Styles of Interpersonal Communication in Clinical Supervision

Author's Note

In this chapter we emphasize two fundamental personal styles: direct and indirect. They have been applied to many studies of teaching, supervising, and other forms of interpersonal communication. There are numerous other ways to categorize personal styles. We mention some of them. What we supervisors and observers say to teachers is certainly important. How we say it is probably more important.

Think of doctors, dentists, counselors, teachers, administrators, parents, and others you have known. Some may have been very competent or skillful but you didn't look forward (with pleasure) to interacting with them. Others had flaws you were willing to overlook because you believed you would gain something from being with them. Our effectiveness as supervisors, peer consultants, mentors, or colleagues can be enhanced by recognizing that we are not all the same in how we perceive what is going on.

A recent "popular" book by a talented writer is titled *What Really Matters* (Schwartz, 1995).[1] It looks at a number of organized activities that are based on differing theories and practices that explore ways to think about how our personal style interacts with someone else.

We do not choose one system for analyzing styles over all others. We do not recommend trying to change your style that took a long time to develop. We do recommend that you respect others' styles that also took a long time to develop.

In the past decade there has been much progress made in research pertaining to personality styles or traits. Over two decades and four previous publications, we have been aware of the work done by Bales,[2] Cattell,[3] Murray and Rorschach,[4] Flanders,[5] Blumberg,[6] Hersey and Blanchard,[7] Gregorc,[8] Myers-Briggs,[9] Kiersey and Bates,[10] Kiersey[11] and many others who have studied how personality styles and interaction styles affect what can happen when observers give feedback to those they observe.

Some of the most intriguing findings in these fields of investigation have resulted in the Five-Factor Model or Big 5. The names of these factors are extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, openness to experience, and emotional stability. A colleague at

the University of Oregon, Lewis R. Goldberg,[12] has been a prominent researcher and writer in this field for many years.

—KAA

Take my advice: don't give advice.
—Anonymous

INTRODUCTION

The techniques in the chapter on feedback conferences can be used by any supervisor or peer observer who has systematically collected observational data to analyze with a teacher or colleague. How the data are interpreted and what decisions are reached will depend to a considerable extent on the supervisor's or consultant's style. Styles of consultation can be described in many ways. A common distinction is direct versus indirect styles.

Ned Flanders differentiates direct teaching styles (i.e., lecturing, directing, criticizing) from indirect styles (i.e., accepting feelings, encouraging, acknowledging, using student ideas). Arthur Blumberg uses similar categories for supervisor behavior and has gathered some evidence that teachers prefer an indirect style of supervision. The direct and indirect behaviors an observer may record in a classroom can also be noted in a conference. They can be placed on a continuum, though no scale is intended. They are: expressing and accepting feelings; praising, acknowledging and using others' ideas, asking questions; lecturing or otherwise engaging in monologue; directing; criticizing, even antagonizing.

Another range of possible conference behaviors on the teacher's part can be constructed using the work of Robert Spaulding.[13] His words that follow can be used to classify the behavior of young children in the classroom: escape, withdraw, respond to internal stimuli, respond to external stimuli, seek help, transact, share, self-direct, and attend. For an adult who is writing a term paper (or revising a book) the list can be read from right to left as predictable behaviors. Think of them as "coping" behaviors that one may also use to survive a one-on-one conference.

The behavior of either conferee can be described with labels used by Everett Shostrom.[14] His words are: warm, sensitive, dependent, supportive, controlling, critical, strong, aggressive. These characteristics can be translated into verbs that describe a range of verbal behavior the supervisor or teacher can employ: care, guide, appreciate, empathize, respect, express, lead, and assert.

One can also view the observer's actions as aversive (dominating, punishing) or supportive (approving, receptive). Setting limits and setting goals are actions that usually lie between these extremes but can be pushed toward one end or the other.

Although teachers indicate a preference for observers who emphasize the supportive, caring style, these are not the only appropriate behaviors for an observer. Doing something aversive (e.g., when a parent prevents a child from playing on the highway) may indicate a caring style at times.

In the past decade, words such as those used above plus several thousand others that could describe personality traits or factors have been subjected to sophisticated factor

analysis. The result is a surprising consensus among scientists who study human personality. The Five-Factor Model, or Big 5 comprise E, extraversion (surgence), C, conscientiousness, A, agreeableness, O, openness to experience (intellect), and N, emotional stability (low neuroticism).

