

**TRAINING MODULE ON PERSONALITY
DEVELOPMENT**

**Sponsored by
Department of Personnel & Training
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&
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FOREWORD

The influence of human personality upon the functional efficiency of an organization and its personnel has been widely recognized. The personality can also be modified to a certain extent. Accordingly, recent years have seen a variety of efforts by professionals in various fields to design courses that will help develop certain positive trends in personality. The objective of such courses is to remove or screen out those barriers or obstructions that stand in the way of the expression of individual personality, through a process of training.

2. The present module on personality development is specifically design to cater to the demands of training courses organized for senior officers in order to improve functional efficiency. The module covers 9 areas. It was validated in two stages, and contains the distilled wisdom of this consultative process. When effectively operationalised, the module should ensure that participants are given adequate opportunity to gain skills that will help improve their functional efficiency.

3. This project was undertaken by the Institute of Management in Government (IMG) at the behest of the Department of Personnel and Training (DoPT), Government in India.

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Dr.Chandra Prasad Sreedhar

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Package of Personality Development

Aim

The training module is aimed at the promotion of the strategies for the personality development of the participants. The rationale behind this endeavor is the recognition of the multifaceted influence of the personality of the employees upon organisational effectiveness.

Objectives

The objective of the training programme is bring about personality development with regard to the different behavioural dimensions that have far reaching significance in the direction of organisational effectiveness.

Methodology

Lecture-cum-discussion
Group Discussion
Management Games
Case Studies

Participants

The participants will consists of officers in the A,B and C category.

DURATION : 5 days

Course content

Unit 1	Leadership	Introduction to Leadership, Leadership Power, Leadership Styles, Leadership in Administration.
Unit 2	Interpersonal Relations	Introduction to Interpersonal Relations, Analysis of different ego states, Analysis of Transactions, Analysis of Strokes, Analysis of Life position
Unit 3	Communication	Introduction to Communication, Flow of Communication, Listening, Barriers of Communication, How to overcome barriers of communication.
Unit 4	Stress Management	Introduction to Stress, Causes of Stress, Impact Stress, Managing Stress
Unit 5	Group Dynamics and Team Building	Importance of groups in organization, Interactions in group, Group Decision Taking, Team Building, Interaction with the Team, How to build a good team?
Unit 6	Conflict Management	Introduction to Conflict, Causes of Conflict, Managing Conflict
Unit 7	Performance Appraisal	Introduction to Performance Appraisal, Vertical Appraisal, Horizontal Appraisal, 360° Performance Appraisal, Methods of improving Techniques of Performance Appraisal.
Unit 8	Time Management	Time as a Resource, Identify Important Time Wasters, Individual Time Management Styles, Techniques for better Time Management.
Unit 9	Motivation	Introduction to Motivation, Relevance and types of Motivation, Motivating the subordinates, Analysis of Motivation

Day-wise Breakup

Day 1	Session I	Registration, Familiarisation and Inauguration and Introduction to the Course
	Session II	Problem identification, report presentation and discussion
	Session III	Introduction to Leadership
	Session IV	Leadership Styles
Day 2	Session I	Interpersonal Relations
	Session II	Boss-Subordinate Relations
	Session III	Introduction to Communication
	Session IV	Barriers of Communication
Day 3	Session I	Introduction to Stress and Causes of Stress
	Session II	Impact of Stress and Managing Stress
	Session III	Group Dynamics
	Session IV	Team Building
Day 4	Session I	Introduction to Conflict
	Session II	Managing Conflict
	Session III	Introduction to Performance Appraisal
	Session IV	Designing a Performance Appraisal System
Day 5	Session I	Time Management
	Session II	Managing time meaningfully
	Session III	Motivation
	Session IV	Action Plan, Evaluation and Valediction

Day One (Forenoon)

Registration, Familiarisation and Inauguration. (45 minutes)

Introduction to the course (45 minutes)

This session involves a detailed discussion pertaining to the aims and objectives of the course in general. The introduction of the total content areas is also attempted in this session.

Problem Identification (45 minutes)

Suggested methodology – Group discussion.

