowledge, (2) technical knowledge and skills, (3) administrative skills, and (4) attitudes and managerial philosophy. Some of the methods used to develop managers are (1) on-the-job learning experiences, including coaching, planned progression, job rotation, and temporary assignment, and (2) off-the-job methods, such as case analysis, simulation, laboratory training, advanced management development program, and Management by Objectives.

In Personnel Management: A Human Resources Approach (1981), Leon C. Megginson states that management development programs should result in personal and organizational growth. While no two organizations approach managerial development in quite the same way, there are some

common threads running through the more effective programs. Some of the factors leading to effectiveness are:

1. The program is a deep and integral part of the organization. It involves all levels of management, reflects the organizational climate, and effects the very way the organization works.

2. Top management's support of, and long-term commitment to, the program are unwavering.

3. Management development is a significant part of every manager's job.

4. Development is self-development.

5. Participants view the program positively and enthusiastically.

The easy answer to who needs to be developed is: All present and potential managers. In general, those most in need of development are (1) people being promoted into management positions for the first time, (2) those with technical backgrounds, and (3) managers needing refresher courses.

In The Practice of Management (1981), R. W. Marell and Mr. Daniel Henry state that there is no longer any questions about the need for the development and training of managers. This activity has grown from 3% in 1935 to over 35% in 1975 with an even greater growth in not-for-profit organizations. It is most enlightening to see that companies dominant in their industries are the leading exponents of executive development (AT&T, EXXON, IBM, Citicorp). No corporation, institution, or agency should be without a plan for providing leadership for the present and, especially for the future. Management development and

training must be constantly alert to both the formalized elements of policies, procedures, rules, and hierarchy; but also to the network of feelings, attitudes, and behaviors that is much less visible but nevertheless has a major impact on organizational outcomes. Management development and training has become more consciously and openly a mechanism for increasing the congruence between these two domains, releasing a great deal of energy for creativity and cooperation. Using organizational development as a part of management development, members, especially managers, help describe the environment of the organization, help plan what it should be in an ideal sense, and assist in getting the organization from what it is to what it should be.

In Management: An Executive Perspective (1982) Sigmund C. Ginsburg states that top management in most companies recognize the need to recruit the best people they can and to enhance and update their knowledge through a variety of techniques. Much of the technical knowledge an individual brings to a job will be slightly to greatly outdated within 5 to 10 years depending upon the particular job and industry. Further, an individual's job or job requirements may change and he may now require greater knowledge of supervisory techniques, planning, control systems, computer technology, international operations, marketing, governmental relations, etc. To enrich and expand one's knowledge, to introduce the latest thoughts and techniques, to enhance conceptual, technical and human skills, companies spend billions of dollars a year in training. The more progressive companies have an executive development plan involving every executive or potential executive. The development plan involves training of various types through job experience and formal training as well as development

in the sense of a progression and variety of task and job assignments. A well conceived management development program will assess the organization's short and long term managerial and technical needs, the capabilities and background of present staff, the likely progression of specific individuals, the job and special assignments that should be made over time, and the formal education needs and ways to meet the needs.

In Supervising (1982), Christina Christenson, Thomas W. Johnson and John E. Stinson state that supervisors also must cope with increasing demands from their superiors. But meeting these responsibilities without adequate training is difficult. Just as workers must continually develop on their jobs, supervisors must too. Many organizations encourage supervisory development. In a survey of organizations it was found that 86% used on-the-job coaching, 80% offered tuition assistance for college courses, and 75% offered in-house supervisory training programs. Many organizations also send supervisors to training programs sponsored by universities or professional training groups. Individual supervisors can do much to enhance their own development. Different supervisors have different development needs. These needs may be met in part through company-sponsored programs. However, supervisors must take the responsibility to ensure they continue to develop in their jobs. This requires you to assess your performance objectively and determine where you are weak or strong. In both cases, you should seek improvement. Further develop your strong skills and improve in your weak areas.

In Administrative and Supervisory Management (1982), James E. Morgan, Jr. states that over the years, many large organizations have

implemented career development programs for their managers and professional personnel. More recently with the increasing concern about quality of life and work, EEO affirmative action plans, and rising educational levels and occupational aspirations of employees, more companies have begun to use career management programs for all levels of employees. According to a study by the Center for Research in Career Development, Columbia Graduate School of Business, the following are the ten most common programs found in major companies: (1) Tuition aid programs, (2) Career counseling with performance appraisal, (3) Manpower planning and forecasting activities, (4) Intra-organizational job postings, (5) Job rotation for career development, (6) Career counseling by specialized staff counselors, (7) Individual self-analysis and planning workshops, (8) Lateral transfers in mid-career, (9) Life and/or career planning workshops, and (10) Workshops on disengagement or pre-retirement. These programs have proven beneficial to both the individuals and the industries. Organization career programs serve to ensure maximum contributions from individual employees, as well as to reduce underemployment. These activities also enable organizations to practice promotion policies from within by ensuring that they have developed competent employees for replacements. Top managers are also beginning to recognize the need for greater adaptability and technical updating. Many of these needs can be satisfied as part of the career process, and formalized programs in organizations can do much to increase levels of employee commitment, involvement, and satisfaction. Finally, career development is a process that serves to increase the fit between occupational requirements and the employee's personal identity.

O. Glenn Stahl in his book Public Personnel Administration (1983)
summarized the trend of that time of staff development and training.
He states that we must remind ourselves that a staff grows and develops
not just by use of formal training alone but also by living in an
environment with an attitude of management, permeating all operations,
that makes growth and development natural, attractive, and satisfying.
It seems to be a fact of life that the very existence of complex
bureaucratic structures fosters inertia, resistance to change, and
acceptance of the status quo. It has been said that "organizations
resist intellect." The perpetual task of staff development is to help
intellectual influences blow their fresh breezes through the stale airs
that may accumulate in any bureaucracy.

In Chairing the Academic Department, Leadership among Peers
(1984), Allen Tucker points out the same historical problems now
effecting education. Experts in staff and personnel development
contend that an organization's effectiveness depends heavily on an
ongoing, self-renewing program of human resources development. In the
same way, an academic department's effectiveness depends largely on
faculty development, a term coined to denote self-renewing activities
for faculty members.

Although the need for staff or personnel development has been
recognized in the past, such development has been mainly a "back-
ground" activity. In times of expanding resources and faculties, the
need for a deliberate faculty development effort was perhaps not as
acute or obvious as it is now.

In Management Development: Advances in Practice and Theory
(1984), C. F. Molander and D. Walton state that in previous years,

numerous attempts have been made to provide traditional opportunities
for management development:

- Use of internal/external courses,

- Consultants,

- Action research programs, at the levels of both individual
  education and system development.

In reviewing previous management training we found no obvious design
faults, merely a generalized feeling within the culture that non-task-
related activity was somehow "unproductive" or somebody else's empire.
The feeling may have been enhanced by the variety of courses which have
been used in the past, and no clearly perceived rationale amongst line
managers for the time and money invested. However, well-designed
programs of individual or organizational change cannot hope to succeed
if they are viewed by sections of the organization as super-fluous to
what they perceive as real needs. The need for adequate individual and
organizational development processes within the organi-zation is all
too frequently something seen by trainers or consultants, rather than
coming from the line manager. These processes will only be endorsed by
the organization if, in practice, the original diagnosis was correct,
and if the prescriptions which follow are relevant to the recipients'
needs. We believe that for maximum effect, the major com-ponents of
management development must be integrated into some form of coherent
strategy to which line management is committed. Furthermore, an
essential part of the strategy must be to involve line managers in
determining priorities for change or development and, preferably, the
methods through which it is to be achieved. This implies a need to

plan the introduction/development of management development using a coherent, contingency-based strategy.

In Mary Kay On People Management (1984), Mary Kay Ash states that for a manager to be promoted, there should be a backup person to replace him. The essence of good organizational development is a management team that recognized the importance of developing the competence of those who must eventually assume their jobs. And the better those people are, the more credit the manager deserves. In a well-run company that offers equal advancement opportunities to all employees, the cream always rises to the top. In fact, a recent study of the best-managed companies in America shows that they are structured in a way that guarantees that the best people will be promoted to top levels of management. It is a sign of weakness when a company fails to develop a management team from within. There is no question that in the best-managed companies no one is indispensable. All managers have backup personnel who can take over responsibilities whenever necessary.

In Management Development (1986), Kenneth N. Wexley and Timothy T. Baldwin state that interest in fostering managerial talent has led to a burgeoning body of articles and books devoted to what might be termed management development. In addition, many American organizations expend huge amounts of time, money, talent, and energy to develop their managerial talent. Despite considerable recent attention to the topic, management development may still be one of the most ill-defined and variously interpreted concepts in the management literature. Many researchers view management development as involving formalized education designed to develop a broad range of abilities which would

enable managers to cope with a large variety of tasks in diverse
organizational contexts. Others speak of management development as
instruction in highly specific managerial skills (e.g., time manage-
ment, delegation, managing conflict) which would be immediately appli-
cable in a particular organizational setting. Still others consider
development synonymous with career planning, job rotation, on-the-job
experience, and coaching. We view management education, management
training and both planned and unplanned on-the-job experiences as all
being potentially important inputs for a manager's development.
Clearly, Druckers' (1954) notion of the critical importance of
effective managers is widely accepted in American organizations today.
Hundreds of millions of dollars are spent annually on management
development and the volume of work on it is massive. In this era of
increasing international competitiveness and market maturity, organiza-
tions seem more aware than ever that they must take an active stance
and cannot leave the development of their managerial talent to chance.
The interest in and resources devoted to management development con-
tinues to grow, and the existing literature suggests some very general
issues that we think have significant implications for the practice of
management development. First, management development is a multi-
faceted, complex, and long-term process, and there is no quick or
simple answer to the question, "How should we best develop our mana-
gers?" Regardless of the combination of development inputs, however, a
holistic and integrative perspective is a necessity if management
development is to be an effective and vital stimulus for increased
organizational effectiveness. Second, organizations should also pay
more attention to systematically identifying their own specific

developmental objectives and evaluating the outcomes of their

developmental programs. As a first step, developers should attempt,

prior to any training, to determine objectives for managers'

development and to link these objectives to sources of evidence

(appraisals, records, documents) that might indicate to what extent the

objectives have been met. Third, management development activities

should not take place independent of, or worse, in conflict with,

organizational objectives. We concur with those writers who stress the

need for a more explicit linkage between the developmental function and

general organizational strategic objectives. A final important issue,

and one which we are certainly not the first to lament, is that the

utility of management education, training, and experience still remains

more an article of faith rather than an empirical fact. We concur with

Freedman and Stumpf's (1982) observation that the field has stressed

the development of techniques and instruments that are often of dubious

validity and rarely generalizable beyond the organizational sites in

which they were developed. Given the value and costs of management

development activities (Huber, 1985), it is unsettling that so little

evaluative evidence exists and that so many people question whether

these efforts do anything to upgrade actual managerial performance

(Hoffman, 1983). If we are to progress in our knowledge and

understanding of how to effectively develop managers, considerably more

attention must be devoted to this most fundamental of issues.

In Educating Managers: Executive Effectiveness Through Liberal

Learning (1986), Michael Uscem states that "Education and training with

large private sector corporations of the United States," observes a

Carnegie Foundation study of the phenomenon, "has become a booming

industry" (Eurich, 1985, p.1). While the annual expenditures of
American colleges and universities in the early 1980s had reached $60
billion, the training expenditures of corporations were exceeding $40
billion and climbing. "America's workers and managers have been going
back to school for a long time," the Carnegie Reports concludes, "but
in the last decade their numbers have increased, the variety of sub-
jects has broadened and, most strikingly, America's business has become
its own educational provider" (p.1). Company officers must, the
Business Roundtable, an association of the chief executives of the
nation's two hundred largest firms, urged, "make certain that their
successors and the oncoming generation of executives develop the
ability to participate in the public policy process and to manage the
evolving role of the large corporation as effectively as executives
must manage other aspects of their work," (Steckmest, 1982, p. 265).

