

# CENTER FOR QUALITY OF MANAGEMENT JOURNAL

*Reprint No. RP06300*

**A Message from the Chair** Page 2  
*David Walden*

**Learning: What Does It Mean?** Page 4  
*Thomas H. Lee*

**A Conversation About Conversations:  
Analog Devices CEO on Building  
High Performance Organizations** Page 15  
*Ray Stata*

**Language for Action:** Page 21  
**New Concepts to Address  
Soft Side Management Issues**  
*Gary Burchill and David Walden*

**Understanding Unclear Situations and Each Other** Page 29  
**Using the Language Processing Method**  
*Ted Walls and David Walden*

**Managing the “Soft Side”**  
*Special Issue*

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# Language For Action

Since Gary Burchill and David Walden met in 1990 in Shoji Shiba's first CQM 6-Day Course, they have shared insights regarding the practical application of quality and management concepts. They are currently collaborating to diffuse the concepts coming from the CQM's Conversation Study Group. These concepts have been put into practice in the Surface Warfare Department of the Naval Inventory Control Point which Gary directs and were recently delivered in the CQM's 6-Day Course for Senior Executives.

Gary Burchill and David Walden

## Motivation

In our normal business settings almost all work is the product of a conversation. We define complex problems during conversations. We use numerical analysis techniques only after we have used language to articulate the scope and boundaries of the problem. After doing the numerical analysis we fall back on conversation to coordinate the actions needed to resolve a problem or realize an opportunity. When we reflect on our training, however, we see that most of us have had years and years of training in the collection and analysis of numerical data, but limited, if any, formal training in how to deal with language data. This lack of structure in our own approach to business conversations often results in a considerable amount of wasted effort: we chase the wrong problem, enter into solution efforts before we know what problem we are really trying to solve and, when we take actions, they often are disjointed and uncoordinated.

What we are calling "Language for Action" provides a framework for categorizing the types of conversations associated with the work we conduct in our business environments. Language for Action can improve both the effectiveness and efficiency of our work by helping to ensure we have a shared interest in the issues, and by making the commitments we enter into more visible.

## Background

In the spring of 1995, Center for Quality of Management (CQM) created a study group to investigate the methods of conversation put forth by various management thinkers. CQM found it necessary to do this study because we found no single guru we could turn to on topics of language. Also, there was little integration of the thoughts and writings of various gurus with the existing Total Quality Management (TQM) methods used by CQM companies. The study group consisted of a dozen participants from CQM member companies, the CQM staff, and affiliated universities. The investigation lasted six months with meetings roughly every other week. In all there were more than 15 meetings, 35 readings, 6 presentations by outside

*CQM Conversation Study Group members were: Ross Brown, Analog Devices, Inc.; Gary Burchill, US Navy; Fred Cunningham, Keane, Inc.; Judy Gordon, Boston College; Brad Harrington, Hewlett-Packard Company; Capri Keogh, Intel Corporation; Steve LaPierre, W.R. Grace; Ray Stata, Analog Devices, Inc.; and Tom Lee, David Walden, Ted Walls, and Toby Woll, Center for Quality of Management.*

experts, and close to 70 working papers and notes prepared by study group participants.

The study group concluded that there are several important conversational techniques that are not currently part of TQM as CQM knows it, and these techniques seem to strongly complement TQM and the linguistic methods already used by CQM. Particularly relevant are the Action Science ideas from Chris Argyris and others, the Language/Action Perspective from Fernando Flores and others, and the semantic guidelines from S. I. Hayakawa, John Searle, and others. We call CQM's integration of methods "Language for Action."

Preliminary use of this integrated framework has resulted in considerable improvement of both personal and organizational productivity. For instance, one author (Burchill) has realized a noticeable reduction in the number of ambiguous requests for assistance and promises for action. He reports that people have a much clearer understanding of what is required, why it is required, when it is required, and who has committed themselves to deliver on the promised action. Clarifying responsibilities and increasing accountability has reduced the delays, and frustration, of uncoordinated actions.