During this session the participants will be divided into specific number of groups and each group is expected to discuss the problems that they are facing in their organisation. Each group is to have a leader who is to present a consolidated report of the problems faced by the members of his group.

Report Presentation and discussion (45 minutes)

After the presentation of the reports by each of the leaders, in order to fulfil the requirement of this session in Problem Identification, the course director will be preparing a detailed list of all the problems cited. The list of problems will then be circulated to all the trainers who are handling the various sessions.

Day One (Afternoon) - Leadership

Objectives

To impart knowledge, sharpen skills and orient attitudes of participants so that they are capable of performing better in their roles as leaders based on the situation.

Content

Leadership – importance and significance – the concept – leader vs. manager – Are all leaders managers? - Are all managers leaders? – categories of leaders : entrepreneurial – administrative – political. Leadership styles : autocratic (authoritarian and paternalistic) – democratic – laizzes faire. Leadership style – the concept of situational leadership – identification of individual leadership styles and construction of personal leadership style profiles.

Methodology Suggested

- (1) Lecture
- (2) Games
- (3) Group Discussion
- (4) Case Studies

Time Schedule

1.	Lecture cum discussion on leadership concepts	–	45 minutes
2.	Exercise of tower building and discussion	-	60 minutes
3.	TP Leadership style questionnaire & Construction of Personal Leadership style profiles	-	30 minutes
4.	Experience sharing	-	45 minutes

	Total	-	180 minutes

Instructions to Trainers

- During the initial discussion importance and primacy of leadership should be highlighted. The concept of *leader* and manager should compared and contrasted. It should be made clear that while *categorization of leadership* is based on *what leaders do* or *what they are capable of doing best*, identification of *leadership styles* is based on *how leaders perform* the tasks of:

- (1) making decisions
- (2) implementing decisions

- ***The tower building exercise***, if properly conducted, can be a very powerful tool to bring out participants' leadership styles and even to compare their relative merits and demerits.

Two participants should be requested to volunteer to take up the roles of ***leader*** and ***follower***. They should be requested to come to the front and shown the blocks with which they have to build a tower. They should also be told that the "***follower***" will be blind folded and that she/he will be allowed to use only one hand and will have to build the tower based on the ***leader's*** instructions.

It should also be told that they should try to build as high a tower as possible. Before announcement of work, they should be asked to give their ***estimate*** of the height of the tower they are going to build in terms of number of blocks. These should be recorded. Care should be taken to note even minute details such as whether the ***estimates*** given are based on mutual consultation or are individual opinions.

After the briefing, the ***follower*** should be blindfolded and made to stand on one side of the table on which the blocks are kept and the leader should be instructed to stand on the opposite side. Then they should proceed to ***construct*** the tower. Even minute aspects of the behaviour of the leader and follower should be observed and recorded, such as:

- (1) leader's behaviour at the beginning especially ***goal setting***
- (2) whether the leader tries to encourage, control and motivate the follower.
- (3) Does the leader provide feedback to the follower? If yes, is it sufficient.
- (4) How do they respond/react in case the ***tower*** collapses during the ***construction***.
- (5) Leaders behaviour at ***Project completion***.

After the team completes the tower construction there should be a guided discussion on all aspects of the teams performance viz., goal setting, leadership styles, communication, empathy etc.

- The TP Leadership Questionnaire should be administered after the exercise of tower building. Required instructions are given on the Questionnaire, Score Sheet and Leadership style, Profile Sheet.

Based on the leadership style of individual participants, discussions as to whether any change in their styles is required etc. can be made.

Day Two (Forenoon) - Interpersonal Relations (Transactional Analysis)

Objectives

To create an awareness in the participants with regard to the different aspects of interpersonal relations based on the ideas envisaged in Transactional Analysis and their relative significance in the context of the functional effectiveness of organisations.

Contents

Introduction
Analysis of different ego states
Analysis of Transactions
Analysis of Strokes
Analysis of Life position

Methodology

1. Lecture Method
2. Questionnaire method

Time Schedule

15 minutes Introduction
45 minutes Analysis of different ego states
30 minutes Administor the questionnaire and analysis different ego states
30 minutes Analysis of Transactions
30 minutes Analysis of Strokes
30 minutes Analysis of Life position

Instruction to Trainers

1. Introduction

In this section, participants are to be provided with theoretical knowledge with regard to nature, types and outcomes of various interpersonal relationships in relation with Transactional Analysis.