In Training: Corporate Boot Camp for Newly Appointed Supervisors
(1986), Jack J. Phillips states that most organizations would be reluc-
tant to let a new employee operate equipment or machinery without
receiving prior instruction and training, yet these same companies
often allow supervisors to make the transition from employee to a
member of management over the weekend - with little or no instructions
on how to perform the job of supervisor. Although organizations are
aware that new employees at the non-management level need training to
do their jobs, they regard supervisory jobs differently, believing that
supervisory skills and knowledge are present at the time of promotion.
Although it is true that there are specific personality traits in some
individuals that make acquiring supervisory skills easy and some
selections are made on that basis - there are no natural born

supervisors, managers, or leaders. Effective supervisors are developed. Supervisory training, then, is essential. In fact, new supervisors expect initial training and are usually surprised when they do not receive it. Much has been written on how difficult it is - technically and emotionally - for employees to move from a non-management job into a supervisory position. The culture and value systems of the two roles are vastly different, and the skills and insights required in supervision are rarely required in non-management work. Asked to assume these responsibilities with little or no preparation, new supervisors are often left frustrated and dismayed by their predicament. They can easily be overwhelmed by new responsibilities and with the impact that their actions have on the organization as a whole.

In Human Resource Management (1987), Lloyd L. Byars and Leslie W. Rue state that management development is concerned with developing the experience, attitudes, and skills necessary to become or remain an effective manager. To be successful, it must have the full support of the organization's top executives. Management development should be designed, conducted, and evaluated on the basis of the objectives of the organization, the needs of the individual managers who are to be developed, and anticipated changes in the organization's management team. A management inventory provides certain types of information about an organization's current management team. A management succession plan records prospective successors for management positions within an organization. Objectives should be established for the overall management development program and for individual programs. One classification system for the preparation of management development

objectives involves establishing instructional, organizational or departmental, and individual objectives.

The Battelle Human Affairs Research Center published a document A Survey of Management Training and Education Practices In U. S. Companies (1988). The survey was systematically developed to assess issues related to management training and education, and it was sent to 1,000 randomly selected U. S. companies with at least 1,000 employees. Based on a 61% response rate, findings were obtained regarding issues such as needs assessment, management training and development approaches, reasons for selecting particular programs, characteristics of participants, how decisions are made regarding who will participate, preparation and follow-up of participants, evaluation of management training programs, future management training trends, and needed training content.

This study revealed that less than one-third of U. S. companies conduct some type of needs assessment to determine the training and development needs of their managers, although this is more likely to occur in larger companies than in smaller companies. Almost all U. S. companies with at least 1,000 employees use some type of formal training for managers, with large companies and financial companies more likely to use university programs and company-specific programs than smaller companies and firms in other industrial sectors. Programs are chosen primarily to broaden the individual and to provide know-ledge/skills. Program content and participant needs are the primary factors considered when choosing a particular program within a program type. Most companies report that there is some briefing or preparation of participants prior to attending a program. In general, there is

limited evidence of systematic evaluations of management training by U. S. companies.

In Back to Training Basics (1988), Michele Caplette asks how does your management training stack up next to that of other companies? Are your training efforts at the forefront of innovative management development? Or are you still satisfied doing what has always worked best for you? Similar questions asked of 14 high-technology companies during an assessment of the quality and impact of their training practices yielded predictable as well as surprising results. The most predictable and prevalent findings reflected much that is standard and traditional in management training. The surprising findings revealed a new approach to training and developing managers - one that challenges traditional methods by shifting away from production-oriented training toward more service-oriented training. The new approach places less emphasis on traditional classroom training and moves training back into the organization - back toward the client, which is management. Development and training courses focus on immediate business concerns and the ongoing training needs of managers on the job. The shift epitomizes what effective management training has always been about - helping people develop skills and knowledge to improve their work performance. The key difference in the approach lies not in what training is offered, but in how it is offered. The orientation is not new, but its increasing application reflects a significant new trend.

In Managerial Leadership in the Post-Industrial Society (1988), Philip Sadler states that when young men and women enter officer cadet school in the Armed Forces they are carefully selected for their leadership qualities. They are then given intensive training in

leadership skills. This training continues, albeit less intensively, when they have become commissioned officers, and culminates in training for strategic leadership when they reach very senior ranks. Managers in industry are more likely to be chosen for their functional or professional expertise than for their leadership qualities; they have in many ways a more difficult leadership task than service officers; yet in the great majority of cases they receive no training at all for leadership. Until recently, leadership has not featured prominently in the education and training of managers. Certainly the word leadership is rarely encountered in the descriptions of the content of MBA programs in North America and Europe and published lists of the short courses available for experienced managers include very few which are concerned with the subject. There are several factors which have contributed to this neglect. There is undoubtedly an association between leadership and the military and a related tendency to associate training for leadership with physical "outward bound" types of activity. Another is a genuine doubt as to whether qualities and skills of leadership can be learned in the same way, for example, that accountancy or economics can. At a deeper level, however, lies a belief in the power of rationally-designed systems to generate organizational effectiveness. It is this belief that has caused management trainers and management consultants to place so much emphasis on control systems, information systems and planning systems and such systematic ways of regulating human behavior as work study, management by objectives and performance appraisal. If it is accepted that training for leadership is vitally important, and that leadership

performance can be improved by training, then appropriate and effective learning methods must be developed.

In Management Education and Development: Current Issues and Emerging Trends (1988), Bernard Keys and Joseph Wolfe state that the field of management education and development has been changing rapidly over the past decade. Among the changes most influencing the field have been the pressing call for accountability in educational instruction, the proliferating use of experiential techniques, the increasing availability of educational technology, and the growing viewpoint that firms should promote lifetime learning for managers and assist in managing their careers. Some of the problems encountered by formal management development programs stem from the lack of hierarchically differentiated course work and subject matter coverage for the different managerial levels within organizations. Based on survey results, studies have found the greatest training needs for entry level managers to be communications and organizing skills, middle managers were most in need of people handling and problem solving skills, and senior executives needed training in finance, accounting, and handling pressure. (Johnson, Neclankavil, and Jadhav, 1986, Schrader, 1985).

In A Survey of Management Training and Education Practices in U. S. Companies (1988), Battelle Human Affairs Research Centers', Lise M. Saari, Terry R. Johnson, Steven D. McLaughlin, and Denise M. Zimmerle reported that in general, there is limited evidence of systematic evaluations of management training by U. S. companies. To the extent that evaluations are conducted, the primary method used is evaluation forms administered after program participation. The majority of the companies report using evaluation forms for company-specific programs,

with fewer companies doing this, or any other type of training evalua-
tion, for other programs. Thus, this study indicates that evaluations
of management training, other than reactions of participants following
program attendance, are not evident in U. S. companies. This is con-
trary to the continued emphasis placed by psychologists and economists
on the need for systematic training evaluations. The results of this
study indicate that most U. S. companies expect stable or increased
management training and education for their organizations in the next
five years. The largest increases in management training are expected
to be in company-specific programs, reflecting other, more general
findings that U. S. companies are increasingly becoming their own
educational providers (Eurick, 1985). The major reasons reported for
increased management training in the future are the need to update
managers on changing concepts/skills and an increased company emphasis
on management training and education. Consistent with the trend toward
increased management training in the future, companies have recently
implemented policies that require managers to participate in formal
education and training programs. Along with the findings regarding
increased use of management training, this suggests a growing commit-
ment to management training in U. S. corporations and supports the
contention by others (Keys and Wolfe, 1988) that corporate America
believes in management training and development. Yet, at the same
time, the systematic application by U. S. companies of important
training principles, such as needs assessment and evaluation, appears
to be in need of attention.

In Selling Management Development to Managers (1988), John Lawrie
states that in some organizations, management development is a central

consideration among senior-level line managers. Although they have delegated much of the day-to-day, administrative aspects of management development to human resource development people, the line managers are concerned with and involved in planning, delivery, and evaluation. They view their involvement early on in the process as an important management responsibility. In other organizations, line managers are disengaged from (if not mildly contemptuous of) the management development effort. They will assert that management development is important and deserves high priority. But if you were to observe what they actually do on a regular basis, you would find that management development is low in their hierarchy of important objectives - somewhere around the level of "I'll get to it when I can." Vast amounts of time and money are spent on management development efforts. Many are attractive at the outset but are ineffective when put to the test. An effective management development program requires that trainees devote at least as much time and expertise during the initial data-collection stage and after the program itself is over - during the application, reinforcement, and evaluation stages - as they do during actual delivery. A training program that is tailored to the needs of the organization and makes effective use of the resources at hand becomes a process whose value is clear to management.

In _Take Action to Change Performance_ (1989), John Lawrie states that the history of management development can be viewed as a trend intended to make training efforts more practical, realistic and immediately germane to the trainee's present roles and the operations of the organization. In this sense, training and development efforts have moved from situations in which participants talk and think about what

it means to be a manager toward designs that require the trainee to operate or behave like a leader in a controlled setting. The distinction is analagous to the difference between a drama student who passively watches and evaluates a play and a performer who actively lives and feels the role. Each has a valuable function, but first-class actors are not created merely by watching plays or reading criticism (regardless of the critic's insight). Development requires that they actually participate and become actors. Management development efforts have evolved to take this distinction more seriously. For years, management development professionals have felt that the results of learning by lecture, case study and role playing have not been applied fully in the work setting. (Empirical studies tend to support this assessment.) Trainees, although enjoying their management development experiences, reported problems in applying what they learned to the real organizational culture. What other training vehicles were available? A process known as action learning, teaching participants to act themselves into a new way of thinking, rather than think themselves into a new way of acting, has the potential to ensure application in the organization. Therefore, it has the additional potential to create real development in knowledge, attitudes and behavior. Growth in these developmental domains is an essential prerequisite to successful application on the job.

In What is Management Development? (1989), Tom Brown states 10 years ago, developing a manager typically meant sending him or her to a standard university program. Today, the grooming is often tailored to a company's needs - as evidenced by the emergence of company training centers, or "corporate campuses," operated by firms like General

Electric, IBM, and GTE. Still the basic ingredients of management development remain essentially the same. Many experts claim that true management development occurs after one takes a class. That is why you will often hear that only 20% - TOPS! - of one's professional growth occurs in the classroom. The rest comes on the job, but when an executive considers the four ingredients of management development - an organized approach, motivation, supervisor - subordinate dialogue, and fundamental relevance - he would be correct to conclude that some formal training is indispensable.

In Developing Managers - Part II (1989), Tom Brown states that in the truest sense, management development is not what a manager does for two days in a classroom setting - it is what a manager does over a span of at least five years. And it is a balanced program that combines classes and seminars with on-the-job learning. Managers are usually held back in their professional growth for two reasons. First, there is the too-easy assumption that "there's to much work to do and I am too critical to the organization" to take time out for a course or an on-the-job development experience. This statement very well may be true the first time a manager makes it. But watch out - the assumption can be addictive. Second, managers often fear change. Management used to be a profession dominated by people who "knew the most." The people with "all the answers" were often tapped to make all the decisions; but today's trend toward participative management emphasizes a different type of manager - one who can "learn the most."