For its part, CQM is moving ahead to include many of the linguistic distinctions we describe here (and others) as part of its basic six-day introduction to quality for senior managers. CQM is also planning a multi-day language-oriented course on leadership and coaching, and is investigating how to apply these conversational ideas in product development, among other things.

### Language for Action

While there are many different kinds of conversations possible in

our daily lives, three general types are particularly relevant to establishing and coordinating work in a business setting: Conversations for Effectiveness (doing the right things); Conversations for Efficiency (doing things right); and Conversations about Conversations. Conversations about Conversations are held simply to ensure participants are on the same sheet of music. For example, two people need to avoid the situation where one thinks they are engaged in a conversation about the opportunities associated with potential solutions while the other (hopefully not the boss) may think they are engaged in a conversation for action. While Conversations about Conversations will not be addressed further in the remainder of this paper, it is important to underscore how simply distinguishing which type of conversation is being held can save a lot of wasted effort and confusion.

### Conversations for Efficiency (Doing Things Right)

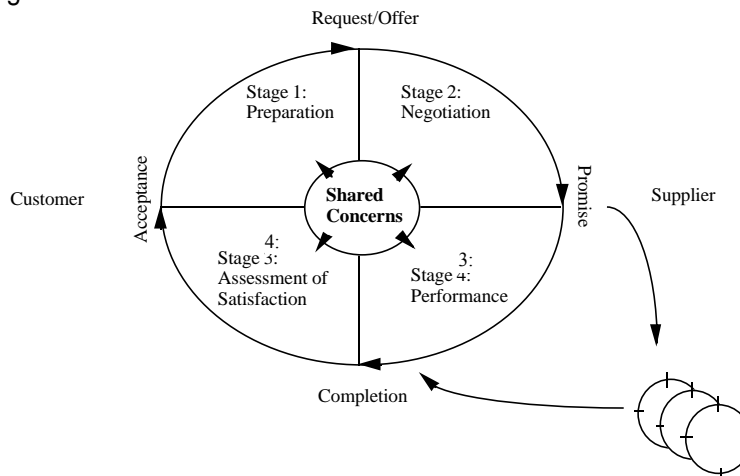
We think of Conversations for Efficiency as coming in two basic forms: Conversations for Action—who is going to do what, when, for the sake of which concerns—and Conversations about Breakdown—the calling of a "time-out" to reconcile the current state of actions

with participants' expectations of what should be happening. The disciplined use of a framework for articulating our work commitments, along with a complementary approach for bringing attention to possible breakdowns, increases the likelihood of doing things right.

Conversations for Action facilitate and increase coordinated substantive action in the areas of shared concern. The "atom of work",<sup>1</sup> shown in figure 1, provides a framework for operationalizing Conversations for Action. The atom of work is a simplified representation of all the possible states and transitions through which two people may make and keep, or break, a promise for action to each other. The customer is the person who requests something and ultimately assesses whether the completed work is satisfactory. The supplier is the person who offers/promises to do something and is responsible for the subsequent accomplishment of the agreed upon action within the specified time frame.

In the first stage of the atom of work, Preparation, the customer and supplier discuss the nature of the issue under consideration. The primary goal at this stage is to ensure both parties can complete the statement, "we are doing this

Figure 1. Atom of Work





for the sake of..." with the same understanding of a shared concern/opportunity. This stage is complete when either the customer makes a request or the supplier makes an offer for a particular action.

The second stage, Negotiation, addresses the conditions of satisfaction associated with the request or offer under discussion. While not every action (particularly those that are routine) will require an explicit statement of all conditions of satisfaction (for example one might correctly assume "written" reports to one's boss will be typed not handwritten) every action should explicitly state the time frame in which it should be completed. This stage is completed when the customer accepts a promise from the supplier about what will be done and when (*for the sake of the shared concern or opportunity*).