2. **Analysis of Ego States**

In this session Ego States are to be analysed with the help of concrete examples in the organisational set up. This session involves the use of a lecture-cum-discussion method.

After the analysis of ego status the questionnaire for identifying the same may be administered to the participants and their responses scored in accordance with the scoring schedule provided. The scores are then analysed and interpreted in order to provide the participants informations regarding this relative positions with regard to different ego states.

3. **Analysis of Transactions**

The participants should be made aware of the different types of transactions such as complementary, crossed and ulterior transactions and are then encouraged to identify their predominant style of transaction. Then the merits and demerits of the different styls are evaluated and the need, scope and method of changing the styles as and when required is also discussed.

4. **Analysis of Strokes**

Strokes can be considered in the most simple way as forms of rewards (appreciations) and punishments. They can be either positive or negative and all people need them for being and also for performing. After providing the awareness regarding the different stroking patterns to the participants, they are asked to make an evaluation of their stroking patterns and identify their merits and demerits and also to suggest changes, if any, required in stroking patterns to enhance interpersonal relationships.

5. **Analysis of Life Positions**

As per the concepts involved in Transactional Analysis, four different types of Life positions have been identified. They are:

1. I am OK You are OK
2. I am not OK You are not OK
3. I am OK You are not OK
4. I am not OK You are OK

The trainer has to provide evaluative information regarding these life positions to the participants and they should be encouraged to identify their life positions and understand merits and demerits. The participants are also made to come out with suggestions for changing their life positions in accordance with the appropriation of the situations in order to enhance interpersonal contracts.

Day Two (Afternoon) - Communication In Organisations

Objectives

To empower participants to be better communicators by providing them with relevant inputs and also sharpening their skills.

Contents

Introduction to Communication – Communication as a process – Communication as a concept – Importance of Communication – Types of Communication – Effective Communication - The ABCs of Communication – Model for Communication process – Communication categories – Barriers to effective Communication.

Methodology

The methodology shall consist of Lecture, exercises, games, inventories and case studies.

Time Schedule

1.	Introduction and clarification of concepts (lecturette)	-	20 minutes
2.	Exercise – Please follow the Instructions	-	10 minutes
3.	Barriers to Effective Communication (story telling exercise and Lecturette)	-	60 minutes
4.	Exercise – Separate Fact from Inference	-	10 minutes
5.	Questionnaire on Listening	-	10 minutes
6.	Questionnaire on Speaking	-	10 minutes
7.	Drawing exercise	-	30 minutes
8.	Improving Communication	-	30 minutes