In Trends in Management Development (1989), David E. Ripley states that management defined in terms of conceptual, human and technical skills means that as one moves from first-line supervisor to senior

management level, the need for technical skills decreases and the need for conceptual skills increases. This model of skills not only assumes that the technical skills of one's own function does not change, but fails to address the increasing need to gain an understanding of technical skills outside one's function as responsibility increases. More and more, it will be necessary to have a broader view to complement the field of expertise. Here is a revised approach to management/professional development based on the following: First Line Managers - development efforts should be focused primarily on developing human skills. In particular, the need is critical at this level for supervisory skills. The skills learned at this level may well set the pattern for how the manager handles people throughout his or her career. Generally, the technical skills needed at the first-line level are present or the employee would never have been promoted to first-line management. As a practical matter, many organizations tend to select first-line managers by seeing who "rises to the top." Technical skills needed and below this level would often be handled by vocational-technical programs. Developing conceptual skills is not yet a significant factor. More experienced managers' development efforts should be focused on: (1) Maintaining human skills. This is an area where we seem to need periodic reinforcement. Furthermore, we count on these managers to provide the coaching and role models for first-line managers. At about this level, technical people start to become managers of non-people resources, and some emphasis for all managers should be placed on non-supervisory human skills. (2) Maintaining technical skills in the basic discipline and developing technical skills in, and appreciation for, other disciplines. Non-people

managers may need to remain close to details of their functions longer than those with general responsibilities. Technical skills not tied to a particular discipline, such as decision making, should be emphasized here. (3) Encouraging the development of conceptual skills in those managers who are judged to have senior management potential. Senior management - development efforts should be focused: (1) Personal coaching and assignments that broaden the senior manager's experience base. (2) Programs that provide intellectual challenge, exposure to areas of national and international concern, and exposure to a peer group of equally successful managers from various organizations. (3) Special programs that provide information on how emerging new technologies and changing current technologies will affect the organization's future operations. (4) An organization's managers and professionals will not fall cleanly into three groups. Some structure is needed to build a program, but the ability to provide some degree of flexibility for the individual should be retained. (5) In many ways, all development is self-development. Organizations cannot develop those who are not motivated to develop themselves. What organizations can do is provide the tools, the opportunity and an environment in which development is encouraged. In this context, it is entirely appropriate to expect some degree of commitment from those in development plans.

In John W. Gardner's On Leadership (1990), he offers some poignant observations. All who have studied and thought about leadership development recognize that we know too little to permit definitive treatment of the subject. The answer to the question "Can leadership be taught?" is an emphatic but qualified "Yes" - emphatic because most of the ingredients of leadership can be taught, qualified because the

ingredients that cannot be taught may be quite important. The notion that all the attributes of a leader are innate is demonstrably false. Most of the capabilities that enable an outstanding leader to lead are learned.

If, despite all the discouragements encountered, a spark of enthusiasm for leadership is ignited in any of our young people, our educational system may well snuff it out. It does this in two ways. First, it places enormous emphasis on individual performance, and virtually none on the young person's capacity to work with the group. Second, the educational system - not necessarily with conscious intent - persuades the young person that what society needs are experts and professionals, not leaders.

If we could produce a very large number of elementary and high school children who had been well trained to accept responsibility in group activity (the first step toward leadership), if we could produce substantial numbers of late adolescents who had been helped to understand and experience leadership in their youth organizations, churches, and schools, if we could produce a great many men and women in their early twenties who had not only developed the skills of leadership but also tested those skills in community activities and political campaigns or in government and industry, then we could ensure a steady flow of mature leaders into all segments and all levels of our society.

If these young people could continue their development in industry, in government, in the unions, the professional and nonprofit organizations, we would have a plentiful supply of upper-middle-level people long schooled in the demanding tasks of leadership. And that

would be a richer source of top-level leaders than this nation has ever enjoyed. We are very far from an effort of that magnitude today.

In <u>Management Development Programs: Then and Now</u> (1990), David Burgoyne states that over the 40-years that management development programs have been offered in Canada, attendees have changed dramatically as the realities they face, both as managers and as individuals, have shifted. The programs have had to adapt to remain relevant. Management development programs are getting shorter, most courses now are of 4-weeks duration or shorter. This is just one of the concessions that has been made to cater to the desires and needs of participants. Participants in the management development programs of the 1950's and 1960's generally had not been to universities. They have attained some level of managerial success and could expect to continue to enjoy success without the encumbrance of a degree. Today, over two-thirds of program participants have attended a post-secondary institution and most have a degree of some kind, generally in Arts or Social Sciences. About 20% have Masters Degrees and some 5% have PhDs. The issue for some individuals and institutions becomes, "Can you operate effective management development programs for people who are not going to be promoted?" I would argue that the management program participants of today who are not going to be promoted will probably have to face as many and perhaps more new challenges and changes in their careers as those past participants who were promotable. The main objective of management development programs is to prepare managers to handle change and challenges more effectively. Some managers will be expected to do so as they move up the ladder, most will not be moving up the ladder but they will be expected to handle change and challenges

more effectively. Management programs then have had to keep pace with the significant social and economic metamorphasis that has occurred in Canada over the past 40 years. To remain relevant, the programs will need to continue to be sensitive to the challenges that the 1990's will bring. But, although the changes businesses experience in the next few decades may be massive, the role of management development programs will be a static one: To prepare managers to handle change and challenges more effectively.

In <u>Helping Rising Stars Shine as Managers</u> (1990), Keith M. Halperin states that in most cases, "going places" means being promoted up the corporate ladder into positions with higher levels of responsibility. But those positions also tend to demand more supervisory and managerial tasks - taking the employee away from doing the work and using the skills that made them stars in the first place. Most corporations see promotion as a reward for good performance, but that reward can turn a high achiever into a "problem child" when corporations assume that the star inherently has the managerial skills required for the new position. Because corporate cultures often support that assumption, many newly promoted employees think they will appear weak if they admit that they are uncomfortable with their ability to step smoothly into managerial roles. Such employees have been considered "stars", so their bosses are accustomed to letting them handle things alone. Even after the employees become managers, their bosses continue to leave them on their own. Thus, the need for management development remains hidden. Having identified areas and individuals for specific management training, and after developing a plan to provide that training, the Human Resources department is faced with what can be the

most difficult step in the process: Convincing corporate leaders to commit time and money to management training. Training corporate leaders and managers to recognize management training as a process, not a one-time event. Management development is more than attending a workshop and returning to the office a better manager. Make sure that participants and senior managers enter the development process with realistic expectations. Providing employees with management development training also can help identify those employees who have little interest in management positions. That way, the company can create alternative career paths that will adequately motivate and reward them without taking them away from the tasks they enjoy and perform the best. Finally, management training helps company leaders improve the ratio of internal promotions to outside hires. That can help an organization to avoid the costs of hiring and training new employees. Management training also facilitates succession planning. It helps the company to identify employees with promising managerial skills and to guide them into positions that will give them the experience they will need to take over the reins someday.

In A Building - Blocks Approach to Strategic Change (1990), Robert W. Mann states that the General Electric Company provides an excellent example of a long-term, comprehensive approach to developing managers to help achieve strategic change. Several other companies have also implemented long-range, systematic approaches to supporting corporate objectives. In each case, the organization has closely defined its organizational objectives, structured development programs at different management levels that are directly related to its objectives, and combined within those programs the individual training requirements of

each organizational unit and the corporation's broad objectives. This process, known as "building blocks," promises both immediate and long-term benefits. It uses core, mandatory training programs, or block, that follow a sequential order and build on one another. In the short term, building blocks provide continuing training in appropriate skills at each management level. Over the long term, managers who move through the building-blocks process become thoroughly conversant with the company's goals, values, practices, and culture. Since participation in each block is mandatory, managers from various parts of the company are together, which encourages networking, teamwork, and a more complete understanding of the entire corporation.

In Linking Management Development to Business Strategies (1990), John K. Berry states that each year companies spend millions of dollars on programs to help supervisors, managers, and executives become more competent. How many such programs really affect the organization's ability to compete? I believe that few of them do. That is why training budgets so often get the axe when profits are threatened, and why senior management does not show active support for development programs. Managers, after all, give attention to things that they think will make a difference. Why do management programs fail to add value to corporate strategy? (1) Programs are not linked specifically to the strategies, challenges, or problems of the organization, (2) They are designed to create awareness and understanding but not competence, (3) Programs focus on individuals rather than operating units, (4) Participants attend programs for reasons other than personal or organizational need, and (5) Programs fail to help participants confront reality.

In <u>Train a Replacement</u> (1990), Alan W. Farrant states that if you are suddenly absent from your job, is someone trained to take your place? Certainly the answer should be "yes"! Your mind will be at ease if you know someone is fully trained to step into your job and manage the work. You will be proud that you had the foresight to protect your job, not only for your sake, but for management as well. Work flow and production will not cease because of your absence. You will be an efficient supervisor! Some supervisors and managers are unwilling to teach all segments of their jobs. Lacking confidence, they fear that providing complete knowledge to someone else might be detrimental to their own positions. Such reasoning should not be the case. Be sure that your assistant knows all the little details of your responsibility, as well as the major ones. Do not be afraid of losing your job - you are a leading member of your team. If you have any worries along this line, dismiss them. In training someone else to take over in your absence and delegating authority, you are actually protecting your job and functioning as a real superior supervisor.

In <u>Looking For - And Building - A Few Good Heroes</u> (1990), Joseph F. McKenna states that U. S. Steel has designed it's management-development programs to take advantage of an individual's experience on the job as well as his or her leadership potential. Corning is redefining what has been called management development to take into account flattened managerial structures in its companies and to continuously promote the cultural values of the corporation as a whole. Both corporations consider leadership development to be an integral ingredient of any competitive corporate strategy. At Corning, management development is anything but status and segregated. Lately,

in fact, "I've stopped using the term as such, " notes J. Edwin

O'Brien, Director of Education and Training. "I feel it's too

confining." It's easy to get "pushed out of position" if a company's

focus is narrowly on the development of a manager, says Janet

McLaughlin, Manager of Strategic Corporate Education. "We have to keep

our eye on where we are going as a company and what are the skills that

people need in order to support that." "We've got to deal with the

development of all of our people," Ms. McLaughlin tells Industry Week.

"Those artificial barriers have to go away. Are we there yet? No.

Are we moving there? Yes. We are developing a training framework that

crosses payrolls. We are breaking down barriers. Overall, then,

management development suitable for the next century will have to be

grounded in personal and corporated flexibility as well as market

awareness. The world and Corning are changing rapidly, observes Mr.

O'Brien, "and people who don't stay up with the change become

obsolete." Bill Kelly is General Manager of the U. S. Steel Fairless

Works, near Philadelphia, one of the corporation's few integrated steel

mills. Fifteen years ago, though, he was a Lehigh University graduate

just coming aboard. As a new management employee, says Mr. Kelly, "You

don't really have a flavor for what's going on from a company

perspective. So it's valuable to know what you are doing in one small

corner of the big conglomerate, how that fits in with the overall

company objectives." Mr. Kelly first learned how he fit in through a

management-orientation program in 1976. Today, that program's

successor, the New Managers Program, is a 5-day seminar that provides

what U. S. Steel calls "a broad picture" of itself and the steel

industry. Moreover, it is the foundation for the rest of U. S. Steel's

management development and training. Very simply, management develop-
ment is a "process of preparing managers for existing and future
competitive challenges," explains Eugene E. Harris, Manager of General
Management and Development. And those challenges become readily
apparent to management associates (recently hired college graduates) or
new management employees who participate in the New Manager Program.
Speaking as the General Manager of a plant, Mr. Kelly notes that these
programs allow him "to pick out people I think have the potential to
move up in the organization. You get a lot of opinions about that
person's potential from the people who run the programs. The people
who run the programs are forever watching who has the most input, who
has the best ideas, who is the leader of each of the groups."