The third stage, Performance, represents the actual accomplishment of actions by the supplier. It is important to recognize that one promise for action can, and usually does, generate additional requests and promises for action, as shown at the bottom right of figure 1. For example, when an outside salesperson promises an external customer a particular product or service, the company may then need to initiate a series of coordinated actions with field service engineers, manufacturing/development personnel, etc. to meet the commitment made to a customer. Stage 3 is complete when the supplier reports completion—hopefully after an internal assessment against the conditions of satisfaction.

Assessment of Satisfaction is the fourth stage of the atom of work. Simply put, the customer must assess the work and declare acceptance or nonacceptance of the work performed. After acceptance, the customer might engage in conversations for additional action. If the work is not satisfactory, the cus-

tomers can identify a breakdown and describe which conditions of satisfaction or aspect of shared concern have not been met.

Brief reflection on the atom of work makes one realize how careless we are in making and keeping commitments much of the time. We make requests without ensuring a subsequent promise for action is accepted. We make promises without having a clear understanding of the conditions of satisfaction. We forget to declare when the promised activity has been completed. We fail to assess whether satisfaction has been achieved. We are afraid of telling people we are unable to carry out the promised activity. We bumble along without understanding each other's concerns. It is no wonder we often find ourselves lacking confidence and trust in each other.

As an example of how the atom of work framework can improve our ability to do things right, consider a request from a factory inventory manager (customer) to a corporate purchasing agent (supplier). The inventory manager asks the buyer to expedite the award of a contract for the sake of meeting a product rollout date. After negotiation, the buyer promises to award a contract which meets the factory's required delivery date. (This is not the same as promising to expedite the award of a contract.) The buyer does not declare completion until the material is shipped by the vendor. The inventory manager does not assess the completed work until the material is received by the factory. Should the material not arrive in time the inventory manager could claim a breakdown has occurred. Alternatively, if the buyer is not able to award a contract which will ship by the required delivery date, he or she could identify that a breakdown will occur in the future—giving everyone more time to avert a future crisis.<sup>2</sup>

Conversations about Breakdowns are conversations about the interruption in the normal or expected flow of things. Everyone must take responsibility for initiating Conversations about Breakdowns, regardless of whether it was a breakdown of their area of direct responsibility or the responsibility of someone else (one must not allow the person responsible to remain unaware that the breakdown has occurred). Conversations about Breakdown should begin with a declaration of the breakdown, described as concretely as possible and as void of judgment as possible. The atom of work elements (e.g., the conditions of satisfaction, shared concerns, and stage transitions) provide useful guidelines for describing the breakdown concretely. A sincere offer of assistance should be made to help minimize the perception that the declaration of a breakdown is a "poke in the eye." This offer of assistance should be a natural consequence of the shared concern for the issue which both the customer and supplier established in Stage 1, Preparation. In the example above, the buyer could identify the inability to award a contract that would provide timely delivery and might suggest alternatives which involve premium service pay or an incremental delivery schedule.

Central to both Conversations for Action and Conversations about Breakdowns is the fact that both are motivated by the shared concern of the customer and the supplier. We show shared concerns as the nucleus of the atom of work—the force holding together the entire network of commitments. The actions are being taken for the sake of the shared concern. It is their interest in the shared concern that empowers anyone to declare a breakdown and legitimizes doing so. All parties understand that problems must be acknowledged and solved to accomplish the mission.

### Conversations for Effectiveness (Doing the Right Things)

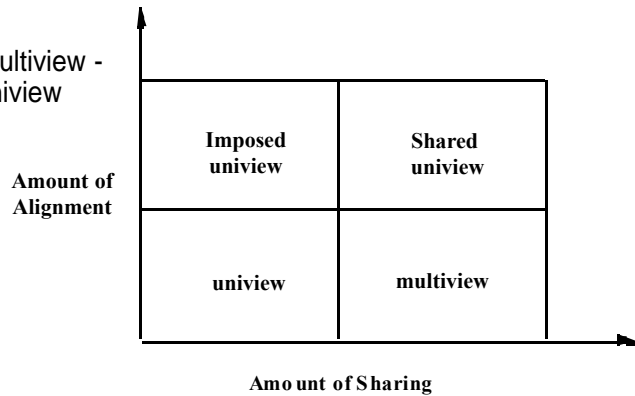
Conversations for Effectiveness fall into two general categories, Conversations for Relationships and Conversations for Opportunities.<sup>3</sup> These are conversations for focusing efforts on doing the right things.