	Total	-	180 minutes

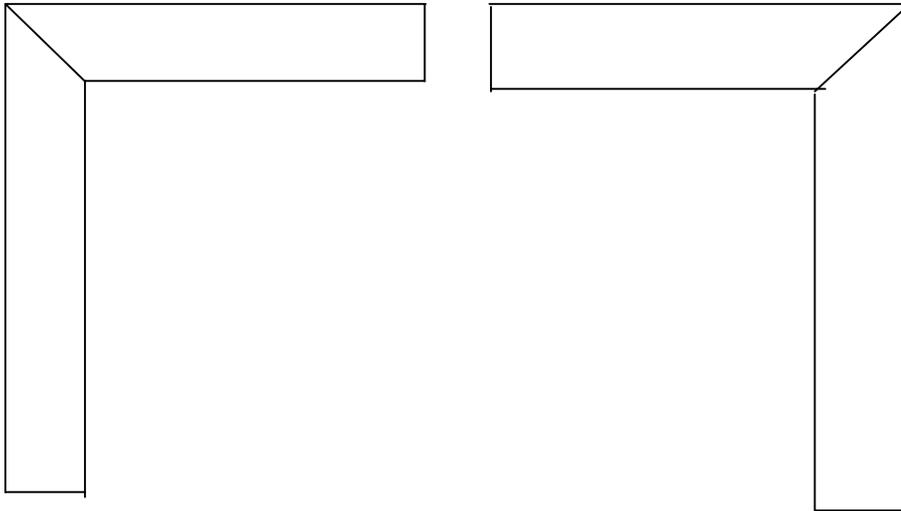
Instructions to Trainers

- (i) Read the write up, “Communication in Organizations” thoroughly. The sequence of topics suggested for the session closely follows the text.
- (ii) An appropriate ice breaker should be used at the beginning of the session.
- (iii) Whenever OHP is used, take care not to turn back and look at the screen. The trainer should always face the audience. If something is to be pointed, it can be done on the transparency, which will also get projected.
- (iv) The following modus operandi is suggested for the story telling exercise:
 - (a) request five volunteers to wait outside the hall at a distance from where they cannot hear what somebody speaks in the class.
 - (b) allot them numbers 1-5 and tell them that they will have to return to class in this order when called
 - (c) request anyone in the hall to share an interesting incident in her/his life, which other participants do not know.
 - (d) After the narration is over, request volunteer No.1 to return to the class. She/he may be given a chair right in the front.
 - (e) Request any member in the audience to come forward and repeat the narration she/he heard. Volunteer No.1 should be asked to listen carefully to the narration and others should be instructed not to offer explanations, clarifications etc.
 - (f) After this step is over, volunteer No.2 should be brought to the class and Volunteer No.1 should tell her/him what he heard.
 - (g) This process has to be continued. Volunteer No.2 should repeat what she/he heard to Volunteer No.3 and Volunteer No.3 has to do the same with Volunteer No.4.
 - (h) Volunteer No.4 should be asked to go to Volunteer No.5 who is waiting outside and tell her/him what she/he heard.

- (i) After step (h) Volunteer Nos.4 and 5 should return to the class. Volunteer No.4 should be requested to occupy a seat and No.5 should be asked to repeat what she/he heard to the group.
- (j) The narrations by Volunteer No.5 and that of the original storyteller can be compared to get some idea of the transmission alterations.
- (k) This exercise can be very interesting and audience usually burst out laughing during each narration.
- (l) It will be interesting to record the original story and the narration of the Volunteer No.5 for obvious reasons.
- (v) After the exercise “Separate Facts from Inference”, the trainer should point out that Separating Facts from Inferences is basically a communication skill irrespective of the field of applications. Number of correct responses by participants may also be checked (only statement No.3 is a fact). Differences in individual and group effectiveness can also be observed.
- (vi) For Questionnaires on Listening and Speaking, respondents should be asked to give ‘Yes’ or ‘No’ answers to each Question, based on how they would behave during majority of situations. They have to answer questions based on how they would behave and not how they should behave. Most participants will know the ideal answers and so the questionnaires will give them some idea about themselves as listeners and speakers. If necessary, the trainer can give some explanations.
- (vii) The modus operandi to conduct the drawing exercise will be as follows:

The participants may be divided in to two equal groups (say No. Ones and No. Twos) and one group can be asked to wait outside the hall.

To each participant inside the hall a piece of paper ($\frac{1}{2}$ of an A4 size sheet) should be given and they should be requested to write their names on top left. The following 2 figures should be projected on the screen and each participant should copy one of the figures on their sheets of paper reasonably big enough, with the sketch pens that will be supplied to them.



Then they should be given the instruction sheet – sample attached – which will be of A4 size. The group of No. Ones who are given the role of senders should be given the task of making one from the other group (they will be receivers) draw the same diagram that No. Ones have drawn initially on the right hand side of the instruction sheet, by giving written instructions. They cannot give any pictorial directives. After the Senders’ finish writing down instructions their initial drawings should be collected and kept away. The pictures should no longer be projected on the screen. then the group, which has been waiting outside the hall, should be asked to come in. The senders should hand over the instruction sheets to the receivers. The sender should not be allowed to orally communicate with the receivers. But they should be encouraged to watch how the receivers proceed. Once the receivers have completed ‘their’ drawings the instruction sheets should be collected back and each drawing should be paired with its “original”. Each set should be shown to the entire group with trainers comments whenever appropriate.

Day Three (Forenoon) - Stress Management

Objectives

The principal objectives of this unit are to familiarize the participants with the knowledge regarding the various causes of stress, type of stresses and above all the various stress management strategies.