This chapter recommends several techniques usually regarded as indirect, but direct observers also can use them. Indeed, they should be used when persuasive data are shared. The techniques are concerned with listening, acknowledging, clarifying, encouraging, guiding (rather than directing), supporting, and dealing with feelings. The techniques that follow are especially useful for consultants who want conferences to be "teacher-centered." Whether an observer's essential style is direct or indirect, self-centered or teacher-centered, O, C, E, A, or N,[15] these techniques can be used to improve the quality of interaction between the conferees.

Before leaving our consideration of what has been learned about personal styles and interpersonal styles in the recent past we need to recognize some older systems with a history worth recognition in respect to this chapter. The California Personality Inventory (CPI, Gough, 1972)[16] was a factor in a study of direct and indirect styles of supervision (Acheson, 1964).[17] The sixteen category classification of Cattell entered our work in the 1970s when workshop participants were asked, "What kind of supervisor would you choose?" What they told us was that they wanted a supervisor who was fairly intelligent but not too much smarter than the supervisee. They preferred someone who was very trusting but not gullible, self-assured but not overbearing, calm but not phlegmatic.

During the life of our book other, older systems have taken on new meaning. The Enneagram, as described by Riso (1990),[18] Palmer (1995),[19] and others, has had considerable impact. Another "old" system (Jung, 1976),[20] as interpreted by Myers-Briggs (2000) has had wide use in industry and other endeavors. Interesting melds of these systems are appearing in the literature and on the Internet. They can increase our understanding of what goes on beneath our defensive behaviors and also our efforts toward growth.

COMMUNICATION TECHNIQUE 1: LISTEN MORE, TALK LESS

Many observers dominate the conversation. The teacher has little chance to identify goals and objectives, analyze and interpret information, or reach decisions about future actions. Teachers talk to students (on average) about two-thirds of the time they teach, and (we suspect) observers talk in about the same proportion to teachers. The exact ratio varies, but too many observers do most of the talking. It is difficult to attend to a teacher's concerns in a conference or encourage a teacher's plans for improvement when the observer monopolizes the conference. Avoid this tendency when applying the techniques in the remainder of this chapter.

COMMUNICATION TECHNIQUE 2: ACKNOWLEDGE, PARAPHRASE, AND USE WHAT THE TEACHER IS SAYING

Observers who insert an "I understand" or "I know what you mean" in the course of a teacher's conversation indicate that they are listening. Accurate paraphrases also show that they understand the teacher. Using the teacher's ideas can be even more convincing than merely acknowledging (hearing) or paraphrasing (comprehending) them. Applying an

idea to a different situation is but one example; pointing to a logical consequence is another. Paraphrasing can be overdone if too many responses are similar, or if they are inappropriately placed. For example, if a teacher says, "The car was going 60 miles an hour," it doesn't contribute much to respond, "What you are saying is that the automobile was traveling a mile a minute." An effective paraphrase must be a genuine effort to communicate that we understand what the other person is getting at. Using the teacher's idea shows that the observer heard, understood, and is pursuing the thought. Of course, it can be pursued so far that it ceases to be the teacher's idea and becomes the observer's. Generally, however, having a person you respect use your idea is rewarding.

COMMUNICATION TECHNIQUE 3: ASK CLARIFYING QUESTIONS

The teacher's statements often need to be probed to clarify the observer's understanding and to get the teacher to think carefully about inferences and decisions. "Tell me what you mean by that" or "Can you say a little more about that?" are examples. So is "What would you accept as evidence that. . . ."

In many instances, if we do not clarify, miscommunication is the result. Occasionally someone will say, "You're absolutely right! Moreover," and then the person proceeds to say the exact opposite of what you thought you said. Of course, that could be a conscious strategy or a case of not listening at all, but a clarifying question avoids unintentional misunderstandings.