In Crafting Competitiveness: Toward a New Paradigm for Executive
Development (1990), Albert A. Vicere and Kenneth R. Graham report,
"We've cut to the bone and there's no fat left. We're making money,
gaining market share. The problem is that we have no management depth.
There are damn few of us around here anymore, and even fewer who are
ready to move into our slots." These comments - made to the authors by
a middle manager from a large company that recently orchestrated a
stunning turnaround - articulate one of the greatest challenges facing
organizations today: How to retool and reinvigorate management ranks
after sustained periods of retrenchment, reorganization, and turmoil.
In response to this challenge, many companies are attempting to
revitalize their internal executive-development processes in an effort
to help refocus the organization and enhance competitive effectiveness.
A new, emerging paradigm for executive development is on the horizon.
In this new paradigm, executive development is moving far beyond its

traditional role as an appendage of succession-planning efforts. Rather, executive development is becoming a tool to build the experience base of all managers across the many functions and business units of the organization. It adds perspective to these experiences through carefully targeted education, training, and performance feedback efforts. It provides opportunities for managers to apply this refined perspective to their jobs through coordinated career opportunities of expanded scope and responsibility. And it helps cultivate the organizational visions and values that focus the energy, and build the commitment, of the management team. As these objectives are met, the executive-development process becomes not only a vehicle for individual growth, but a facilitator of talent, commitment, teamwork, and competitive advantage. By overcoming preoccupations with individual development, age, and tenure as driving forces in executive development; by redefining notions of career longevity, plateauing, and statesmanship; by refining views on how to cultivate executive talent and teamwork; and by viewing executive development as a key tool for implementing strategy, executive development can move beyond a process that benefits only a few individual managers toward a process that helps drive the flexibility, commitment, and competitiveness of the entire organization.

In Training the Total Organization (1990), Vernon Humphrey states that collective training may revolutionize the way we analyze industrial and business performance. Rather than defining an organization as an aggregation of individuals performing discrete functions, collective training views the individual as part of the organizational whole and works from there. The result is a dynamic analysis, and training

that is designed to attain the "big picture" of an organization's goals. If collective training is not just training individuals, what is it? We need to come up with a handy definition of this new training field:

- Collective means "organization," especially a complex organization.

- Training is education - Teaching and learning.

- Learning is a permanent change in behavior.

- Collective training is changing the behavior of complex organizations.

Collective training, therefore, is training that addresses the organization, rather than the individual. To understand it, lets take a look at the individual-oriented Instructional Systems Design (ISD) model. The ISD model consists of five phases: analysis, design, development, implementation, and control. Now let's look at the Collective Training (CT) model. It looks a great deal like the ISD model, but it is an echelon above ISD, because it does not focus on the individual. The major difference is that the CT model begins with an analysis of the organization, and completes that analysis before proceeding with the design or development phase. Managing the training is crucial. There are actually two plans for this phase, one describing the training management strategy for the entire organization, and a second, specific to each unit, that managers at all levels use to ensure that training supports and is synchronized with the organization's overall plan. In the planning phase, the training managers select the most important organizational goals or objectives. Then they determine the organizational tasks that contribute to those goals or objectives. In the

resource phase, the time, facilities, and other training needs are pro-
grammed. In the training phase, the plan is implemented, but collec-
tive training is not a one-time project - it is an ongoing process.
All three phases are conducted simultaneously; some training is being
carried out while future training is being planned. Continuous
evaluation of training and performance allows continuous updating of
training plans. When training progresses more rapidly than expected,
the training schedule is sped up. When unexpected problems occur,
plans are adjusted accordingly.

In HRM Update - Special Grooming (1990), it states high-potential
employees receive special supervision early in their careers and
advance and change roles faster than their peers, according to a study
at the University of Utah in Salt Lake City, and Merrimack College in
North Andover, Massachusetts. The study also found that the typical
chief executive officer of a major U. S. company stays with the same
company and generally follows a three-phase climb to the executive
suite. C. Brooklyn Derr, Professor of Management at the university,
and Edmund L. Toomey, Organization Development Consultant for Digital
Equipment Corporation and Professor of Management for Merrimack
College, conducted the studies, which focused on 33 corporations. The
three phases include:

- Identifying candidates for promotion and sorting them out
  from their peers. A group may include recent graduates of
  elite academic programs or employees with 3 to 8 years
  experience who are already identified as high performers.

- Developing these candidates. The prospects, who usually fall within the 22 - 27 age range, are given a variety of training and development experiences.

- Carefully following the selected individual through the leadership succession process.

"The organizational pyramid gets very narrow at the top," says Derr, former Director of the University's Institute of Human Resource Management and author of Managing the New Careerists. "Remaining on a company's elite list of potential leaders is a process that requires competence at the early stages and good political skills at the latter stages," says Derr. Good interpersonal skills, excellent oral and written communication and leadership ability are the top three characteristics that corporate leaders name as requirements for continued promotion. However, the process defined by the study poses several questions for the future, says Derr, including the problem of the frustrated, unhappy employee who, although very talented, steps away from the promotion competition. Another problem is that the selection process is heavily weighted in favor of managers. "That raises a question about the composition of the next generation of leadership, given the importance of technology-based business," says Derr. "Do we need only managers or do we also need internal entrepreneurs, product champions and technical gurus at the top?" The study also raises the issues of the importance of physical stamina and an employee's determination to put career opportunities above everything else in life. "In the future," Derr adds, "the best and the brightest may not necessarily be those who work the hardest and sacrifice the most. A better makeup may be balance, creatively and 'working smart'."

In "Empower to the People" (1990), Margaret Rahn Keene writes "our first task was to give them confidence", commended John Connolly, who in 1984 took over the position of President of Constellation Bancorp, parent of the National State Bank. He was referring to the attitude of the employee he encountered as he toured the bank during his initial year there. The bank had been paternalistic in nature; all ideas emanated from the top. In the past, employees were never rewarded for making suggestions. If anything, offering up an idea was analagous to criticizing the current management. The result, as Connolly saw it, was a near-stagnant organization. However, Connolly was not interested in laying blame for the state of affairs; his focus was on how to fix it. "First, we had to deal with their fear; fear of making suggestions, fear of taking responsibility. I presumed that once we could overcome that, then we could concentrate on developing the managerial and competency skills. I estimated that the change in the thought process would occur within 6-months or so; in reality, it took much longer. Eventually, the 'couldn'ts' and 'wouldn'ts' left the bank." Those that did stay began to appreciate what was necessary to do the job right. First, the bank gave them the management training skills so that they could understand how to motivate their subordinates to do the job correctly. Their most powerful tool was the establishment of job standards and the appropriate use of the performance appraisal instrument. Connolly began to hear a new response from the employees: "We want to do it, but we don't really know how. We need to be trained properly." At that point the bank knew that the training it would offer would work. In an era of change, banks need take-charge workers. Fear of failure prevents some people from making that switch from

followers to doers. They would often rather fight the system than accept the challenge. Even highly motivated employees need education and training in order to be able to comfortably make the changeover. Clear job descriptions are a vital part of effective training.

In Training Challenge: Teaching Management (1990), Nancy M. Davis and Robert A. Luke, Jr. state that in government workers' litany of gripes, inadequacies of training programs may not rank with lags in pay and benefits. But for those who worry about the ability of managers in Federal agencies to cope with their increasingly complex agenda, training is high on the list of human resources problems to be solved. Now, the Office of Personnel Management (OPM) is taking the concern seriously enough to draft guidelines for agencies to follow as they devise management training regimes. The Task Force, appointed last winter by OPM Director, Constance Berry Newman, could distinguish between training and development: The former is a structured process that often takes place in classrooms; the latter involves gaining experience through special assignments and job rotation. The task force also identified certain managerial topics that are likely to be uniform throughout government, including human resources, finance and politics. A recent OPM survey of 49 Washington-based agencies shows that most agencies have initial training for new supervisors, ranging from about 30-hours to 200-hours, generally accomplished within 2-years after appointment. Though most also have some formal development programs, fewer than half reported having a set of "core" training requirements for all executives. Such requirements exist in the Navy, where executives are required to have three weeks of training every five years. The General Accounting Officer (GAO) has a list of core

requirements, including an orientation, an individual development plan, conversations with top managers and seminars. Since Newman's task force consisted primarily of very high-level senior officials, government executives interviewed a handful of randomly selected federal managers to find out exactly what providers and recipients of management training think about what works, what does not and why. Some affirmed one finding of a recent GAO study: Federal managers do not have much time for training. Among several factors that prevent officials from taking advantage of such opportunities, the most common is not being able to get away from the job. And, while there are differences in what is offered by federal agencies, targeted management training - courses seen by participants to be responsive to the demands of their jobs - is reported to work better than generic information.

In Grooming Business Coaches (1991), Katherine Butler states that as part of an innovative management development program at Small Business Administration (SBA), Joe Loddo and ten others will spend the next 6 to 18 months training to administer SBA's services to small-business communities across the nation as directors of the agency's district offices. The District Director Candidate Development Program is a full-time, highly individualized program that has prepared qualified people within the agency for assignment to upper-level management positions since 1983. But Loddo's class, the sixth and newest, differ from previous classes in its size and diversity. Previous classes have never included candidates from outside the agency, and non have had more than three students. But Loddo's class numbers eleven: Five men and six women, five of the candidates come from outside SBA (including Loddo, who is the only candidate from outside the federal government),

and five are members of minority groups. Richard Osbourn, creator of
the development program and Director of Personnel at SBA, says this
diversity is no accident. According to Osbourn, the high visibility of
a district director's position is what finally persuaded the agency to
put some directors through a training program rather than hiring them
through the more common application/interview process. "The people in
our training program will in many ways be tested as they complete their
training," he explains. It is much better to hire someone who is a
known quantity rather than someone who may just look good on paper."
Osbourn concedes SBA's development program is modeled after many
government management training programs, but in particular, he says, it
closely resembles a program implemented by the Internal Revenue Service
(IRS) in the early 1950s. Selection of candidates for the two programs
is conducted in much the same way, as is candidate training. In both
programs, participants pursue a developmental process which is prima-
rily work-related rather than academic, and training activities include
visiting selected field offices and shadowing assignments with field
executives. But, he adds, there is one important difference between
the programs. IRS management training is based on the assumption that
successful technical or subject-matter specialists can be trained to be
good managers, while the SBA program assigns more importance to good
management potential and assume good managers can be trained in the
relevant subject matter.

In Developing Supervision (1991), John Kane and Tony Wallace state
that from a series of 'Management of Change' workshops designed and run
by Ron Johnson, who has advised BOC Distribution Services for some
years on training and development matters, the key to future success

was identified as ensuring the skills and abilities of managers at all levels were able to meet the challenges. Supervisors, as first-line managers, were identified as 'key players' in implementing, maintaining and taking ownership of the inevitable changes in working practices and methods that would take effect at shop floor level, and we ran a series of project-based, problem-solving workshops to enable them to fulfill their roles. These workshops formed a major element in a special on- and off-the-job supervisory development program. The managers to whom the supervisors reported were first trained in monitoring, including performance assessment and giving feedback, coaching, counseling and project management, so that they could play their full part in the development program. This supervisory development program must be seen in the context of the overall companying training strategy, however to prepare for the future the company formed a training strategy group, which was charged with the development of a 3-year training plan for all levels of employees. Supervisors are one of its seven key priority areas. Ronnie Broome, our Chief Executive, comments: "This represents a substantial investment in the people in this business. I consider it is essential to commit the resources if BOC Distribution Services is to achieve its business objectives in the longer term."

In A Strategic Look at Management Development (1991), Paul Miller states that although huge amounts are spent on management development in the United Kingdom (UK) each year, few companies have yet integrated it into their strategic planning process, and it is still poorly implemented. There is now considerable research evidence to support the widely held view that employee development remains poorly implemented in the UK. This is partly because it is assumed that there is no firm

proof of a positive relationship between business performance and management development, and this assumption is largely unchallenged. And one reason for this is that the relationship between management development and the strategy of the firm has not given rise to initiatives which could establish the relationship. Although 'development' is, of course, necessary for all employees, I am concerned here only with managers. Unless the organization manages its top managers appropriately, those managers will not effectively and efficiently manage the resources (including people) at lower levels, and neither will be the lower-level managers. This is true however sound and well thought-out any substantive strategy which the organization has for those levels might be. Put even more simply, a bad manager (poorly selected, rewarded and developed) will not be able to implement the most perfect of strategies. With this in mind, I should like to propose this working definition of development: "the identification of the skills and knowledge needed by managers for the organization to meet its strategic objectives and the management of those processes necessary to produce them." There are three important implications for the organization. The first is that management development should be directed towards the organization's goals and not necessarily the individual employee's goals. Secondly, the definition implies articulated strategies. Thirdly, the definition implies a systematic process linking one to the other. If employee development is crucial to the implementation of organizational strategies, the question of the relationship of development to the performance of the organization is, of course, highly relevant. This relationship has been given particular prominence recently: "Individuals are now the only source of sustainable

competitive advantage. Efforts must be focused on mobilizing their commitment and encouraging self-development and lifetime learning." In spite of commentary like this, we are repeatedly reminded that there is "a paucity of hard, detailed evidence of direct causal links between investment in education and training and the resultant return in the form of increased performance."

