THE WAY IN WHICH METAPROGRAMS AND METAMODELS INFLUENCE LEADERS OF ORGANIZATIONS

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Abstract

Metaprograms ensure the soft necessary for the operation of „routine programs" within the parameters. Metaprograms mean essentially the comparison of two stimuli. Metaprograms repre sent the higher level of mental processes through which we sort experiences and we react. The metamodel has some linguistic distinctions which help in identifying the linguistic types which hide the meaning in the communication process of deletion and gene ralization. The metalanguage studies the rules of phrases (syntax), and not phrases as such. Metamodels are very powerful instruments used to gather information, to find alternatives and clarify meanings. They are used in the interior dialogue and on the other hand internal reality is built from the words used but it can be used as resource. Lacking report, the metamodel generates metamutilation and metainfatuation.

Key words: Metamodel, metaprogram, process, leader, metalanguage

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1. PREAMBLE

Metaprograms can be defined as „general order structures, content independent, which determines our manner of approaching experience" (12). Another definition refers to metaprograms as: "a superior decision program which filters information c oming from the subconscious, giving specific information to the conscious" (13). There are two different types of metaprograms: the first includes motivational types, while the second includes working types. Motivational types indicate what releasers of ac tion a certain person needs so that he wouldn't lose his motivation. Working types describe a person's mental processes, in a particular situation (Charvet, 2006).

Metaprograms ensure the soft necessary for the operation of „routine programs" within the parameters (Knight, 2003). The metamessage may be defined as everything we do making an impression to the other people. For example: we sleep on the same side, smoke using the same hand, wash our teeth starting from the same part of the mouth, etc. This inf ormation is sorted with the help of two filters: option filters and procedure filters. (Knight, 2003) Metaprograms mean essentially the comparison of two stimuli. An old one, already existent with a new one, from the environment. We accept the new stimulus if we had a pleasant experience towards the old one and we reject it if we had an unpleasant experience towards the old stimulus. This helps us in selecting the information and in enlarging our perspective over the world and our own person. (14). The main metaprograms are the following: closeness -farness, options-procedures, details-entirety, internal-external (16).

Various methods of information processing are called metaprograms in the NLP, as they are programs which start other programs at brain level. The simplest metaprogram is the sensory preference – auditory, visual, kinesthetic (Bandler, 1975).

The second part comprises the review of the main basic concepts of metaprograms.

The third part contains the concepts and methodological specifications of m etaprograms.

The fourth part presents the influence of metaprograms upon leaders in company management.

The fifth part comprises the conclusions of leaders using metaprograms in management..

Could the leaders' metaprograms have an influence upon the compa ny behavior?

2. CONCEPTS USED IN METAPROGRAMS

Metaprograms use the following concepts: metaprogram, closeness -farness, options-procedures, details-entirety, and internal-external.

Metamodels use the following concepts: deletion, unspecified verbs, unsp ecified referential indexes, comparisons, nominalizations, search in past experiences, modal operators, nominalization, presuppositions, cause – effect, universal quantifiers, the importance of sensors experience, complex equivalence, mind-reading, lost performatives

Operational levels of the metamodel:
1. Deletion appears when the person misses a stimulus, doesn't consider it important or isn't able to express himself clearly. At NLP level, it is made of: deletion, unspecified referential index, unspecified verbs, nominalizations, comparisons.
2. Generalization represents reliving some personal experiences in other contexts than the initial one. Generalization comprises: universal quantifiers, modal operators, lost performatives.
3. Distortions represent our own manner of seeing and interpreting the world through the sensory system we have, and it also appears when we communicate and interact. The following are part of distortions: nominalization, complex equivalence, cause – effect, mind-reading, presuppositions, and lost performatives.

3. CONCEPTS AND METHODOLOGICAL INDICATIONS OF METAPROGRAMS AND METAMODELS

The motivational type represents that structure necessary to a person in order to stay motivated in a context and which helps that person not to lose it; other elements are necessary: attention, availability, and practice. Any motivational type can be learned by applying various questions specific to each one. Once these types are internalized, the questions come by themselves, their distinctions being very easy.

The metamodel closeness – farness combines on the one hand the solutions for fu ture but anticipated problems, and on the other hand it has in view the optimization of the solutions for an organization.