Content

Introduction to Stress Management - Causes of Stress - Impact of Stress - Managing Stress

Methods

Lecture method
Group discussion
Relaxation Techniques (Demonstration)

Time Schedule

30 minutes - Introduction
45 minutes - Causes of Stress
45 minutes - Impact of Stress
45 minutes - Managing Stress
15 minutes - Question and answers session

Instruction to trainers

Introduction of Stress Management

This is the first topic of the units namely the Introduction. The following factors should be covered.

- 1) What is Stress?
- 2) Relevance of Stress
- 3) Difference between Distress and Eustress
- 4) General Adaptation Syndrome

Causes of Stress

The second part of the unit is aimed at analysing the Causes of Stress. This analysis will be through a group discussion. The whole class can be divided in to three groups. Each group has to analyse the causes along the following dimensions.

1. Organisational based stress
2. Family based stress
3. Social stresses

After the discussion each group has to present a brief report and the presentation will be again followed by evaluations and discussion

Impact of Stress

This part of the unit is aimed at analysing the impact of stress up on individual and organisation. Some of the topics covered in this sections include areas such as: (1) **Decision Making** (Indecision, Delay, Error), (2) **Performance** (Absenteeism, Sabotage, Productivity) (3) **Behavioural Area** (Excessive smoking, Excessive drinking, Excessive in take off coffee or tea, Tremor, Drumming Fingers, Nail Biting, Body Movements, Accidents (4) **Psychological** (Poor Memory, Poor Concentration, Sleep problems, Anxiety, Fear, Inability to relax, Depression, Suicide, Anger (5) **Psychosomatic** (Hyper tension, Peptic Ulcer, Irritable Bowel Syndrome, Tension head-ache, Bronchial Asthma, Diabetes, Neuro Dermatitis)

Managing Stress

This section involves a theoretical as well as a practical session. The theoretical session is aimed at increasing the awareness of participants regarding the influence of perceptual changes, personality, proper exercise, time management and the avoidance of long working hours in reducing the experience of stress.

The practical session involves the imparting of training in Yoga, Mediation and Relaxation. It is essential that this session should be handled by an expert in these areas.

Day Three (Afternoon) - Group Dynamics & Team Building

Objectives

To improve managerial capabilities of participants through team building and group dynamics.

Contents

Concept of team – concept of group - synergy – principles of intra-group dynamics relevant in the context of team building and management. How to build and manage effective teams.

Method

Lecture method
Games
Group work

Time Schedule

1.	The exercise of broken squares	-	45 minutes
2.	Discussion	-	30 minutes
3.	Participants' experience sharing	-	30 minutes
4.	Group work on developing an effective strategy for team building and management	-	45 minutes
5.	Presentation of reports	-	30 minutes

	Total	-	180 minutes

Instructions to Trainers

- A unique feature of the session on team building and management will be that a game/exercise will precede discussions
- The exercise of broken squares will be conducted without announcing that it is part of a session on team building and management
- To conduct the exercise of broken squares the group will be divided into teams of five members. If the group is not exactly divisible by five, the remaining members should be given the role of observers. They should be briefed before

commencement of the exercise and should be given a chance to present their observations after conclusion of the exercise.

- Each team of participants (consisting of five members) should be directed to sit around a table.
- Each team should be given a set of 5 covers each containing 3 pieces of thick paper.
- The teams should be told that they have to complete a group task. The task involves making 5 squares, one in front of each person, using the pieces of paper which they get from the covers.
- It should also be announced that though it will be possible to make 5 squares using the 15 pieces that each team gets, it may or may not be possible for an individual to make squares with the pieces she/he gets from her/his cover.
- The following rules of the game should be stated very clearly:
 - Participants should not express their desire to get pieces from others in any manner.
 - Grabbing pieces from others is prohibited.
 - Participant should not talk at all during the exercise
 - Sub contracting is not allowed ie., one person should not make squares for others.
 - No one is captain or leader ie., every member has the same status as a group member
 - Participants should refrain from mutilating the pieces in any way. ie, bending, folding, tearing, cutting etc. of pieces are not allowed.
 - However, participants are free to accept pieces from any or all of the four other members if they offer pieces on their own.
 - Participants are free to offer their pieces to any or all of the other four members.
 - It is not obligatory on the part of the participants to offer pieces in return to the ones they accept.
 - Participants may not get pieces from others in exchange of the ones given.
 - No participant should offer directions to others even non-verbally.