An example of paraphrasing and asking clarifying questions took place in a high school where the principal gave the faculty an administrator appraisal form to fill out anonymously. After analyzing the compiled responses, the principal said in a faculty meeting, "What you seem to be telling me in this survey is that I'm not as accessible as you would like." Several teachers said, almost in unison, "Could you tell us what 'being accessible' would look like?" To which the principal replied: "Well, I'd keep my door open more and welcome 'drop-in' chats. And if you stopped me in the hall and asked a question, I'd try to answer it briefly instead of pointing out that I was on my way to a meeting."

Having announced and clarified his intentions in public, he was destined to become "Mr. Accessible" in the next few months. Of course he had some help from wags on the faculty who could not resist asking, "Are you feeling accessible?"

Several points can be made with this example: (1) the paraphrase translated a statistic into flesh-and-blood behavior; (2) the clarifying question checked the perceptions of the subject and his observers; and (3) the public announcement of a resolution to change virtually ensured success. The same process takes place in the feedback conference. Note that the principal had objective data, analyzed and interpreted the data, made a decision, made use of paraphrasing and clarifying questions, and received verbal support in his resolve to change. These are exactly the steps we should follow in helping teachers improve their teaching.

COMMUNICATION TECHNIQUE 4: GIVE SPECIFIC PRAISE FOR TEACHER PERFORMANCE AND GROWTH

To say "That was a nice lesson" is not specific praise. Saying "That was an excellent answer you gave to Billy" or "Removing Fred from the group was an effective way to handle the problem" makes the approval explicit. It is especially important to note positive instances where the teacher has shown growth toward an avowed goal.

There is some possibility that an observer will reinforce more than was bargained for. A workshop leader received this comment from a participant on the postworkshop evaluation: "Stopping the tape recording to explain what was happening was really helpful." So the leader stopped the tape about twenty times during their next workshop, until someone sent this note: "Why don't you let the tape play long enough for us to hear what's going on?"

Again, an elderly lady who had never eaten apple pie remarked that when she was a girl, she turned down her first opportunity to do so and gained considerable attention: "Imagine that! Carrie doesn't eat apple pie." The attention was such that in subsequent situations, she felt compelled to continue her refusal, although she confessed, "I always thought I might have liked it."

Yet in our experience, the possibility of too little reinforcement for teachers is much more likely than too much. Teaching often seems a thankless task to those who toil in the schools of our nation. They seldom lack critics, however.

COMMUNICATION TECHNIQUE 5: AVOID GIVING DIRECT ADVICE

This does not say never give direct advice, just wait a while. Let teachers analyze and interpret. Often the decisions they reach will be very similar to yours. For most teachers, having their ideas for change reinforced by someone they respect is more likely to produce results than having to carry out someone else's idea. On the other hand, there are times when it is better to say what we think rather than let indirectness become manipulative.

Some people are naturally compliant, submissive, and obedient; perhaps they enjoy being told what to do. Nevertheless, our experience with teachers indicates that most of them prefer to feel responsible for their own actions. People who choose teaching as a career expect to be in charge of their classes; they expect to make professional decisions about goals, subject matter, materials, methodology, evaluation, and other aspects of the educational process.

The line between "guided discovery" and "manipulation" is a fine one. The observer must decide when "Here's the way it looks to me" is preferable to making the teacher feel that guessing games are being played.

COMMUNICATION TECHNIQUE 6: PROVIDE VERBAL SUPPORT

The emphasis of the observer is on helping the teacher identify professional goals relating to classroom performance, then obtaining valid feedback to assist in reaching those goals. It is often difficult for teachers to separate personal goals from professional goals, and it is especially difficult to separate emotional problems from professional ones. Many of the problems administrators identify as deterrents to instructional improvement by their teachers have their basis in personal aspects of the teacher's life—for example, apathy, lack of organization, or emotional instability in the classroom.

It would be convenient if we could exclude personal problems from a discussion of techniques to use in conducting conferences, but they often enter the discussion despite all efforts to stay on a professional level. Most observers have had the experience of a teacher

crying at some point in a conference. Analyzing behavior is an intensely personal process that often defies a scientific or cold-blooded approach.

Hence, we need ways of dealing with these situations as they arise. It does not seem reasonable for an observer to be in tears along with the teacher, yet some expression of sympathy or empathy is in order. If the problems seem to be medical or psychiatric, the course of action is clear: seek help by referring the teacher to an appropriate specialist. Ordinary teacher observers and school administrators are not competent to make medical diagnoses ("He's an alcoholic" or "She's mentally ill"), and it is definitely not advisable for them to attempt psychiatric therapy or psychological counseling without the necessary special training and experience. Even teachers in medical schools and their observers (about teaching) shy away from diagnosing outside their specialty.