The metamodel options – procedures shows the way in which objectives can be reached. It is creative, each time different, strictly keeping to either the regulation or procedures.

The metaprogram details – entirety represents the way in which a leader sees the elements which make the whole. Either he sees the whole and doesn't see the parts, or he sees only the parts and doesn't see the whole. The ideal situation is that in which the filter is in the middle, but more inclined to the details and more to the entirety.

The metaprogram „resembla nce, resemblance with one exception, difference" represents the relation between the processes and results in the NLP point of view. Therefore, the metaprogram resemblance shows how one can become a very good professional but never a leader, as it refers t o using always what you have already done before, without innovating anything. The metaprogram resemblance with an exception means trying to do something new once in a while, and it can be used as a training formula for the metaprogram difference. This one means that the leader is never doing the same thing twice. It represents ultimate creativity. It is exactly the opposite of metaprogram resemblance.

The metaprogram internal – external presents the source of motivation. Therefore, if a leader has the internal metaprogram, the source for motivation will come each time from inside, but the disadvantage is that he will appear as a too calculating person, while filtering the entire information through the personal filter may take a lot of time. Instead, a per son with the external metaprogram has his motivational source in the exterior. Usually, the information is no longer filtered bu t only executed.   This metaprogram is very good for the employees. Thereby, the best leader should be

more inclined towards an internal metaprogram than an external one, but the proportions shouldn't be unbalanced.

The metaprogram closeness – farness presents the motivation of reaching an objective, and what should one do to avoid a problem, a crisis.

Deletion represents the elimination of that information considered to be redundant or which cannot pass the VAK sensory filter.

Comparisons such as „the best", „worse" represents, according to Bandler, another way of deleting information.

Unspecified referential indexes, words such as „who", „what", „these", „people" which delete other words, but also replace them maintaining the same meaning of the clause or sentence.

Nominalizations ensure the transformation of an action, usually a verb in a noun. For example, „I feel youth running through my veins" can turn into „Youth runs through the youngster's veins" [3, p.96].

The search in past experiences – generally, words play the role of references. In this case, it goes to finding the last reference and accessing it, so that it becomes an anchor.

Unspecified verbs are generally sensory verbs, which when becoming aware of a process, they also activate the sensory impulses, that is the sensory acuity.

Modal operators are of possibility and of necessity. They indicate "the mode" in whic h a person "operates" the mode of necessity, of possibility, of wish, obligation, etc. The predicates "can", „cannot", "possibly", "impossibly", "should", "would", etc. are used to motivate us.

Presuppositions are used in a process when there aren't enoug h elements, and the decision is taken based on intuition.

Cause-effect – all our interpersonal relations are governed by this connection. From another point of view, the relation can be seen as a presupposition because you presuppose that something causes something else. (Bandler,1993).

Universal quantifiers "always", "everything", as a way of generalization, helps at deleting the information.

The importance of sensory experience – eye orientation, tonality, mimicry, gestures, may provide enough information in order to take a decision or in case of a less communicative person.

Complex equivalence – refers to finding the „breach word" and its reintroduction in another sentence, without changing its meaning. „Having a high market share means increased sale s" may be changed into „Did you make an attempt to increase your sales using new marketing methods?" The person alone must discover what are those experiences which lead to a change in the initial state or, in other words, what experiences help in collecti ng pieces of information.

The structure of a complex equivalence
I.S. = E.B.
Interior state/meaning = Exterior behavior
Nominalization = something referred to, which can be seen, heard, felt

We encode on our mind display the exterior event or the event referred to, usually presented as an action or a set of actions. By contrast, the map of significance which we build is usually a static image, a semantic interpretation, hence the static code involved in nominalization – selfish, trust, love.

The structure of cause-effect statement
S   A (answer to stimulus)
This event object   Causes this event

We usually create on our mind display a map of an object or event (noun or nominalization) as producing, causing or leading to another object or event.