- It would be accepted that teams have completed their tasks, when they have five squares, one in front of each member.
- The trainer (and other observers if any) should move around closely observing what happens in each team.
- The exercise should be wound up either after all teams have completed the task or the lapse of 30 minutes after commencement of the task (excluding briefing) whichever is earlier.
- The exercise should be followed by a discussion highlighting important aspects of intra-group dynamics significant in the conduct of team building and management. While analysing what happened during the game, care should be taken to cover the following.
 - (i) States of mind undergone by participants when they took part in the game
 - (ii) feelings and emotions experienced by participants during the game
 - (iii) behaviours exhibited by participants during square building

The following points should essentially be covered.

- (i) ***Failure to perceive the group-work as it should be.*** The moment a square is ready in front them, some participants may withdraw from the group-work assuming that they have nothing more to contribute.
- (ii) ***Playing the role of blockers to group.*** Eg. Participants making squares in the wrong way (ie., the use of pieces to make a square in such a way which will prevent all five people making squares)
- (iii) ***Consumption of more than due share of organizational resources*** (making squares with more than three pieces and remaining unwilling to dismantle them even after observing that there are not sufficient pieces for everybody to make squares).
- (iv) ***Satisfaction with limited achievements*** (Participants making small squares with less than 3 pieces and remaining satisfied with them even after observing that others are making squares much bigger than theirs).
- (v) ***Collecting resources and idling them*** (same participants go on accepting pieces whenever someone offers, irrespective of whether they need it or not. They accumulate pieces which they cannot use and prevent others from using them)
- (vi) ***Hard but unproductive work*** (some participants go on collecting and distributing pieces. they even try to give directions to others breaking the rules of the game. Lot of activity takes place but squares are not being formed).

- (vii) ***Realising the need for communication*** (many participants develop a feeling “If I could communicate”)
- (viii) ***Realising the need for well defined leadership*** (while they are engaged in this group task where no one is selected/appointed/elected as a leader, many may develop a feeling, “If we had a leader”)

Day Four (Forenoon) - Conflict Management

Objectives

To familiarise participants with the importance, influence and methods of managing conflict.

Content

Introduction to conflict – What is Conflict – Goal Conflict – Cognitive Conflict and Emotional Conflict (affection) . Levels of conflict –Intrapersonal Conflict – Interpersonal Conflict – Intragroup Conflict – Inter-group Conflict – Intra-Organisational Conflict. Managing Conflict and Conflict Resolution Styles.

Method

Lecture Method
Games
Group Discussion

Time Schedule

45 minutes - Introduction
45 minutes - Games
45 minutes - Levels of Conflict
45 minutes - Managing Conflict

Instruction to Trainers

Introduction

What is Conflict? Merits and demerits of Conflict? Is Conflict essential? Importance of Goal Conflict, Cognitive Conflict and Emotional Conflict – all those should be discussed.

Levels of Conflict

Awareness regarding levels of conflict can be provided to the participants through the analysis of the results of a Management Game.

Games

The participants are made to assemble in a room and the trainer will introduce a concept and ask the participants to mention this qualities or attributes of that concept. For eg., Leader – what are the qualities of leadership?

The members are encouraged to mention their own ideas regarding the concept. After the identification of each quality all the participants are required to note it down. In this manner a list of qualities/attributes will be prepared. Then each participant is encouraged to rank the qualities on the basis of his/her evaluation. Thus all the participants at this stage will be having a ranked list of qualities or attributes of the concept introduced by the trainers.

In the next stage the participants are divided into two groups. Then each group is asked to make a critical examination of the attributes and come out with a consensual ranking of the attributes. So at the end of this stage the two groups will each have a consensually ranked list of qualities or attributes.