Conversations for Relationships are often required before there can even be a conversation regarding opportunities or shared concerns. Initially, these kinds of conversations are designed to establish, usually on a personal level, the basis for subsequent interaction. In an established relationship these conversations enable us to establish trust at a deeper, more profound level than is normally present in our business dealings. In many cases, however, particularly where a long history of interaction is already present, or if there is a preexisting organizational relationship established, e.g., between Manufacturing and Sales, new instances of this kind of conversation may not be necessary.

In Conversations for Relationships the goal is to explore broadly—to gain a 360-degree perspective to better appreciate the views of others. Generally there is no set agenda in these dialogues, just a commitment to gain understanding of another’s view of the environment. It is essential in these conversations that participants learn to appreciate the views of others. Figure 2 graphically illustrates how this might (or might not) happen.

We call the viewpoint that is based on our own beliefs, models, emotions, etc. a uniview. Some people fail to recognize that there is more than a single (their own) perspective on the world. A first step to enlightenment about viewpoints is to be able to articulate one’s own uniview. At this point there are at least two distinct paths that the conversation can take.

Figure 2. Uniview ->Multiview -> Shared Uniview



Too often the route taken is that one person tries to impose his or her uniview on other participants. This approach diminishes the possibility of developing a relationship—at least in regard to the specific topic. Often in conversations where one person is trying to impose his or her uniview, people spend a lot of time making ungrounded assessments about the non-validity of the other person’s opinion—participants end up engaged in a “conversation for an argument.”<sup>4</sup>

If we are able to recognize that others have univiews that are valid to them, then an alternative to having a “conversation for an argument” is to have a Conversation for Relationships where we try to see the validity in each person’s uniview instead of attempting to impose our uniview onto others. When one can hold one’s own view of how the world works, and also comprehend and accept the views of others, we say the person is holding a multiview. Having achieved comprehension and acceptance, the participants may select a subset of the multiview that they share in common. We call this a shared uniview.

The point of seeing each other’s views and finding a shared uniview is not to achieve some spiritual consensus. Rather, it is to find a direction or approach that has a high probability of success, because

the probability for success increases when the issues being worked on are important to all parties. The insights gained in developing a multiview create the building blocks for developing a shared uniview. When the participants in a relationship have a shared view of the environment, it is more likely they can find issues and opportunities in which they share interests.

Continuing with the previous example, it may be the factory inventory manager’s view that contracts should be awarded to proven sources of supply. At the same time the purchasing agent may hold a view that contracts should be awarded to suppliers with the lowest price. Ideally, the inventory manager and purchasing agent will develop a shared view that allows for contracts to be awarded to low-cost suppliers who deliver when required.

Conversations for Opportunities follow, or complete, the establishment of a shared uniview. In contrast to Conversations for Relationships where the objective is to explore broadly, in Conversations for Opportunities we want to explore deeply—to ensure a mutual understanding of our shared concerns. This requires focus on issues, not solutions, and the suspension of our “I already know it” tendencies. The key is entering into these conversations with a willingness to have a flexible



agenda. Unfortunately, we all too readily forget this fact when we enter the conference room.

In our example the buyer wants to award contracts to vendors on the basis of price, payment terms, contract delivery performance history and ease of doing business. The inventory manager wants to have contracts awarded to vendors who have a proven record of reliable performance. The shared concern is that product rollout dates be met. In their Conversation for Opportunities they might discuss the issues surrounding missed production schedules as well as the constraints placed on contracting agents. They might find opportunities in incremental delivery options or advance vendor certification.