Chart taken from Dr. Hall Michaell L. – The neuro–linguistic programming, Editura Curtea veche, Bucureşti, 2007, p.148

Mind reading is a model correlating with the presuppositions. „I know what you are thinking of", „You don't have to be upset" means that you can read the other person's mind . „You don't have to be upset", „They really hate me" lack the presupposition that the person is upset or hated by somebody. „Speaking in a low voice helps me relax" is a cause -effect relationship but there is also the presupposition that it may have the s ame effect on the other person as it has on me.

Lost performatives are things such as „mad", „bad ", and "resistant". Is there is an assessment of a lost performative, and the person who made it left and the criteria taken into consideration are at presen t unknown, then the performances can be „recovered" by the use of such questions as „Who is mad, bad or resistant?". Other such questions to recover the data are:"Resistant compared to what/whom?".

4. THE INFLUENCE OF METAPROGRAMS AND METAMODELS OF LEADER S IN COMPANY MANAGEMENT

„Firstly, the significance of our communication represents the effect it produces. Everything that happens to us, every reaction we obtain is the result of our actions and the way we act. Secondly, every person has a unique percept ion over the world. We can even say that there is no reality, just perception. This aspect doesn't make a person's perception to be correct and another one's not, but simply to be different" (Knight, 2003). In order to have an efficient communication in an organization, the leader must succeed in using the significant elements in speech, the reaction in behavior, so that his result would be a position and to reflect in the same manner on the employees. „The environment is a part of the metamessage and it o ften represents the first harbor for making new business connections." (Knight, 2003). No answer could be found to the question if metaprograms are inborn or acquired. But they can transform. Two elements influence their change: the context where the perso n lies and the time when the change must take place. The environment represents the „vehicle" used to carry the codes in the messages. The environment may „impoverish", or „enrich" a message, depending on the information used previously to load it.

Metaprograms represent „the higher level of mental processes through which we sort experiences and we react" (Szekely, 2003). A leader who is unable to sort experiences and to react to them is a weak leader, but a very good executor. The role of metaprograms is t o interconnect the person with the internal and external environment. Three axes interconnect in metaprograms: „the first axis is represented by the logical levels – identity, beliefs, skills, and the second axis – behavior and environment, while the third axis – our own person, the others" (Dilts, 2007). When a leader succeeds in combining these three axes: logical levels, behavior and his own person, it means that on the one side he succeeds in coping with the requirements from the internal environment , t o meet them well and in time, and on the other hand he can successfully comply with the external pressure, stress sources and he can react very well, so much for him as for an organization.

On the other hand, the role of metaprograms is to filter the infor mation coming up daily from the environment and assailing the person. They „sort" the information received according to the stimuli, keeping the most important ones and sending them to the brain to be processed. A dominant stimulus can help a piece of info rmation pass the filter barriers of the metaprograms and reach the brain to be processed. For example, a prisoner who escaped from jail and reached a town will see around him only policemen, although they were there before. But metaprograms are programmed to follow a certain type of information in the environment while the others are ignored. Their number should be improved, as metaprograms ensure the operation of routine programs.

In the technical literature of the 70's, they varied from 20 to 70. Today, it is considered that 14 metaprograms represents an optimum number. (14).

"Our behavior, the manner in which we dress, affects on one side the others and on the other side it sends messages about what is important to us" (Knight, 2003). „It is important the manner in

which we communicate, verbally or non-verbally, as well as the way in which we turn to advantage our skills in order to reach a certain result" (Knight, 2003). In order to communicate efficiently, a leader must succeed in transmitting first of all non-verbal messages. Based on Albert Mahrebian's study, 93% of what we communicate is non-verbal that is 55% non-verbal language and 38% tonality, while only 7% is represented by words of the total message sent. (17). Indeed, it is really difficult to consciously decode the non-verbal language, but sending it at a conscious level is done quite easy.

The metaprogram „closeness - farness"

A leader using the metaprogram „I turn to ..." almost always tries to delete the dangers, the traps. The motivation of such a leader is done by anticipating possible dangers but having at hand the backup solutions to such problems, also in case of managing priorities. This leader's weak point is that they don't always admit the problems which should be avoided. The other category of metaprograms which might be used is „closeness to result", „closeness to winning". Their motivation appears when it exists or it is foreshadowed an obstacle or a problem.