Then from each group 4 participants will be identified as Spokespersons and they will be seated in front, others seated at their back side. The Spokespersons alone will speak others can of course give ideas to their respective Spokespersons. Each group is then instructed to enforce their ranking upon the other group without any sign of yielding. This is meant to evoke heated arguments, discussions so on and so forth. Finally both the groups will remain sticking to their own list.

In the next stage, the trainer will be selecting 4 other persons from each group and they will be instructed to settle the problem. The change in the attitude of this group can be clearly identified.

In the total game, when the participants are making individual ranking of the listed attributes what they are experiencing is intrapersonal conflict. This is actually what is being experienced by an officer in an Organization while he is involved in the process of decision making.

When the participants were in the two groups with their own ranked list they were in a state of intra group conflict.

In the stage of heated discussion between the two groups, the participants were experiencing intergroup conflict.

In all these situations, the existence interpersonal conflict can clearly be identified. After analysing the results of the games, the participants should be provided with maximum informations pertaining to the 4 different types of conflicts identified earlier.

Intra-Organizational Conflict

Four types of intra-organizational conflict exist: (1) vertical conflict (2) horizontal conflict (3) line-staff conflict and (4) role conflict. Participants should also be given informations regarding different aspects of these conflicts.

Managing Conflict

This part of the Unit is aimed at analysing the techniques of Managing Conflict. The whole class can be divided into 3 groups. Each group has to come out with suggestions regarding methods of resolving/overcoming conflicts.

After the discussion, each group has to present a brief report and the presentation will be followed by evaluation and discussion.

Day Four (Afternoon) - Performance Appraisal

Objectives

To clarify the concepts related to Performance Appraisal and create an awareness regarding its method of implementation in the context of its contribution to Personality Development.

Content

Performance Appraisal and overview - Techniques of Performance Appraisal - What should performance appraisal measure and who should do it - Application of Performance Appraisal - Designing a Performance Appraisal System

Time Schedule

35 minutes - Performance Appraisal and Overview
30 minutes - Techniques of Performance Appraisal
45 minutes - What should performance appraisal measure
30 minutes - Application of Performance Appraisal
45 minutes - Designing a Performance Appraisal System

Instructions to Trainers

Performance Appraisal – an overview

This is the first topic of the Unit. The following points should be covered:

- 1) Concept of Performance Appraisal
- 2) Need for Performance Appraisal
- 3) Ways of Performance Appraisal

Methodology suggested : Lecture
Duration : 35 minutes

Techniques of Performance Appraisal

This session should cover important Performance Appraisal Techniques and their relative merits and demerits.

Methodology suggested : Lecture
Duration : 30 minutes

What should Performance Appraisal measure and who should do it

a. What should Performance Appraisal measure

- 1) Work related knowledge
- 2) Creativity
- 3) Perceiverancies
- 4) Willingness to change
- 5) Attitude towards Boss-subordinates, Colleagues and Organisations
- 6) Skill Development

b. Who should do it

Discussion on this topic should lead to identification of the ideal person to do the job taking in to account factors such as job position, knowledge, skills, creativity etc.

Methodology : Lecture-cum-discussion
Duration : 45 minutes

Application of Performance Appraisal

- 1) Basis for reward and punishment
- 2) Basis for Personality Development

Methodology : Lecture-cum-discussion
Duration : 30 minutes

Designing a Performance Appraisal System

Group Work

Development of a Performance Appraisal System for your organisation. 45 minutes to be apportioned as suggested below:

- 10 minutes - Individual Enumerate points
- 10 minutes - Uninterrupted Presentation by individuals
- 25 minutes - Group Discussion
- 15 minutes - Presentation and Discussion

Day Five (Forenoon) - Time Management

Objectives

To impart relevant knowledge, sharpen the requisite skills and orient attitudes of participants so that they become more efficient with regard to the management of time.

Contents

The concept of time and time management – uniqueness of time as a resource – the cost of time – importance of and need for time management – causes of time mismanagement – urgency addiction and time management matrix – hard work vs. smart work – demands on one's time – different time management styles – time cheaters and beaters – goal setting and planning for long term time management – short term time management – good ideas for time management – managing meetings effectively – steps towards better time management.

Methodology

Methodology shall consist of lectures, inventories, exercises, discussions and film show.