### Language Processing Skills

There are language processing skills common to all of the conversations presented above. We need skill in understanding the often delicate balance between advocacy and inquiry<sup>5</sup>—when do we need to understand more, and when do we need to come to a conclusion to make progress. We need skill in making our reasoning explicit—developing the ability to articulate and to make visible the underlying facts and inferences associated with our actions and proposals. Finally, we need skill in making our language concrete—to reduce the ambiguity not only in what we say, but in the intent behind what we say.<sup>6</sup>

### Balancing Advocacy vs. Inquiry

Advocacy involves embracing a particular position with a willingness to defend it if challenged. Inquiry involves attempting to develop a deeper understanding of an issue. In the conduct of conversations both advocacy and inquiry are important—when applied appropriately. Figure 3 provides an outline to guide this balancing act. There is a point

in Conversations for Relationships, for example, when we want to understand another participant’s uniview. At this stage of the Conversation for Relationship, inquiry should be high and advocacy should be low. However, later in the conversation (or in subsequent conversations) the goal may be to develop a shared uniview, and participants may want to take on more of an advocate’s role to promote the accommodation of a particular perspective in the shared uniview. Therefore, understanding the type and stage of conversation one is engaged in is key to determining the relative role of advocacy versus inquiry.

### Making Reasoning Explicit

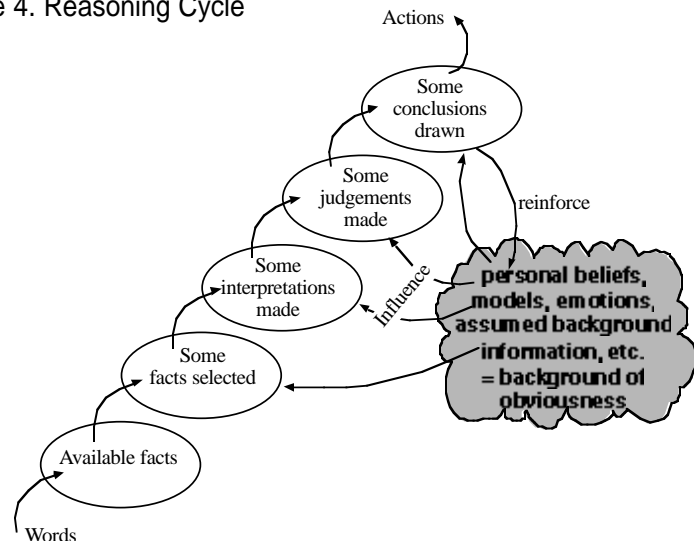
We all see things differently, based on our own beliefs, internalized model of the way the world works, emotions, experience, etc. We call this our “background of obviousness.”<sup>7</sup> This background of obviousness in turn influences how we reason about things (e.g., possibilities being discussed in a Conversation for Opportunities). Our background of obviousness influences our selection of facts (and those facts we don’t select), the interpretations we give facts, and the conclusions we draw from those interpretations. We call this pattern of reasoning, shown in figure 4, the “reasoning cycle.”<sup>8</sup>

Figure 3. Advocacy vs. Inquiry

<i>Advocacy</i>	<b>High</b>	Definitely Determine Outcome (Close Minded)	Directly Influence outcome (Open minded)
	<b>Low</b>	Disengaged (Mind Turned Off)	Increase Understanding (Open Minded)
		<b>Low</b>	<b>High</b>