On the other hand, if the problem does not seem to require specialized, professional, medical, or psychiatric treatment, a sympathetic listener can often help a person work through a problem. In a previous edition, we quoted a university student: "You're the first one around here who has helped me!" This student had sought aid from several advisers in solving a personal problem. One faculty member took the time to listen to the particulars, then said, "It seems to me you've identified several possible alternatives. You could drop out of school and work full-time for a while, or you could take a reduced load and work part-time; and you also need to decide whether to get married now or wait." With his own alternatives outlined, the student said, "I see now what I need to do. Thank you." (He did not share his decision with the professor.)

Client-centered counseling doesn't always work out as quickly or as well, but for a number of reasons it may be an appropriate strategy for consultation with a teacher. The observer does not necessarily know more about teaching biology, kindergarten, French, or physics than the teacher; is probably not aware of as many factors in this particular classroom situation as the teacher; does not expect to spend the rest of the term, year, or career in this teacher's classroom; and will probably rely on the teacher to do most of the follow-up decisions. It is within the domain of the observer to consider what the teacher says about personal problems in the light of how they pertain to performance in the classroom.

The level of trust the two people have established is a major variable in how helpful an observer can be to a teacher with a personal problem that may be interfering with classroom effectiveness. Several factors influence trust building. We tend to trust those who trust us. We tend to trust those whose competence we respect. One way to build a teacher's confidence in our competence as observers is to demonstrate our ability to provide useful feedback and to conduct productive conferences.

In some cases, an observer needs to take full charge of the dealings with certain teachers: selecting what kinds of data will be collected and then analyzing and interpreting that information, drawing conclusions about which goals are being met and which are not, and deciding what needs to be done in the future. At the other extreme, an observer may encourage some teachers to set their own goals, select appropriate information to use in assessing the achievement of those goals, and make decisions about future efforts. As pedagogical strategies, these approaches are either didactic or heuristic. How much structure observers provide for a conference will depend on their estimate of what kind of atmosphere will provide maximum potential for the growth of a particular teacher. We have found that when teachers are given a choice of observers some choose one they know to be quite direct whereas others prefer one who tends to be indirect. Teachers who prefer

the direct approach may say, "I know where she stands" or "He tells it like it is" or "I'm tired of people 'bouncing everything off the wall.'" Those who like an indirect style may say, "I feel more comfortable with Mary; she doesn't act like she has all the answers" or "Fred helps me do my own thinking and treats me like a colleague" or "I've had enough of the 'hardsell' approach."

The classroom observer is often cast in a double role: as a colleague helping to improve instruction and as an evaluator. It is sometimes awkward to deal with these two functions simultaneously. For example, to say "I'll devote the first few visits to helping you improve and save the evaluating until later" does not reassure the teacher, nor can the observer forget what has been seen. With teachers who are doing reasonably well, this need not be a problem: "I'm expecting to write a favorable evaluation anyway, so let's concentrate on some areas you'd like to work on" is one approach. Teachers on the borderline deserve to be informed of this fact, but the conference can still be positive and productive. Fair dismissal procedures also require that teachers be given early notice of deficiencies and assistance in attempting to overcome them.

In a few cases, the teacher may be in an "intensive evaluation" situation. (Some school districts encourage such a teacher to have an attorney or teachers' organization representative in attendance at any conferences with an evaluator.) Obviously, the tone of the conference will be different in the intensive case. Yet observers do not have to turn from Jekyll into Hyde. A skillful parent serves as both counselor and disciplinarian and can do so in a consistent style. Observers, too, should be able to fulfill both aspects of their role skillfully.