In Get Successor Ready (1991), Alan W. Farrant states, "Are you preparing for your successor as a supervisor? You should be. Many supervisors take the attitude they will never retire. Never get seriously ill. Never quit the job. Such thinking is very unfair to the employer. Employers have a right to assume a supervisor is training a replacement. It is often false pride, rather than fear of a serious illness or death, that leads many supervisors to avoid planning for an eventual successor. They do fear for their status within their own department, if they start training a replacement. If you are not now training a replacement, it would be a good idea to first talk to your own supervisor. If none, then to the appropriate member of management. Explain you are about to select and train a replacement. Ask what the thinking of management is as to basic requirements. Usually the advice you get will be of small importance - even management has not looked to the future. But at least you will get a rough idea. More important to you, management will appreciate being asked for advice. This, in turn, will help you have the approval of the replacement you do select. Yes, and the training program you decide to use.

In Should Management Development Just Be For Managers? (1991), Edger Wille states that Colin O'Neill of Rothmans' personnel function

does not like talking about management development. A key contributor to the work changes pioneered by that company in Northeast England, he sees people development as being what business is all about; indeed, he goes so far as to say that the whole purpose of organizations is "to grow people" and that the most vital activity of managers is to grow people from dependency to adult acceptance of responsibility. "Managers are there to coach, counsel and enable the team to perform; they really do not have any other function." Over in nearby Sunderland I met Doug Lorraine, responsible for training and development in Nissan (UK). He said that in a team-based organization every employee was really a manager. If managers must be defined separately, they are there to manage the people; but the people are there to manage the task. The manager brings out their energies and develops their skills. Rothmans and Nissan were two of some 150 organizations contacted, many in extended interviews, in the course of a Training Agency project on management development undertaken by the Ashridge Management Research Group. The aim of the project, which we are completing this month, was to discover best practice, with special reference to the closeness of the relationship between management development and business perfor- mance. But it is too simplistic to describe organizations as "good" if they stress developing all employees and "bad" if they seem mainly concerned about the elite. A number of companies which seemed at first sight to have a preoccupation with the top succession do create conditions for total employee growth.

In Super Training (1991), John Lawrie states that even well- planned supervisory training efforts can fail if trainees return to work environments that do not support what they have learned. To an

important extent, you can avoid this kind of defeat by using trainees'
immediate supervisors as resources during training design and implemen-
tation. Here are some quick but important steps that can help ensure
the success of your training program:

- Before training, interview each prospective trainee's super-
  visor to assess what he or she wants covered in the program.
  After talking to all the supervisors individually, give them
  feedback in a group meeting or one-on-one to make sure you
  have correctly identified priorities and content areas.

- Let the trainees know that much of the program content was
  designed from needs assessment input from their supervisors.

- Ask small groups of the trainees' supervisors to attend at
  least three sessions of the program. Provide them with a
  list of topics and the dates they will be presented. Follow
  up to ensure that they sign up for the sessions.

- As the program progresses, ask the supervisors to write down
  the specific behaviors from the program that they have
  reinforced in the trainees. Without reinforcement from
  supervisors, the program is destined to fail.

- With each trainees' permission, conduct an informal and non-
  threatening audit with his or her supervisor. Ask the
  supervisor if there is any evidence that the trainee has
  learned the targeted skills or knowledge. An informal audit
  not only encourages the supervisor to look for and reinforce
  new behavior, but can also increase communication between the
  manager and employee. In addition, it conveys a message that
  the program is important.

- Recycle through the design process. By this time, super-
   visors and trainees should have gained some confidence in the
   process. They should be ready to help make the next training
   effort more specific and job-related. Again, look for know-
   ledge areas, skills, and attitude changes that supervisors
   want to see included in the next development effort for their
   employees.

In Strategies for Training New Managers (1991), Brenda J. Martin,
Patrick J. Harrison and Eric Ingram state that corporate training and
development, which serves as Rohr Industries' primary internal training
source for supervisory personnel, reviewed its course offerings and
chose its supervisory development seminar as the best entry point for
instituting evolutionary, not revolutionary change. The supervisory
development seminar had been offered at least twice a year since 1985
as a series of day-long sessions conducted once a week for 8 consecu-
tive weeks. The goal of the series, as stated in the course descrip-
tion, was to "assist supervisors to develop their knowledge, skills,
performance and potential." It also was the only formal internal
training for supervisors who wanted to improve their management skills.
Instead of designing an entirely new series and mandating attendance,
the corporate training and development team surmised that such an
approach might raise resistance among the very people who would be able
to translate the new corporate goals into action. In choosing the
supervisory development seminar, corporate training and development
considered the closeness of supervisors to workers, as well as the fact
that enrollment in the course was voluntary. In addition, to corporate
executives, training and development wanted change to be driven by

volunteers (people who wanted to improve their supervisory skills), not by people required to attend. In addition, top management reasoned that communicating corporate goals to production-line employees is the responsibility of line supervisors - people who have first-hand knowledge of the product and the primary role of ensuring the quality and efficiency of production. Another reason to target the supervisory development seminar was that current supervisors represent the next generation of Rohr management. Upgrading the course was considered to be sounding positioning for the future.

In Lead Leaders Into the '90s (1991), Marshall Whitmire and Philip R. Nienstedt state that General Electric's CEO, Jack Welch, began to transform the company in 1981 to meet his goal to make GE number one or two in every arena in which it competed. Welch believed that the need for the company to be more flexible, innovative and entreprenuerial meant that leader development must become a top priority... so he made it one. Prompted by continuing globalization of the economy and productivity problems at home, GE and other U. S. businesses are making major changes in their leadership development. Such programs are increasingly popular, but to design and deliver training that actually works is a demanding task. The management training professional must play a major role in establishing the program and keeping it up-to-date, always staying alert to emerging organizational issues and strategies, which might necessitate redesigning the program or implementing it in a different way. The cost of failure to do so is potentially high, both to the organization and to the training professional. The reward for success, however, is dynamic and capable leaders who can compete successfully in the changing marketplace of the '90s.

In Honolulu's Stripes: Training for Sergeants (1991), Robert D.
Prasser states that in today's legal climate, it is imperative that
police sergeants be prepared not only to face the challenges of crime
in their districts but also manage their personnel more effectively.
All too often, newly promoted sergeants receive only an orientation and
a review of departmental regulations before they are placed in their
new assignments to either "sink or swim." In police departments
throughout the country, this is often wryly referred to as "Holy
Ghost" training - somehow they will get the job done with minimum
damage to the department and few lawsuits. While not discounting
divine intervention, the Honolulu, Hawaii, Police Department realized
that recently appointed sergeants require additional training to rise
to an increased level of professionalism, in view of today's ever-
litigious society. Department officials recognized that sergeants on
today's police forces need basic skills in management and supervision,
counseling, public relations, and other areas that were previously
delegated to mid-level managers and above. With those issues in mind,
they developed a new training program for sergeants. The Supervisory
Training Regimen In The Preparation and Education of Sergeants
(STRIPES) Program lasts approximately 20-days and includes a variety of
training tools that both challenge and stimulate the trainees,
including classroom instruction and lectures, mock scenarios, and
written examinations. In order to make the program as professional as
possible, instructors from within the department who are experts in
particular fields augment the existing training staff. STRIPES is
significantly different from the previous training program. The
STRIPES curriculum includes eight areas of concentration. Officers are

graded on a pass/fail basis, with a penalty of demotion for failing the program. This system not only motivates the officers to learn but also identifies those officers who should be removed from the program because they have not mastered fundamental supervisory skills. The program is designed to help sergeants succeed. There are two comprehensive examinations given throughout the training that provide a foundation for each officer's evaluation. However, in addition to the examinations, performance during practical exercises is also considered. The decision to pass or fail officers is based on their overall performance. In the past, most sergeant training was done in the classroom. However, because police officers tend to be practical, task-oriented individuals who need more than classroom lectures to keep their interest, practical exercises, such as mock scenarios, were incorporated into the STRIPES Program. If officers are retained at ranks for which they are unqualified, everyone suffers. It calls into question the competence and integrity of the department as a whole. This, in turn, lowers morale within the department and diminishes community confidence and trust in the police. The curriculum of the STRIPES Program will inevitably go through further revisions, changes, and improvements. By remaining flexible, however, and continually updating the curriculum as the need arises, the primary goal will be met - to prepare newly promoted sergeants for the challenges that await them.

In <u>Management Development in the NHS</u> (1991), Carole Tietjen states that all of the 14 regional and district health authorities and trusts that cover England have management development posts, and many also have an organization development function. The number, significance

and importance of those posts has been growing rapidly over the last 3
to 4 years. The NHS also uses external management consultants very
much more freely now. Thus we have been building up networks of
consultants, their skills and their particular interests. Development
centers are now used extensively, each region having developed its own
criteria and competencies. In its top management development programs
Southeast Thames region, for example, has been looking at the compe-
tencies needed in the purchasers, providers and family health services.
The same region has an integrated management development strategy for
all of its top 1,000 managers to go through an assessment and
development process mechanism arranged to support critical capability
gaps. This is a huge, stimulating and challenging program which will
enable the region to understand the skills gaps it will need to fill,
as well as providing an opportunity for self-development for many
managers. The NHS training authority last year launched a program
entitled 'Strategic human resource development initiative,' which is
ongoing and in which nearly every region is participating, based on
work initially carried out by the Prospect Center on Training
Management capacity and capability in the NHS. The program is intended
to cultivate those people who currently have or may take on strategic
personnel and organizational development roles and who will be
concerned with strategic training planning and/or organizational
development rather than direct training. It aims to develop the
ability of these managers to work with senior managers to produce cost-
effective strategies and intiatives to meet the demands of the new role
of the NHS. Changing culture is a long-haul, not an overnight task.
That is what the NHS is trying to do - we have a commitment from

the chief executive of the NHS to provide an overall national framework for management development, with each region taking forward its own ideas within its own culture. It makes for challenging opportunities, the breaking down of traditional boundaries and the weaving together of organizational complexities into an exciting and vibrant culture.

<div align="center">Summary</div>

Due to the unique nature of the subject of Aviation Management and lack of reference materials for that specific area the researcher provided a summation of general management development for the past 30 years.

In an effort to define what a manager/supervisor is, it was found that the terms are very different and unique to some authors (Dunn and Stephens (1972) and Scheer (1979) and to others they were synonymous (Chruden and Sherman (1980) and Famularo (1986). A common definition derived from the definitions found can be stated as - a manager or supervisor is any person who supervises people and gives direction to those people in an effort to accomplish the goals of the organization.

It appears in the last 30 years that much emphasis has been placed on the development and education for managers in general. In 1961, Houston states that we are now ready to consider an approach to manager education and development designed to prepare managers to meet the fundamental challenges of today and tomorrow through the development and use of conceptual skills. The major limitations which tend to impair the effectiveness of much of the current manager education and development effort appear to be the limitations of attitude, time, resources, educational content and method, and limitations of

measurement. In 1962, Haiman states that in performing the staffing
function a manager must make certain that there are a sufficient supply
of young men available who, in a number of years, will be the junior
and middle level executives and who, in 15 or 20 years, will be able to
fill top executive positions. In 1965, Dale pointed out that most
companies felt those promoted to first-line supervision were likely to
know enough about the actual work and not to need further training. In
1969, Reeves found that emphasis of selecting of individuals for first-
line supervision with future managerial potential began. The criticism
of education for management is not new, and generation after generation
has sought to improve the delivery of its product, i.e., managerial
knowledge. In 1973, Allen states that efforts to help managers develop
their knowledge, attitudes, and skills often fail. There are many
reasons. One is that success in management depends on the ability to
deal effectively with fast-changing and usually ill-defined human and
technical problems, and not on rate performance of prescribed skills.
Resistance to change is a second factor. The new approach may be
distinctly superior to what the company currently practices, but,
almost always, greater time and effort are required to implement than
to teach it. A third, and not always obvious, reason that a management
development effort fails is lack of any orderly, logical, formalized
system of management into which it can fit. Wren (1979) suggests that
the problem for modern management educators has been that of trying to
make the student's transition from the classroom to the world of prac-
ticing less painful and more relevant.