*Inquiry*

Figure 4. Reasoning Cycle



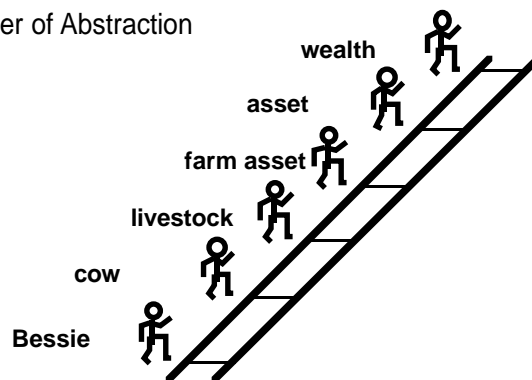
As normal effective humans, we do this reasoning with great speed and facility—almost unconsciously. As a result, we often are not aware of the steps in our reasoning, which can result in an ingrained reasoning cycle that sometimes makes it difficult to discover the need for making necessary changes. In particular, our initial statements on a subject often include a lot of interpretation and conclusion based on such rapid reasoning. Unfortunately, when this happens and there is an inconsistency in the reasoning cycle between two people who are trying to work together, a lot of confusion and unproductive effort can result. Therefore, it is sometimes important to make our reasoning more explicit—to make our background of obviousness plain to others and ourselves.

The reasoning cycle in figure 4 provides a road map for making our reasoning explicit.<sup>9</sup> First, we should be able to describe the data which was selected (and just as importantly which data was excluded) for use in our reasoning. Second, we should ascertain which of the data we used is verifiable and which is not. Third, we must be able to describe the inferences and judgments that we made based on the selected data. Finally, we need to determine how the conclusions and actions were drawn from these interpretations. Developing skill at articulating the answers to these four questions provides the capability to make our reasoning more explicit.

### Making Language Concrete

Basic building blocks from semantics can improve our ability to make our language more concrete. S. I. Hayakawa introduced the concept of the ladder of abstraction, shown in figure 5.<sup>10</sup> Often when we speak, we talk at a high level of abstraction—we stand on one of the higher rungs of the ladder. Figuratively, moving down the lad-

Figure 5: Ladder of Abstraction



der of abstraction is a way to make language more concrete. For example, asking for a specific example from personal experience is usually sufficient to move an ambiguous statement down to a level where there is less likelihood of misinterpretation.

### Speech Acts

Another skill that is useful to have for conversational effectiveness for making our language more concrete is an understanding of speech acts.<sup>11</sup>

A first distinction is that some “facts” are of-the-world and some “facts” are of-the-word. For instance, that there is snow on Mt. Everest, or that it was sunny and cool in Boston on November 5, 1995, are facts “of-the-world.” We use words to describe such facts. One might say, “the word follows the world.” On the other hand, the Declaration of Independence or the declaration of the authors that they would write this paper are facts that are “of-the-word.” Stating these words changes the world, profoundly in the case of the Declaration of Independence, and somewhat less globally in the case of routine declarations within a business. One might say, “the world follows the word.”

The distinction between facts where the word follows the world, and facts where the world follows the word is important because we so

often treat facts that are based on people’s words as if they were facts of the world and unchangeable. Thus, we lose many opportunities to change situations that are in fact changeable. For instance, everyone at one time or another has said or heard some variation of “we can’t do it that way,” when in fact the statement was reporting the result of a policy declaration and things could easily be done in another way if the policy declaration (which might be old and out of date) were just changed.

Another important reason to distinguish between facts of-the-world and facts of-the-word is because it makes us begin to think about “the generative power of language,” that is, one can create action and create a new world. For instance, the statements that Bill Gates and Paul Allen made in deciding to, and then declaring that they were going to start Microsoft, have changed the world.

A second important distinction to be made is among speech acts themselves. According to speech act theory, all linguistic statements can be divided into five categories of speech acts—assertions, declarations, promises, requests, and offers.<sup>12</sup>

- Assertions are linguistic statements that describe what already exists. What already exists may be facts of-the-world or of-the-word. Because assertions are statements about what



already exists, evidence should be available to support or disprove them. Thus, assertions may be either true or false. If one is making an honest assertion, one can be thought of as implicitly having evidence that one believes supports the assertion. One's ability to make true assertions determines the range over which one can take effective action because assertions that turn out to be untrue will probably result in misplaced or ineffective action. Assertions are a key tool of conversations for relationships, opportunities and breakdowns, and for finding shared concerns.