Such leaders' weak point is the poor management of priorities, being att racted a lot by details, by things which don't work and they don't always have a general point of view. Unlike the first model, these leaders don't take dangers seriously, being more preoccupied by finding opportunities and solutions. A leader must be in t he middle, but more towards farness.   Adopted ideas (Charvet, 2006).

The metaprogram „options – procedures"

A leader with the metaprogram options will have „trials", „probabilities", „alternatives". A leader who currently uses „alternatives", „options", „possibilities" means that he uses the metaprogram options. Creativity is their strong point. This also manifests through breaking the regulations, the rules and procedures. The leaders' weak point is that even though they start a plan or a new idea they don't finish it. The non-verbal language may help in the identification of the type of filter used in the metaprograms. Therefore, if a leader gesticulates fully, openly, in many directions, it means that he uses the filter options. A leader using in his cu rrent speech „a well established plan", „from this point to that point", „procedures", „just so" it means that he uses the filter procedures. Such a leader having the metaprogram procedures, after knowing the „procedure" he will be able to use it in need, will finish what he has begun. Instead, their weak point is exactly the procedures – they feel lost without them, they cannot work otherwise (Charvet, 2006). The non-verbal language may help in identifying the type of filter used in metaprograms. If the ge sticulation is calm, steady, rare, it mean that in the metaprograms he uses the filter procedures. In order to be an optimum leader, the balance must be more towards the optional, as he is more flexible in thought more courageous, capable of risking, tries new ways, than the procedural who is always more calculated, will always do very well the same thing, but sometimes in order to get out of a crises situation some ingenuity is needed, and the filter options provides this. (14).

The metaprogram details - entirety

For the metaprogram details, the leader will observe all the details in his surroundings. For example: „two accounts", „three workers", „six windows". The information is filtered and processed in small packages, as detailed as possible (Charvet, 2006). In other words, the person sees the trees, but he doesn't see the forest. The weak point of such a leader is that he doesn't succeed easily in establishing priorities. As for the metaprogram entirety, the person will „see" the image as a whole. For example, he will say „this accounting program is very easy to use".

The notion of metamodel was taken from Noam Chomsky. He defined them as being those filters of „deletion, distortion, generalization", but these are limited in amplitude/scope. In other words, when receiving information from the environment, a person deletes certain elements he finds inconvenient, in excess, which don't pass over a certain intensity level. Then the information is distorted by the receiver as it was determined that the subjec t attaches his own emotional state received from the environment which then he generalizes and attributes the value of truth. But at this point, the information resulted doesn't always have much to do with the initial information. For

this reason there often appear many deficiencies in interpreting the information. Some classifications find 12 such deletions, distortions, generalizations, other 10. We can put the best question in any situation, so that we become more and more efficient (14).

The metaprogram „ resemblance, resemblance with one exception, difference"

The leader with the metamodel resemblance is doing the same things and has the same results as before. He can be an executor, a very good professional, but not a very good leader. These persons usually observe the resemblance and some exceptions. (Dilts, 2007) The leader with the metamodel difference is doing something else every time, is trying something new all the time. He never repeats the same thing. The persons with this metamodel usually obs erve the differences and some exceptions. (Dilts, 2007) The leader with the metaprogram resemblance with an exception is generally an even-minded person, with a combination of the characteristics of both metaprograms resemblance and difference, but with mo re accents on resemblance than on difference. This represents a reasonable compromise for an optimum leader.

The metaprogram „internal – external"

The leader with the internal filter is motivated from the inside. When a subordinate has the metaprogram internal, and he receives an order from his superior he will act according to his own experience. The techniques used to convince a person with en internal filter „I wonder what is your opinion about…", „I am curious of what you say about..", „You probably kn ow already that you have to write the report..". These linguistic attenuators allow you to be heard by a person having a very strong internal filter." (14) Generally, the persons with such metaprograms gather information from the external environment, filt ers them using their own tools, but the decision belong to them entirely, nobody from the exterior must interfere in the decision -taking (Charvet, 2006).

„The leaders with an external filter have their motivational source in the exterior; they get motivated by doing something. When receiving an order from his superior, the person with an exterior filter executes the order immediately. Such a person is persuaded by being polite with him"(14). The feedback represents for these leaders the reason to go on. The refore, they confirm to themselves that what they did was good. The weak point of the leaders with such a metaprogram is that they will never succeed in starting a new activity without an exterior feedback (Charvet, 2006).