In 1981, Magginson states that management development programs
should result in personal _and_ organizational growth. While no two

organizations approach management development in quite the same way, there are some common threads running through the more effective programs. The easy answer to who needs to be developed is: all present and potential managers.

Stahl (1983) states that we must remind ourselves that a staff grows and develops not just by use of formal training alone but also by living in an environment with an attitude of management permeating all operations, that makes growth and development natural, attractive, and satisfying.

In 1984, Ash states that for a manager to be promoted, there should be a backup person to replace him. The essence of good organizational development is a management team that recognizes the importance of developing the competence of those who must eventually assume their jobs. It is a sign of weakness when a company fails to develop a management team from within.

In 1986, Wexley and Baldwin state that despite considerable recent attention to the topic, management development may still be one of the most ill-defined and variously interpreted concepts in the management literature. The utility of management education, training, and experience still remains more an article of faith rather than an empirial fact. If we are to progress in our knowledge and understanding of how to effectively develop managers, considerably more attention must be devoted to this most fundamental of issues.

In 1986, Phillips states that most organizations would be reluctant to let a new employee operate equipment or machinery without receiving prior instruction and training, yet these same companies often allow supervisors to make the transition from employee to a

member of management over the weekend - with little or no instructions on how to perform the job of supervisor. Much has been written on how difficult it is - technically and emotionally - for employees to move from a non-management job into a supervisory position. The culture and value system of the two roles are vastly different, and the skills and insights required in supervision are rarely required in non-management work. Asked to assume these responsibilities with little or no preparation, new supervisors are often left frustrated and dismayed by their predicament.

In 1989, Lawrie states that in some organizations, line managers are disengaged from (if not widely contemptuous of) the management development effort. They will assert that management development is important and deserves high priority. But if you were to observe what they actually do on a regular basis, you would find that management development is low in their hierarchy of important objectives - somewhere around the level of "I'll get to it when I can."

Gardner (1990) points out that our education system does not promote leadership. It does this in two ways. First, it places enormous emphasis on individual performance, and virtually none on the young person's capacity to work with the group. Secondly, the educational system - not necessarily with conscious intent - persuades the young person that what society needs are experts and professionals, not leaders.

In 1990, Halperin states that most corporations see promotions as a reward for good performance, but that reward can turn a high achiever into a "problem child" when corporations assume that the star inherently has the managerial skills required for the new position. Because

corporate cultures often support that assumption, many newly promoted employees think they will appear weak if they admit that they are uncomfortable with their ability to step smoothly into managerial roles. Such employees have been considered "stars", so their bosses are accustomed to letting them handle things alone. Even after the employees become managers, their bosses continue to leave them on their own. Thus, the need for management development remains hidden.

In 1990, Berry states that each year companies spend millions of dollars on programs to help supervisors, managers, and executives become more competent. How many such programs really effect the organizations ability to compete? He believes that few of them do. That is why training budgets so often get the axe when profits are threatened, and why senior management does not show active support for development programs.

In 1991, Farrant states that many supervisors take the attitude they will never retire. Never get seriously ill. Never quit the job. Such thinking is very unfair to the employer. Employers have a right to assume a supervisor is training a replacement. It is often false pride, rather than fear of a serious illness or death, that leads many supervisors to avoid planning for an eventual successor. They do fear for their status within their own department, if they start training a replacement.

In 1991, Lawrie states that even well-planned supervisory training efforts can fail if trainees return to work environments that do not support what they have learned. To an important extent, you can avoid this kind of defeat by using trainees' immediate supervisor as resources during training design and implementation.

In 1991, Prasser states that in today's legal climate, it is imperative that police sergeants be prepared not only to face the challenges of crime in their districts but also manage their personnel more effectively. All too often, newly promoted sergeants receive only an orientation and a review of departmental regulations before they are placed in their new assignments to either "sink or swim." In police departments throughout the country, this is often wryly referred to as "Holy Ghost" training - somehow they will get the job done with minimum damage to the department and few lawsuits.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine if management development and education is occurring, whether prior to or after being promoted to a management position, within the law enforcement aviation community. In order to do this, it will be necessary to determine the status of management development and educational programs in the law enforcement aviation community through a predetermined group of law enforcement agencies and aviation businesses associated with law enforcement. The predetermined group will be selected from a listing of law enforcement agencies that have an aviation department or unit contained in the Airborne Law Enforcement Association membership book.

The Airborne Law Enforcement Association (ALEA) is an international organization whose members are involved or interested in the use of aircraft in law enforcement. Founded in 1970, ALEA was organized for the benefit of law enforcement officers and personnel who utilize aircraft in the daily performance of their duties. The active membership represents city, state, county, federal, and international law enforcement agencies which use both fixed and rotor wing aircraft. The purpose of the ALEA is: to encourage communications and liaison between law enforcement agencies and suppression of crime, the

investigation and apprehension of law violators, and for emergency
services; to consider problems in the use of aircraft by law
enforcement agencies and make recommendations for solutions to those
problems; to consider education programs relating to airborne law
enforcement and implement the programs in cooperation with academic
institutions, aviation safety foundations, and professional
organizations interested in aviation; to provide public education in
the field of prevention and control of law violators as they relate to
the use of aircraft; to promote professional ethics in the field of law
enforcement as they pertain to the use of aircraft and aviation related
services; to encourage the use of aircraft by law enforcement agencies
for the prevention and suppression of crime, the investigation and
apprehension of law violators, and for emergency services; and to
provide information, relative to the use of aircraft and related
services, to law enforcement agencies that are interested in the use of
aircraft for the prevention and suppression of crime, the investigation
and apprehension of law violators, and for emergency services.
Recognizing that the goals and objectives of the ALEA are supported by
many people, the ALEA offers three types of membership in the
Association: Professional - full-time law enforcement officers who,
under the laws of a recognized authority such as a city, county, state,
federal, or international authority, is empowered to act as a law
enforcement officer, and is primarily engaged in airborne law
enforcement; Associate - other individuals interested in the
relationship between law enforcement and the use of aircraft; and
Affiliate - firms such as industrial producers engaged in the

manufacture, supply service, or insurance of aircraft, avionics, or related equipment used in airborne law enforcement application.

An additional development from this study is the identification of what management development programs exist and what should exist. This issue would be an ideal topic for a future study.

Preliminary Procedures

Data collection will be made to determine the present status of managerial training and development programs within the Aviation community. This information will be requested from the organization's designated training coordinator/specialist identified to participate in this research. A combination of objective and subjective data was collected from the organization's designated training coordinator/ specialist selected.

The mail questionnaire is a list of questions for information or opinion that is mailed to potential respondents who have been chosen in some designated manner. The respondents are asked to complete the questionnaire and return it by mail. This means of gathering information is very popular because it promises to secure data at a minimum of time and expense. The popularity of the method is often defeated because many respondents are overburdened by the number of questionnaires that reach them. In the competition of their time, respondents increasingly examine the purpose of the study, the sponsorship, the utility of findings to them, the time required to fill out the questionnaire, the quality and readability of the type, and perhaps the quality of the paper.

Consideration was given to its value in a highly competitive environment in which the majority of respondents will probably not complete and return the questionnaire. Careful examination of the advantages and disadvantages were made. The disadvantages are: the problem of nonreturns and those who answer the questionnaire may differ significantly from nonrespondents, thereby biasing the sample. The advantages are: permits wide coverage for minimum expense, both in money and in effort; affords wider geographic contact; reaches people who are difficult to locate and interview; greater coverage may yield greater validity through larger and more representative samples, permits more considered answers; more adequate in situations in which the respondent has to check information; more adequate in situations in which group consultations would give more valid information; greater uniformity in the manner in which questions are posed; gives respondent a sense of privacy; affords a simple means of continual reporting over time; and lessens interviewer effect. It was determined that the advantages override the disadvantages, and the method fit the study, therefore the questionnaire is appropriate. A copy of the questionnaire is located in Appendix A.

This questionnaire is seeking to estimate as precisely and comprehensively as possible a problem area. Economy and efficiency are important criteria, but the rule is, gather the data you need but not more than is needed. The order in which questions are asked is very important. The following was taken into account in organizing the questions of this questionnaire:

1. Start with easy questions that the respondent will enjoy answering.

2. Do not condition answers to subsequent questions by preceding ones.

3. Use the sequence of questions to protect the respondent's ego. Save personal questions, such as those about income, for later.

4. Decide whether one or several questions will best obtain the information for a given objective.

5, With using free - answer questions, have the questions in pairs, asking for the pros and cons of a particular issue.

6. Open-ended questions, which require most thought and writing, should be kept to a minimum. Generally, these should be placed at the end to assure that the closed questions will be answered.

7. Topics and questions should be arranged so that they make the most sense to the respondent. The air is to secure a sequence that is natural and easy for the respondent.

This survey questionnaire requested data concerning the current status of the managerial training and development program at the respective organization. It also allowed an opportunity to make recommendations for improvements or needed changes. It collected additional information concerning: (a) if any kind of managerial training and development program exists, (b) determine for whom this training is available to, (c) determine restrictions and limitations on the program and/or participation, and (d) determine how well is the program administered and managements' commitment to the program.

Operational Procedures

Response rates to mail questionnaires are typically low, usually not exceeding 50%. Recent research indicates that much better return rates can be achieved by skilled use of questionnaire construction and follow-up procedures. A method of possibly achieving these results can be described in the following steps:

1. Prepare the questionnaire as a booklet, through photo reduction and multilithing. (This makes it seem less formidable.)

2. Make the cover page attractive and eye-catching.

3. Use straight forward, unambiguous questions, carefully ordered and presented in a visually attractive manner.

4. Prepare a cover letter emphasizing the social usefulness of the study and the importance of each individual respondent to the success of the study.

5. Make full use of personalization procedures. Address respondents by name, sign your name, and so on.

6. Send questionnaires via first class mail.

7. Provide a self-addressed, stamped envelope for the return.

8. Use postcard follow-up 2 to 3 weeks later.

9. Follow-up again with another postcard or letter if necessary or practical.

With this in mind, the action described in the following was taken.

In an effort to obtain a higher than normal response rate, the questionnaire was mailed with a cover letter explaining the purpose of the questionnaire, a requested return date and a self addressed stamped

envelop for return. A copy of this cover letter is located in Appendix B.

The researcher developed a draft questionnaire which was presented to the doctoral committee chairman for review. The questionnaire was mailed to 100 selected individuals. After approximately 3 weeks only 28 questionnaires were returned. Postcards were sent to those who did not respond. After another week, only six more questionnaires were returned. This was for a total of 34 respondents. Aviation program directors outside of the survey response group provided a pilot group to evaluate the usability of the questionnaire.

Research Design and Analysis

The findings of this study were presented in a descriptive format with both qualitative and quantifiable data presented. Findings included details of demographic data, combined summation of objective responses, and a summation of subjective responsives given on the questionnaire.

The conclusions and recommendations are presented in a descriptive and summation format. This information would offer a self-supporting overview of the entire research endeavor. It will also provide the opportunity to pull together all of the findings, and provide a vehicle to facilitate increase awareness and use of managerial/supervisory training and development in the aviation industry.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present data which were obtained through the questionnaire distributed to selected managers throughout the Aviation Industry. The delineation of the presentation of findings was designed to afford a concise and comprehensive report of the data collected.