- Declarations are the way new institutional facts are created, and therefore are important. Companies are declared started, a minister declares a couple to be wed, or a policeman directing traffic declares that it is now time for cars to move north-south instead of east-west. Since declarations are not based on existing facts, the validity (or non-validity) of declarations flows from the power the declarer has, or has been granted. Declarations are a key tool of Conversations for Opportunities, Actions and Breakdowns.

- Promises are the linguistic statements that we use to commit to future action. The believability of a promise, and thus the stock that should be placed in the commitment that is made, depends on an assessment of the sincerity (wants to keep the promise), competence (has the skill to keep the promise), and reliability (has a history of successfully accomplishing similar tasks or keeping similar promises) of the person making the promise.

- Requests are the linguistic statements we use to elicit a specific promise from someone.

- Offers are the linguistic statements used to suggest that we are open to making a specific promise.

Obviously, besides their general usefulness, promises, requests and offers are key parts of the atom of work and

thus of Conversations for Action.

An assessment is an important speech act subtype—a form of declaration. Assessments are the linguistic statements each of us makes where we individually evaluate the world (physical, emotional, etc.) that we see, and make judgments for the sake of future actions. Assessments can either be grounded (follow the good-reasoning traditions the people of an organizational culture have) or ungrounded. For example, consider the statement, “We should not do business with company X because it is unreliable.” It would be grounded if facts could be provided to support the claim. It would be valid also if the speaker had the authority to determine the company's business partners.

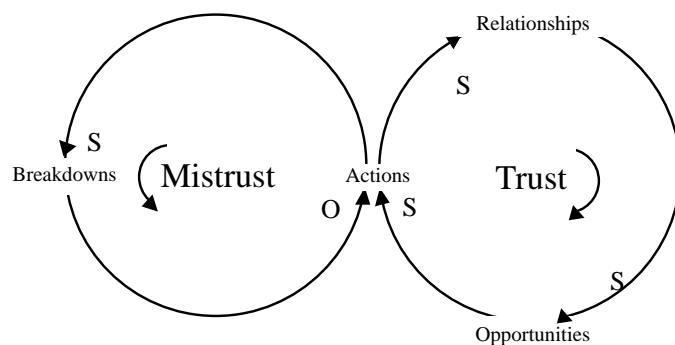
Failing to distinguish between assertions (observations for which supporting evidence can be provided) and assessments (judgments for the purpose of selecting future actions) can lead to confusion. Stating that the customer doesn't understand what they need typically is an assessment (perhaps ungrounded), typically (perhaps not consciously) for the sake of ignoring customer input as we go forward. Treating this statement as a demonstrable assertion may have undesirable consequences. It can cause one to miss the opportunity to discover what the customer organization thinks it needs and thus limit the opportunity

to do business with the customer.

### Building Trusting Relationships

We view the conversations described above not as independent activities but as a system of conversations as shown in figure 6. By looking at conversations this way, we can see significant potential to increase trust within our business environment. In this simple causal loop diagram one can start anywhere. For instance, initially two persons might meet and learn a little bit about one another and how each looks at things. In other words, they are beginning to build a relationship and to build a little trust that it's not a waste to know each other. This tentative relationship may lead to a conversation about various little opportunities, and they may decide to trust each other a little more and risk acting on one of these initial opportunities. If each follows through with their part of the promised action, both of them might feel they are beginning to know and trust the other and the relationship may grow. Successful actions build strong, trusting relationships. Without trust, lasting relationships aren't possible. In turn, strong relationships lead to better opportunities. If, however, the actions are not carried out, a breakdown is said to occur. If promised actions are not completed satisfactorily, trust is reduced, relationships degrade, opportunities dry up and a vicious cycle of decline ensues.

Figure 6. Conversation System<sup>13</sup>







Improving our conversation skills increases the portion of our efforts which contributes to useful work—both the effectiveness and efficiency. Additionally, understanding the feedback among the types of conversations we have increases the opportunities for subsequent business because we can develop relationships based on the trust of past successful performance on our commitments.