Dissonance theory provides a rationale for changing teachers' classroom behavior through observational feedback and teacher-centered conferences. The writings of Leon Festinger,[21] Fritz Heider, and others supply powerful insights into the dynamics of what Robert Burns expressed in poetic form as the gift of seeing ourselves as others see us. We each have an externally perceived self and an internally perceived self. We develop discomfort when we become aware of a discrepancy between what we believe to be "the real me" and what "the perceived me" seems to be doing in the eyes of others or in the information collected through systematic observation. For example, a teacher who believes that teachers should smile a lot feels that he smiles a lot; if he views videotapes of himself that show no smiles, he has dissonance. This dissonance can be reduced in several ways, such as

1. "The videotape is wrong."
2. "It was a bad day, I was nervous."
3. "It isn't really that important to smile so often."

In other words, he can (1) deny the information, (2) reduce the importance of the information, or (3) reduce the importance of the behavior. Another possibility is that he can resolve to make the perceived self more like the "real" or ideal self. That requires changing his behavior.

The goal of supervision for instructional improvement is to get teachers to change their behavior in ways that both they and their supervisors regard as desirable. In some cases only the observer (and not the teacher) sees a suggested change as desirable. Now the observer experiences dissonance. Among the options for reducing this dissonance are the following:

1. "You'll do it my way, or I'll send you to Siberia."
2. "Let's look at some more data about what is happening."
3. "Let's work on something you are concerned about."

In other words, the observer may (1) reduce dissonance by forcing compliance from the teacher, or (2) and (3) attempt to achieve consonance through increased understanding of what is on the teacher's mind.

There are times when it is necessary to force teacher compliance to the observer's demand—for example, when laws or official school policies are at stake. Most problems that observers and teachers work on are not that clear-cut. They concern ways of dealing with students; choosing strategies for teaching certain concepts, skills, or facts; finding alternative ways of managing the many variables in teaching; selecting elements of teaching style that can be modified by the teacher through the use of feedback, practice, and experimentation. It is unlikely that a teacher can eliminate a fundamental personality characteristic, such as dominance, emotional stability, or empathy. Nevertheless, a teacher can learn to use strategies that reduce the tendency to dominate or can develop classroom management techniques that reduce emotional stress. Some outward and visible signs of empathy can be observed, practiced, and incorporated into a teacher's repertoire without resorting to psychiatric therapy or profound religious conversion. Most people who choose teaching as a career have basic qualities that are compatible with the requirements of the job; systematic feedback can inform and convince those who do not.

COMMUNICATION TECHNIQUE 7: ACKNOWLEDGE AND USE WHAT THE PERSON IS FEELING

Carl Rogers reminds us that when a child attempts to do something difficult and says, "I can't," a typical parental response is, "Of course you can!"[22] The response is intended to be positive, but it denies feelings. It might not hurt to say, "It is difficult, isn't it, but you'll get it."

Researchers have found that feelings are seldom acknowledged verbally in the classroom.[23] The occurrence in conferences is less well documented, but we suspect that it is unduly limited. When the goal is to change behavior, affective aspects cannot be ignored. The emotions that can be expressed in a conference range from rage to despair, from exhilaration to depression. Clinical observers should not ignore the significant emotional content of what teachers are saying any more than they would ignore important cognitive statements.

One way to respond is to describe what you are observing: "You appear to be quite angry about that" or "This seems to make you anxious." Don't be surprised if the teacher's response is "Oh, no, I'm not really angry" or "Who's anxious? I'm not anxious." We tend to deny feelings, as if it were bad to have them, especially in a teaching situation. A psychologist once remarked, "I always knew when my mother was angry at me because she showed it immediately, and I could take that; but my father would wait to 'have a talk with me later,' and that was an agonizing experience." Expressing feelings can be healthy and helpful. After an especially satisfying performance before a large class of graduate students, the instructor was told by one student, "I enjoyed seeing that you were relishing the experience." That is a good observation to share. Telling a teacher "You appeared to be

enjoying the responses you were getting" or "I shared your apprehension when Dickie volunteered" can have a desirable effect on the tone of the discussion.

COUNSELING

For many years we advised observers to avoid taking on a counseling role with teachers. We thought it best for observers to spend the limited available time helping teachers improve their instructional efforts rather than attempting to work on marital, financial, or psychological problems. We felt that the "amateur psychiatrist" would do more harm than good. In the case of serious problems, we still feel this way, but we have modified our position somewhat.

The more we work with observers, the more we recognize that it is impossible for them to separate teachers' instructional problems from their personal problems. What is needed is an approach that avoids the pitfalls of inept amateur therapy yet deals honestly with problems expressed by the teacher that have significant impact on classroom performance.