The goal of this research was to determine opinions and perceptions about managerial needs within the Aviation Community which could assist in the understanding of why the aviation industry has set rigid training programs for pilots and not for those who are tasked with managing these pilots as well as the organization itself. Determining the needs, ideas, and opinions of managers throughout the aviation industry can provide insight into how the industry can achieve great potential in management development. Through this, an evaluation of the current status of the managerial needs within the aviation industry will allow a measure of effectiveness to date.

The goal of this chapter was to present data collected through this study in order to reach tentative conclusions and recommendations on how to better train and prepare aviation managers for the positions they assume. Both subjective and descriptive data were collected

through the issuance of a questionnaire (see appendix A). The
questionnaire included several open-ended questions which encouraged
participants to discuss their evaluations of the management training
program within their organization. Further explanation of the
procedures was provided in Chapter III.

The target group of respondents were members of the Airborne Law
Enforcement Association (ALEA). The Airborne Law Enforcement
Association is an international organization whose members are involved
or interested in the use of aircraft in law enforcement. ALEA has over
400 Federal, State, County and Local organizations represented as well
as international memberships. No international membership was used in
this study.

Airborne Law Enforcement Association organizations vary in size
from 1 to over 50,000. They are located throughout the United States.
There is no geographical apportionment involved in the membership
organizations. The response group consisted of 100 of the over 400
Airborne Law Enforcement Association membership of the organizations.
This was approximately 40% of the group and represented a wide
diversity of Federal, State, County and Local law enforcement agencies
as well as private industry involved in airborne law enforcement.
Selected states were identified in the six U. S. regions as shown in
Table I.

TABLE I

SELECTED STATES FROM THE SIX U. S. REGIONS OF ALEA

Region	State
Eastern	Illinois, Michigan, Ohio
North Central	Colorado, Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, Nebraska
Northeast	Maryland, New York, Pennsylvania, Virginia, District of Columbia,
South Central	Arkansas, New Mexico, Oklahoma, Texas
Southeastern	Alabama, Florida, North Carolina
Western	Arizona, California, Nevada

Findings

The instrument utilized to gather the data was comprehensive and required a considerate time to complete, up to 30 minutes, on the part of the respondents. Therefore, a series of Yes/No and multiple selection items were utilized in order to examine the subjective answers of the managers. Several of the Yes/No questions allowed for a "what kind" follow-up. The follow-ups which received a reply are reported in narrative form following a table of the Yes/No responses. Table II provides a listing of the Yes/No questions and an aggregate of the respondent replies.

TABLE II

YES/NO QUESTIONS RESPONSES

Question	Yes	No	Unk	No Reply
Is information concerning a management development program made available to all those who are interested in it?	20	10	4	

TABLE II (Continued)

Question	Yes	No	Unk	No Reply
Are you familiar with your organizations' management development program?	27	6		1
Does your organization have any kind of management development program?	23	10	1	
Is there any kind of program or effort to identify potential managers?	14	16	4	
Is a needs assessment done to determine the best training for the student prior to training?	11	15	7	
Does your organization offer management development prior to being selected as a manager?	12	20	1	1
Does your organization offer management development immediately after taking over the position?	14	12	3	5
Does your organization offer management development anytime after assuming managerial responsibilities?	22	8	4	
Do you feel that upper management provides adequate resources to management development?	13	21		
Does upper management advocate a self-development program?	21	8	5	
Do you feel that your organizations' management development program needs improvement?	28	6		
Did you receive management training immediately after selection?	11	23		

TABLE II (Continued)

Question	Yes	No	Unk	No Reply
Did you receive any management training anytime after you assumed managerial responsibilities?	21	13		
Are you satisfied with the management training you received?	18	16		
Do you feel that you need more management development?	20	13		1

Significant findings also resulted from the use of multiple selection and "what kind" questions. These items provided the opportunity for the managers to qualify some of their Yes/No and multiple selection responses. There also was an opportunity to provide any additional comments on question or topic.

Responses to the questions concerning types of management development programs/training offered, whether prior to, immediately after, or anything after assuming managerial responsibilities, provided a wide variety of programs as outlined in Table III below.

TABLE III

MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS OFFERED PRIOR TO,

IMMEDIATELY AFTER, OR ANYTIME AFTER ASSUMING MANAGERIAL

RESPONSIBILITIES

Types of Program	Number of Times Mentioned
Executive Development	2
Office of Personnel Management	4
Career Development	1
Southern Police Institute	3

TABLE III (Continued)

Types of Program	Number of Times Mentioned
FBI National Academy	6
Command School - Assessment Center Process	5
Skills Improvement of Current and Potential Managers	1
Various schools and seminars	16
Prep school for Senior Corporal	1
Classroom training	1
Police Management Classes	6
Basic Supervision School	16
Law Enforcement Academies	5
Colleges	3
Airborne Law Enforcement Association Seminars	1

Responses to the question concerning the length of the management development program at their respective organizations were consistently in the uninformed or unknown arena. Table IV shows the breakdown of responses for each answer category.

TABLE IV

HOW LONG IS THE MANAGEMENT

DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM AT YOUR ORGANIZATION

Several days	9
Several weeks	6
Several months	5
Unknown	11
Did not answer	3

Responses to the question concerning upper management's support towards management development in the respective organization is outlined in Table V on the next page.

TABLE V

UPPER MANAGEMENT'S SUPPORT TOWARD MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT

Supports highly	6
Supports adequately	12
Supports marginally	15
Does not support	1

Responses to the question concerning the kind of training felt to be most beneficial to the respondent resulted in a wide variety of training that is available or requested. These responses are outlined in Table VI below.

TABLE VI

KIND OF TRAINING YOU FEEL MOST BENEFICIAL

In-house	6
Outside	11
University-based	13
On-the-job	8
Self-development	4
All of the above	2

In the space provided on the questionnaire for additional comments most were left blank. But four individuals took the time to make comments on areas that they had deep feelings about. Each of the four have separate and distinct subjects that they felt strong enough to take the time to express. All four are elaborated on below, and all four respondents are from four different levels within the aviation law enforcement sector.

One respondent was a senior management official at a local central United States police department. This respondent expressed a negative image of the management development program for that department

throughout the questionnaire. A sign of hope for a better future towards management development programs for that department was expressed by stating that a complete change in the entire command staff had just occurred and that the respondent felt that the new command will be more responsive towards management development.

The second respondent was a chief pilot at a local central United States sheriff's department. This respondent also expressed frustration with negative responses to the questionnaire. What little training received was expressed as bare minimum. This respondent · explained the situation and future as follows: "Most information received for starting, managing and maintaining a small air unit has come from other agencies operating air units through seminars and conventions offered by industry related associations. In other words, asking a lot of questions from a lot of different people, i.e. Federal Aviation Administration, Aircraft Manufacturers, Mechanics, other pilots, etc. Other than assistance from the department for attending seminars, conventions, etc., no formal management training is provided. In addition, there is no budgeted amount of funds for operations and are predominately relying on grants, donations, seizures, and government surplus equipment for continued operations."

The third respondent was a chief pilot at a southern state police agency. This respondent had mixed responses toward adequate training provided but no support from upper management. This individual expressed a concern that was expressed in the background literature review and is still expressed today. This respondent is concerned with what is taught at some management development programs is not always practiced as a matter of doing business.

The fourth respondent was an aviation coordinator for a Federal agency in Washington, D. C. Although the respondent received training prior, immediately after, and even later, concern was expressed over content and philosophy. The question concerning the kind of training you feel most beneficial sent this individual into a state that required detailed explanation of the problems, of the choices available and the perceived solution. In order to sense the full feeling of the answer, it is recounted here exactly. The five choices to question the kinds of training felt most beneficial were:

1. In-House

2. Outside

3. University-based

4. On-the-job

5. Self-development

The individual responded with:

6. Structured law enforcement based outside training*

Here is the explanation provided by the asterisk:

"1. In-house training normally is self-serving, designed to retain the status quo. This type of training strongly follows the Peter Principle Rule.

2. Outside, or Outhouse training is normally brought forward by a "vendor" wishing to make "money". The selection process of this "vendor" is done by the status quo seekers, i.e. "more better" Peter Principle.

3. University based training is normally structured classroom training given by those who did not wish to compete in industry and opted to teach rather than practice. This type

of training is normally 3-5 years behind industry and develops the head-in-the-sand, make no waves philosophy of management.

4. On-the-job based training is good if the trainer is not a we against them (management against employees). This type of training must be open, imaginative, and changeable.

5. Self-development is also good but normally follows the likes of the individual seeking the service. Similar to a lawyer representing his/her own case or a doctor healing themselves. This type of training normally leads to disaster.

A selection 6 is added.

6. Self critique and employee rating. Allows your employees to rate you as a supervisor and you also rate yourself. Find the weak areas, we all have them, and seek outside training/development in these areas.

    A - Never accept the "Status-quo".

    B - Make waves to see that the tide will still flow.

    C - Be open to new ideas.

    D - If it (ain't) is not fun anymore - stop doing it. Enjoy what you do!

    E - Be open, self-criticizing, and willing to listen. The answers are available."

Discussion of Findings

Significant subjective findings include common recurring perspectives of the management training programs within the aviation industry as expressed by the managers who responded. They include the

acknowledgement of the existence and knowledge of management develop-ment programs. Also, the lack of support of management development programs as well as little or no identification of potential managers and their training needs. There is also the overwhelming feeling of dissatisfaction of the management training received.

The primary issue which should be addressed, according to many of the respondents, is the failure of upper management to provide adequate resources towards management development. Secondly, it is believed that upper management advocates a self-development type of program. While management training programs are in existence, there appears to be lack of confidence in content and availability.

The study has resulted in many diverse findings. Aviation managers perceive that a management development program is in existence and is made available to all throughout the organization. This was the predominant feedback throughout the questionnaires. Information in Table II, first three questions, shows that the respondents answered yes to these questions - 59% to the questions concerning information available concerning management development programs, 79% to the question concerning being familiar with the management development program, and 68% to the question concerning does your organization have a management development program. These positive answers resulted in an overall percentage of 68.6%. In applying this finding to the subjective opinions expressed by the respondents concerning avail-ability of the program prior to or immediately after selection to a management position, the majority (59% of the 34 who responded to this question) did not receive any training prior to promotion and only 41% of the respondents had received training immediately after promotion to

manager. Conversely, 65% of the respondents did receive training after being in the position for several years.

A majority of respondents suggested that they were satisfied with the management training received (53%). Conversely 82% of the respondents advised that their organization's management development program needs improvement. Through comments recorded throughout this study, this high rating in both areas could be attributed to the fact that the managers liked the training that they received. Yet, as students participating in these management training programs, they did not receive enough training and received it after some period of time in which it really should have occurred.

In the area of identification of potential managers within their respective organizations, the majority (16 of the 34 respondents - 4 unknown responses), felt that little or no effort towards identification of potential managers exists and another 12% of the respondents have no idea if such a program exists. In addition to this, 44% (15 out of 34, with 7 unknown) of the respondents suggest that no needs assessments are done to determine the best training for the potential manager prior to the training. Another 21% have no knowledge if such an activity takes place. What this implies is that what management training program that does exists is for those who have already been promoted into the managerial position and actual training does not occur until after assuming the managerial responsibilities. There is no real effort to identify potential managers or their needs.

In responding to the support by upper management, 62% felt that upper management does not provide adequate resources (funding, materials, time, etc.) towards management development. In addition,

the majority of the respondents stated that they would describe upper managements support towards management development as "supports marginally". When asked, how long is the management development program at your respective organization, the majority (58%) stated from only several days to unknown how long! Based on these response rates, it confirms the idea that some organizations are disengaged from (if not mildly contemptuous of) the management development effort. They will assert that management development is important and deserves high priority. But were you to observe what they actually do on a regular basis, as exemplified from this questionnaire, you would find that management development is low in their hierarchy of important objectives - somewhere around the level of "I'll get to it when I can".