## References

- 1 Initially described by Flores and his colleagues and called the “workflow loop.” See, for instance, “The Action Workflow Approach to Workflow Management Technology,” Raul Medina-Mora, Terry Winograd, Rodrigo Flores and Fernando Flores, *CSCW 92 Proceedings*, November 1992, pp. 281-288.
- 2 While this is a routine manufacturing example, we could easily give examples from a service industry or between high level managers.
- 3 More detailed presentations of this topic might distinguish between Conversations for Opportunities and Conversations for Possibilities. We are using Conversations for Opportunities in an unspecific way here.
- 4 Some authorities call this a “conversation for no possibilities.”
- 5 Chris Argyris. *Reasoning, Learning and Action*. Reading, MA: Jossey-Bass, 1982.
- 6 There are other skills that help people make their reasoning more explicit. One of these skills, called the Language Processing™ Method, is discussed in a companion paper in this issue, entitled “Understanding Unclear Situations and Each Other Using the Language Processing Method,” by Ted Walls and David Walden, *Center for Quality of Management Journal*, 4,4; Winter 1995.
- 7 Action Science people might call this an “action model,” for instance Bob Putnam’s working paper “Organizational Learning in Action,” *Action Design*, 1994.
- 8 Action Science people might call this the “Ladder of Inference” (*The Fifth Discipline Fieldbook*, Peter Senge et al., Doubleday Currency 1994, pp. 242-246). We use different words to avoid confusion with Hayakawa’s “Ladder of Abstraction” (*Language in Thought and Action*, Fifth Ed., S.I. Hayakawa and Alan Hayakawa, Harcourt Brace & Company, 1990, p.85).
- 9 A similar roadmap is provided in *The Fifth Discipline Fieldbook*, Peter Senge et al. (pp. 260-262 by Robert Putnam).
- 10 *Language in Thought and Action*, Fifth Ed., S.I. Hayakawa and Alan Hayakawa, Harcourt Brace & Company, 1990, p.85.
- 11 The philosophy relating to speech acts came most immediately from J.L. Austin (*How to Do Things With Words*, Harvard University Press, 1962) and John Searle (*Speech Acts*, Cambridge University Press, 1969). Fernando Flores promoted the idea of making speech acts basic to business conversation in his dissertation from University of California, Berkeley (*Management and Communication in the Office of the Future*, 1982), and Terry Winograd joined Flores in attempting to use software to codify the use of speech acts (*Understanding Computers and Cognition*, Addison Wesley, 1987). We learned about speech acts from reading some of the writings of the just mentioned researchers and from presentations by Fred Cunningham, Rafael Echeverria, Beebe Nelson and Jack Reilly. The theory of speech acts is controversial in that some philosophers question its validity and a number of people worry that speech act theory may stifle the richness that is possible in conversation. We don’t view speech acts as a philosophy that is either valid or invalid; rather, we view speech acts as a useful set of distinctions to keep in mind to improve routine business effectiveness from its often sorry state to a significantly better state.
- 12 We use Rafael Echeverria’s convention for naming and numbering the speech acts rather than the naming conventions of Fernando Flores or John Searle. While Flores or Echeverria would discuss commitments at length while describing the speech acts, we will do so only casually and incompletely.
- 13 The causal loop notation of this figure uses **S** and **O** within the loops to indicate that a change of the previous state (e.g., relationships) makes the next state (e.g., opportunities) move in the Same direction, or a change in the previous state (e.g., breakdowns) makes the next state (e.g., actions) move in the Opposite direction.





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4. Reference list, if appropriate.

#### Figures, Tables and Photographs:

If you can, insert each figure or table into the text where you would like it to fall. Figures should be composed to conform to one of two widths: 3 1/8 or 6 1/2 inches. The maximum height for any figure is 9 3/8 inches. Text within figures should not be smaller than 5 points and lines not less than 1/4 point at the figure's final size. Figures should be labeled with the figure number underneath and title on top. Be sure that the text mentions each figure or table.

Please retain separate PICT or TIFF files of figures generated in drawing programs and a file with the text only for final submission.