For example, if a teacher says, "I'm spending so much time fighting with my spouse that I just can't get my lessons prepared," the observer might do one of several things:

- threaten to fire the teacher if work does not improve.
- offer advice on how to improve a marriage.
- concentrate on ways of handling schoolwork at school.
- recommend a counselor.
- provide nondirective counseling.

Any of the above might work, depending on the situation and the nature of the individuals involved. An objective approach consistent with other techniques in this chapter might be the following:

OBSERVER: Here are some of the things you've mentioned that would be desirable. Let's indicate them briefly in one column. Here are some things you have identified about your current situation. Let's put them in another column. Now you can add or subtract from either list, but the essential problem is to ask what it takes to get from here to there.

It is conceivable that a conscientious supervisor might perform all the tasks of planning, observing, and giving feedback (as recorded and coded by reliable means) and still not be regarded as helpful by the teacher. We suspect that when this happens, other personality factors or interpersonal dynamics account for the discrepancy. The data we have on what teachers want from an observer suggest a fairly open and democratic approach for most teachers. Yet we can use open and democratic procedures to communicate content that is quite structured. Self-guided discovery, teacher-guided discovery, and didactic teaching are examples of procedures that lie along this continuum.

Carl Rogers, who pioneered client-centered counseling in the 1940s, argues for "person-centered" approaches in a wide range of human activities.[24] He contrasts our usual notions of power and control with another view of influence and impact.

Some Notes On Leadership: Two Extremes

Influence and Impact	Power and Control
Giving autonomy to persons and groups	Making decisions
Freeing people to "do their thing"	Giving orders
Expressing own ideas and feelings as one aspect of the group data	Directing subordinates' behavior
Facilitating learning	Keeping own ideas and feelings "close to the vest"
Stimulating independence in thought and action	Exercising authority over people and organizations
Delegating, giving full responsibility	Coercing when necessary
Offering feedback and receiving it	Teaching, instructing, advising
Encouraging and relying on self-evaluation	Evaluating others
Finding rewards in the achievements of others	Being rewarded by own achievements

For most teachers, influence and impact are needed from observers, not power and control.

MANAGEMENT

Douglas McGregor's Human Side of Enterprise suggests two approaches to management, theory X and theory Y.[25] They are not opposite poles on a continuum but two different views about work—including teaching and observing. Theory X applies to traditional management and the assumptions underlying it. Theory Y is based on assumptions derived from research in the social sciences.

Three basic assumptions of theory X are

1. The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if possible.
2. Because of this human dislike of work, most people must be coerced, directed, and threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives.
3. The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, and wants security above all.

McGregor indicates that the "carrot and the stick" theory of motivation fits reasonably well with theory X. External rewards and punishments are the motivators of workers. The consequent direction and control does not recognize intrinsic human motivation.

Theory Y is more humanistic and is based on six assumptions:

1. The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest.
2. External controls and the threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about effort toward organizational objectives. Human beings will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which they are committed.

3. Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement.
4. The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but also to seek responsibility.
5. The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.
6. Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized.

McGregor saw these assumptions leading to superior–subordinate relationships in which the subordinate would have greater influence over the activities in his or her own work and also have influence on the superior's actions. Through participatory management, greater creativity and productivity are expected, and also a greater sense of personal accomplishment and satisfaction by the workers. Chris Argyris,[26] Warren Bennis,[27] and Rensis Likert[28] cite evidence that a participatory system of management can be more effective than traditional management.

Likert's studies showed that high production can be achieved by people- rather than production-oriented managers. Moreover, these high-production managers were willing to delegate; to allow subordinates to participate in decisions; to be relatively nonpunitive; and to use open, two-way communication patterns. High morale and effective planning were also characteristic of these "person-centered" managers. The results may be applied to the supervisory relationship in education as well as to industry.

There have been at least two theory Z candidates in more recent years. One was broached in Abraham Maslow's posthumous publication, *The Farther Reaches of Human Nature.*[29] The other dealt with the success of ideas from the 1930s in the United States when they were applied to postwar Japan following WWII. Innovations such as quality circles, cooperative learning, participatory management, and shared decision making were influenced by those theories.

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