The metaprogram „closeness - farness"

The leaders with the metamodel „closeness" succeed in focusing easily on the objectives to be accomplished. The source of the motivation is represented by: to reach, to accomplish, to win. The persons with such a metaprogram have as their strong poi nt the optimum usage of priorities. Their weak point is the poor identification of possible problems which might appear during a project.

The leaders with the metamodel „farness" focus mainly on the obstacles which should be avoided. Their motivational s ource is represented by the obstacles which must be avoided. The strong point of the leaders having this metaprogram is the successful crises management, while their weak point is the adverse treatment of priorities, almost all the time being preoccupied w ith crises solving.

The metamodel has some linguistic distinctions which help in identifying the linguistic types which hide the meaning in the communication process of deletion and generalization (15). The metalanguage studies the rules of phrases (synta x), and not phrases as such. On the other side, any person is capable of using his/her own cognitive abilities in order to realize if a group of words forms a clause or not and which is its meaning. One of the aims of language is of transformation and modeling, these being accessible to every native speaker (Bandler, 1975). „The metamodel has as its premise the idea that words (surface structure) get meaning only when they anchor to a person an internal sensory representation or an experience (deep structur e)" (Dilts, 2007)

Operations specific to metamodels are the following: deletion, comparisons, unspecified referential indexes, nominalizations, search in past experiences, unspecified verbs, modal operators,

presuppositions, cause-effect, universal quantifiers, the importance of sensory experience, complex equivalence, mind reading, lost performatives (Bandler, 1993).

Deletion – we delete information at any moment. The idea is not to delete important information and how to do that. Certain models such as „I'm confused", „I'm upset", „I'm happy" provide the recovery of the information previously deleted. Words such as „happy", „upset", „confused", „scared", are predicates. In a clause such as „John ordered wine, while Mary a Martini." In certain cases, certain information can be deleted.

Comparisons – „The best...", „The worst..", „Better than..", „Worse than..", „Compared to..", „many comparisons are a way of deleting.", according to Bandler (Bandler, 1993). For example „This is important." „How important is it exactly? And especially for whom?".

Unspecified referential indexes – words such as „who", „what", „them", „this", „people" are words that can delete information referring to people or objects (Bandler, 1993). For example „I tried to sell in the area you indicated, but I simply can't do it", „How come you can't do it?".

Nominalizations – The transformation of the action in a noun as static entity or object. The tension built in the room" is like saying, "The carpenter built in the room (Bandler, 1993)."

Search in past experiences – for example „I had a meeting..." means searching in the previous experience until finding a reference of that word, in this case „meeting". The search is done until finding the „meeting" which was attended to. This word has also the role of anchor (Bandler, 1993).

Unspecified verbs – „believe", „know", „feel", „touch", generally verbs of sensation are considered to be unspecified verbs. These verbs have the characteristic of making you think of a certain process and also to become aware of your senses (Bandler, 1993). For example: „I think I made a good impression.", „How do you think you made a good impression ?".

Modal operators –, „must", „mustn't", „necessary", „unnecessary". Modal operators can be of possibility and of necessity. The modal operators of possibility „I can do this operation, but it will take a while.", „I can't send this....". They can be „I can", „I can't", „possible", „impossible". The modal operators of necessity „should", „shouldn't", „must", „ha ve to". For example: „What would happen if you did that operation? (Bandler, 1993)". For example „I could have made an effort", „And what would have happened if you hadn't done it?"

Presuppositions – are used when one guesses that something will happen. T he presupposition will only make reference to a presupposed moment of the action. „Next week when we shall meet you will tell me how much you have changed? (Bandler, 1993)". For example: ". Their team also succeeded in reaching their sales plan.", "That me ans that you too have reached your sales plan?".

Cause-effect – follows the relation „She makes me feel bad...". All our interpersonal relations are governed by this connection. From another point of view, the relation can be seen as a presupposition because you presuppose that something causes something else (Bandler, 1993). For example: „These excuses are annoying!", „Why exactly are this excuses annoying?"