When questioned about whether or not the respondent was satisfied with the management training received, 53% answered yes. This is not to be confused with the fact that when polled about whether or not the respondent needed more management development, 59% answered yes. Even though they were pleased with what training was made available, they still felt that more was needed. When asked what kind of training they would like to have and felt would be most beneficial, the top two responses were university-based and outside professional training.

The final research objective was to determine the attitude of the aviation industry manager towards management development and education. The responses to the questions in the questionnaire concerning their attitude towards management development clearly indicates a desire and a need for management development. Based on the comments written in addition to the yes/no answers the respondents are frustrated with what little programs are available and want a more comprehensive program.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study has attempted to gain insight from the law enforcement aviation community and associated private industry about the role of the aviation community in meeting the managerial development needs for today's managers as well as tomorrows. Information gathered through this study should allow the law enforcement aviation community, associated private industry, and other participants in aviation management development to better understand the needs of aviation managers and the programs to assist them. Such information should also be useful to the aviation industry as a whole for analysis of the impact of the lack of a comprehensive management development program. Recommendations for further research into the future managerial potential for the aviation industry and its associated law enforcement sector are presented.

Summary

This study was compiled around three primary research objectives. They were (1) to identify the aviation managers' perspectives in meeting of the managerial development needs of the aviation industry, (2) to discover the needs, ideas, and opinions of aviation managers on how to make the management development program more effective, and (3)to evaluate the current status of implementation or the management development program as a whole for the law enforcement aviation sector.

The problem on which this study has focused arises from the fact that over the last 30 years or so, the aviation industry as a whole has realized the need for an in-depth training program prior to certifying pilots and allowing them to operate the type of aircraft they will fly. The primary reason for this requirement has been to assure that pilots have the knowledge and ability to perform the required tasks that come from flying sophisticated complex aircraft. Another important reason is for safety. Common sense dictates that you do not allow anyone to fly an aircraft without training which instructs them in all of the required activities needed to safely operate an aircraft. Little attention, if any at all, has been paid to establishing a similar training program that applies to the manager's role and responsibility. Therefore, this apparent lack of support for a management development program and its consequences for participating organizations forms the basis of this study to measure the current attitudes and perceptions of the aviation managers of today. Considerations of the needs, ideas, and opinions of the aviation managers at various organizations should allow the Aviation Industry and the Law Enforcement Aviation Sector to develop a more effective management development program.

Through a review of available literature it was discovered that in the last 30 years that much emphasis has been placed on the development education for managers in general. The major limitations which tend to impair the effectiveness of much of the current manager education and development effort appear to be: The limitations of attitude, time, resources, educational content and method. Efforts to help managers develop their knowledge, attitudes, and skills often fail. There are many reasons. One reason, and not always obvious, that a management

development effort fails is a lack of any orderly, logical, formalized system of management into which it can fit.

Despite considerable recent attention to the topic, management development may still be one of the most ill-defined and variously interpreted concepts in the management literature. The utility of management education, training, and experience still remains more an article of faith rather than an empirical fact. If we are to progress in our knowledge and understanding of how to effectively develop managers, considerable more attention must be devoted to this most fundamental of issues.

Data were gathered from the randomly picked aviation managers in each selected organization within the law enforcement sector in the aviation industry (n=100). The instrument requested data concerning the current perceived status of the management development program and allowed an opportunity to suggest recommended changes for improvement in the program. It also provided for the collection of objective data on the program which allowed an overall understanding of its effect within the development of aviation education. Data were collected through the utilization of a structured questionnaire. Participants in the study were assured confidentiality.

The development of the questionnaire was carried out through the use of a multi-step development and validation process. Research professionals from several fields participated in the development of the questionnaire. The pilot group included representations from the Customs National Aviation Center, an instructor in management development courses, an attorney within the aviation field, and the former director of an Aviation Operations Center with the U. S. Customs

Aviation Program. Aviation program directors outside of the survey response group provided a pilot group to evaluate the usability of the questionnaire.

Conclusions

In conclusion:

1. The aviation managers feel that the management development program is extremely important to the future of the organizations survival. They also feel that it is valuable to the overall aviation industry. The managers reported throughout the questionnaire that the individual organizations and the aviation industry need to define and implement a definitive management development program.

2. The most commonly recurring criticism of the management development program in the respective organization was the lack of support from upper management towards commitment to a management development program or its application of existing programs. Much of the concern stemmed from the fact that there was no kind of program to identify potential managers, no needs assessments conducted to determine needed training, not enough resources devoted to management development, and the overwhelming feeling that the management development program needs improvement. Therefore, the organizations themselves as well as the aviation industry must act on this vital issue before the perceptions of the managers toward the management development programs will improve.

3. Training and/or curriculum from outside the organization was viewed as the preferred method of training by the respondent group. The respondents' comments indicated that training from within the organization, whether in-house, on-the-job or contracted privately with

emphasis on the organizations personal views, was self-serving, limited in availability and antiquated to the point that what is taught and learned is of no use or outdated when applied in the field.

4. The current management development programs are not responsive to the needs of the managers. While the majority of the respondents answered yes for their organization having a management development program, this same majority did not receive training prior to the selection of manager and did not receive training immediately after selection to a management position. Only after assuming managerial responsibilities for a while did the majority receive training of any kind.

5. It appears that organizations have established management development program for the sake of developing upper managers within the organization. No commitment by the organization is apparent until after you become a manager and the majority of the organizations emphasize a self-development type program.

6. Throughout the research and review of the literature, it was observed that the information available on management development through educational institutions and other training facilities deals with management development based on organizations whose purpose is to be profitable. Since law enforcement agencies and their aviation units are not profit making organizations, their management development needs are unique and need to be tailored as such.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study it is recommended:

1.   The individual Aviation organizations should conduct internal studies within themselves to evaluate the management development program concept and determine if the current program needs redesign or a program needs to be instituted where none exist. Alternatively, they may discover a need to reevaluate the true commitment currently practiced by the organization.

2.   If the respective aviation organizations plan to continue the management development program, it should act immediately to meet the perceived weaknesses in the program. These weaknesses include identification of potential managers, needs assessments of these potential managers, and a training program prior to selection and assumption of managerial responsibilities.

3.   Both the individual aviation organizations and the aviation industry should develop a uniform training program/standards for managers parallel to the Federal Aviation Administration requirements for pilots.

4.   The management development program should become more responsive to the participants needs. Further research should be conducted to evaluate the needs of which potential managers have in pursuing managerial careers in industry or in higher education.

5.   A study of the overall aviation industry managerial work force training should be conducted. This could be utilized to develop the managerial development program into a program which would be beneficial to the individual, the organization itself, and the overall aviation industry.

6.   A follow-up study of both managers and organizations currently operating a management development program should be made. This study

should include as a primary objective the responsiveness of the organizations to meeting the needs of aviation managers in management development.

7.   Management development/training programs need to be tailored to the unique managerial needs for the non-profit making law enforcement agencies and their aviation units.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR DOCTORAL STUDY
MANAGERIAL NEEDS WITHIN THE AVIATION COMMUNITY

    The following questionnaire has been developed to gather data
concerning the development of of managers either prior to selection,
immediately after selection, or anytime after assuming managerial
responsibilities. Your frank responses are appreciated.

Name of
Organization:_____

Address of
Organization:_____

             _____

Current position:_____

Number of years in management:_____

Please circle your answer and provide any additional comments you feel
necessary.

1. Is information concerning a management development program made
    available to all those who are interested in it?

    A. Yes
    B. No
    C. Unknown

2. Are you familiar with your organizations' management development
    program?

    A. Yes
    B. No

3. Does your organization have any kind of management development
    program?

    A. Yes
    B. No
    C. Unknown
    If yes, what kind?_____

4. Is there any kind of program or effort to identify potential managers?

   A. Yes
   B. No
   C. Unknown

5. Is a needs assessment done to determine the best training for the student prior to the training?

   A. Yes
   B. No
   C. Unknown

6. Does your organization offer management development prior to being selected as a manager?

   A. Yes
   B. No
   C. Unknown

   If yes, what kind?_____

7. Does your organization offer management development immediately after taking over the position?

   A. Yes
   B. No
   C. Unknown

   If yes, what kind?_____

8. Does your organization offer management development anytime after assuming managerial responsibilities?

   A. Yes
   B. No
   C. Unknown

9. If you have a management development program at your organization, how long is it?

   A. Several days
   B. Several weeks
   C. Several months
   D. Unknown

10. Do you feel that upper management provides adequate resources (funding, materials, time, etc.) to management development?

    A. Yes
    B. No

11. Does upper management advocate a self-development type program?

   A. Yes
   B. No
   C. Unknown

12. Do you feel that your organizations' management development program needs improvement?

   A. Yes
   B. No

13. How would you describe upper managements' support to management development?

   A. Supports highly
   B. Supports adequately
   C. Supports marginally
   D. Does not support

14. How many years have you been in a managerial position?

   A. Less than 1 year
   B. 1 to 3 years
   C. More than 3 years

15. Did you receive management training prior to your selection?

   A. Yes
   B. No

16. Did you receive management training immediately after selection?

   A. Yes
   B. No

17. Did you receive any management training anytime after you assumed managerial responsibilities?

   A. Yes
   B. No

18. Are you satisfied with the management training you received?

   A. Yes
   B. No

19. What kind of training do you feel most beneficial?

   A. In-house
   B. Outside
   C. University-based
   D. On-the-job
   E. Self-development

20. Do you feel that you need more management development?

   A. Yes
   B. No

   If yes, what kind?_____

If you have any additional comments, please use the space below.

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire and returning it timely.

APPENDIX B

COVER LETTER

August 10, 1992

To Whom It May Concern:

My name is Robert S. Jones, Jr. I am employed with the U. S. Customs Service as an Aviation Group Supervisor. I am also independently working on my Doctoral study concerning managerial needs within the aviation community. As an aviation manager, I am concerned with the development of the aviation manager and his/her impact on the aviation community.

The attached questionnaire has been developed to gather data concerning the development of managers prior to selection, immediately after selection, or anytime after assuming managerial responsibilities. It is an effort to determine the state of managerial preparedness of the individual upon entering into the position and how committed the aviation community is as a whole in promoting and participating in the development of aviation managers.

I am asking that you take a few minutes to complete this questionnaire, be as frank as possible in your answers, and return it to me in the self-addressed, stamped envelope provided. I would like to assure you that your responses will be kept in the strictest confidence. I would appreciate it if you could return the questionnaire to me within three weeks of receiving it.

I would like to thank you in advance for taking the time to complete the questionnaire and participating in my Doctoral studies.

Sincerely,

Robert S. Jones, Jr.

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VITA

Robert S. Jones, Jr.

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: MANAGERIAL NEEDS WITHIN THE AVIATION COMMUNITY

Major Field: Higher Education

Area of Specialization: Aviation Education

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Pulaski, Virginia, November 18, 1954, the
    son of Robert S. and Mary E. Jones. Wife: Margie.
    Children: Stepson - Jon, daughter - Shaina.

Education: Graduated from South Broward High School, Hollywood,
    Florida, in June 1972; received Associate of Science Degree
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    Lauderdale, Florida, in June 1974; received Bachelor of
    Science Degree in Criminal Justice from Florida International
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    Science Degree in Criminal Justice Administration from the
    Nova University in Fort Lauderdale, Florida, in 1982;
    completed requirements for the Doctor of Education Degree at
    Oklahoma State University in December 1993.

Professional Experience: Aviation Group Supervisor at the U. S.
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    Texas, since December 1991, Chief Aviation Surveillance
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    Center, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, from August 1987 to December
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    1993 to August 1987; Air Officer, U. S. Customs Service,
    Miami Aviation Operation Branch, Homestead AFB, Florida, from
    March 1982 to November 1983; past Federal and local law
    enforcement officer positions 1969 - 1982.

Professional Organizations: Airborne Law Enforcement Association,
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