Universal quantifiers – „everything", „each", „never", „always". Universal quantifiers are a way of deleting information because these terms help at generalizations, and at including some terms in other categories, usually less (Bandler, 1993).

The importance of sensory acuity – eye orientation, tonality, mimicry, gestures may give enough information in order to take a decision or in case of a less communicative person (Bandler, 1993).

Complex equivalence – means finding the „breach word" and its reintroduction in another sentence, without changing its meaning. „Having a high market share means having b ig sales" can be changed in „Did you try to change your sales plan using new marketing methods?" The person alone must discover what are the experiences which lead to changing the initial state or in other words, what experiences help in collecting informa tion. In other cases, the need for challenges is felt, depending on the perception on the self and also on the interventions the person wants to make (Bandler, 1993). „My secretary resigned. I will be bankrupt until the end of the year.", „Do you mean that your business success depended on your secretary's status as employee?"

Unlike the metaprogram which is singularized according to each person's peculiarity, the metamodel succeeds to a certain extent to generalize certain questions, doubt, problems. For example, a leader may think that the last presentations were not really a success or that the employees' expectations in what concerns the technical demonstrations are really high. For example, „These presentations never go as they should". The challenge t he leader should answer to is – „Did a presentation ever go as it should have? How well should a presentation go for me to be content? What presentation go wrong?". Another sentence which is worth analyzing is the following: „They expect me to coordinate t he material and all the technical demonstrations". The challenge the leader should answer to is the following: „Who expects me to coordinate both aspects? How can I manage the presentation? How do they know that I will coordinate the material as well as the demonstrations?" Answering to such questions raises the leaders' personal trust, while the management's visible, tangible results don't cease to appear (Knight, 2003).

Managing the exterior dialogue – the exterior dialogue influences the people we work with as we influence ourselves through the internal dialogue. Questions follow us until we find the answer or until we question the people aimed. People relate with us and interact based on the state we mainly induce them. Personal limitations in what conc erns the achievement of objectives may be accomplished by using modal operators of possibility and necessity, such as: „I can", „I want", „I must", „I should".

5. CONCLUSIONS

Metaprograms are fundamental instruments used by a leader to ensure success an d stability of the organization. Any incompatibility between the leader's metaprograms and those of the members of the organization may lead to serious functional disorders, in human resources as well as in reaching the objectives set. Therefore, there are certain „incompatibilities" between various metaprograms, which are to be avoided for better results at organization level. The following chart is relevant:

Leader	Organization	Recommendation
Closeness-farness	Closeness-farness	To be avoided
Options-procedures	Options-procedures	To be avoided
Details-entirety	Details-entirety	To be avoided
Internal - external	Internal - external	To be avoided
Closeness-farness	Options-procedures	To be used
Options-procedures	Closeness-farness	To be used
Closeness-farness	Details-entirety	To be avoided
Details-entirety	Closeness-farness	To be avoided
Closeness-farness	Internal - external	Neutral
Internal - external	Closeness-farness	Neutral

„Metaprograms are „things" that people do, and not things that just „exist". They are a form of generalization and usually have a specific context. Metaprograms may change in time by using various NLP techniques. Metaprograms are useful in certain contexts, therefore having different results, and they cannot be listed as being just „ good" or just „bad" (Charvet, 2006).

Metamodels are very powerful instruments used to gather information, to find alternatives and clarify meanings. They are used in the interior dialogue and on the other hand internal reality is built from the words used but it can be used as resource. Lacking report, the metamodel generates metamutilation and metainfatuation. Unconsciously, we delete information when we speak because

we assume a context divided between all speakers and in that context we sha re presuppositions and knowledge with the others (O'Connor, 2001).

Grinder and Bandler, the founders of NLP, took from Noam Chomsky the theory on metaprograms and adapted it, keeping though his theory on "deletion, distortion, generalization". In other words, using our own sensory apparatus, we delete certain information, or those which don't pass over a certain level we disconsider, then we distort them, because the information we receive are interpreted by us through our already existing knowledge or we transpose on the information our own personal experience. Firstly, we generalize what we obtained at the second level, in this situation the same information seen by two or more people may have two completely different meanings. This shouldn't happen, or a t least not very often, inside organizations.

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