Time Schedule

1. Introductory lecture covering basic concepts - 15 minutes
2. Estimating participants cost of time - 10 minutes

3.	Causes of time management (Lecture-cum-Discussion)	-	15 minutes
4.	Smart work Vs. hard work (Lecture-cum-Discussion)	-	10 minutes
5.	Demands on time and time management styles (Lecture)	-	20 minutes
6.	Identification of participant's time management styles	-	10 minutes
7.	The concept of time management matrix (lecture)	-	10 minutes
8.	Time cheaters and beaters (inventory)	-	10 minutes
9.	Long term and short term time management (Lecture)	-	15 minutes
10.	Managing meetings (lecture)	-	10 minutes
11.	Experience sharing (by participants)	-	15 minutes
12.	Steps towards better time management (lecture-cum-discussion)	-	15 minutes
13.	Action Planning (Group Exercise)	-	15 minutes
14.	Presentation of Plans	-	10 minutes

	Total	-	180 minutes

Instruction to Trainers

During the introductory lecture itself developing time sensitivity among participants should be attempted or rather achieved. Participants should be made aware of the uniqueness of time as the only resource equally distributed among people. The following characteristics about time also will have to be highlighted.

- (i) non-retrievability
- (ii) non-reservability
- (iii) irreplaceability
- (iv) irreversibility

Estimating cost of participants' time may be done using the proforma suggested.

Enumeration of the causes of time mismanagement should basically be an outcome of discussion during which participants should be encouraged to generate ideas.

Participants should be made to distinguish between hard work and smart work citing examples from their own lives or situations familiar to them.

Identification of individual time management styles can also be done using the relevant proforma which will help classifying people in to the following 8 groups.

1. Balanced time managers
2. Those who do their things well
3. Those who do others things well
4. Those with good intentions but no productivity
5. Unrealistic dreamers
6. Those who are on a tread mill
7. Delightful but incompetent persons
8. Persons neither delightful nor competent

The concept of time management matrix should be an eye opener to everyone. The characteristics of, and differences between, the quadrant of quality and the quadrant of deception should be made clear to all concerned. The participants should be urged to become quadrant II (quality) oriented.

Use of the proforma Time Cheaters and Beaters can be expected to make participants aware of the time cheaters which affect them and the corresponding time beaters they can use to deal with them.

Discussion on long term and short term time management should provide participants with further theoretical base and pragmatic ideas for effective time management.

The lecture on managing meetings will be very useful for those with conference / leadership responsibilities. However, this section can be skipped during programmes where the participants do not have such responsibilities.

Experience sharing should precede the discussion session on “steps towards better time management”. The success and failures narrated during experience sharing should provide inputs/ideas for group discussion.

For the group exercise viz., Action Planning, participants should be divided in to group of 5 members and a leader selected and assigned responsibilities. At the end, each group should be made to present their reports.

Day Five (Afternoon) - Motivation

Objective

To make the participants aware of the multifaceted impact of the concept of Motivation upon efficient organizational functioning.

Contents

Introduction - Relevance and Types of Motivation - Theories of motivation - Analysis of Motivation - Motivating the subordinate.

Methodology

- (1) Lecture Method
- (2) Questionnaire Method

Time Schedule

- 30 minutes - Introduction
- 30 minutes - Relevance and types of Motivation
- 30 minutes - Motivating the subordinates
- 30 minutes - Analysis of Motivation

Instructions to Trainers

1. Introduction

The session relating to this topic should cover informations relating to different motivational concepts and the theories of Maslow Mc Clelland, Herzberg and so on.

2. Relevance and Types of Motivation

In this session participants should be provided with informations pertaining to the relevance of Motivation to performance. They should also be made aware of the different types of motivations such as Positive motivation, Negative or Fear motivation, Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation etc.

3. Analysis of Motivation

Through the use of case analysis and questionnaire the participants should be made aware of the operation of the different motivational concepts.

4. Motivating Subordinates

Through the use of active discussion with the participants, the trainers can make the participants informed about the methods by which motivational level of subordinates can be enhanced.

Day Five (Afternoon) - Evaluation and Valediction

Time Schedule (1 hour)

This session should be devoted to prepare an Action Plan and Evaluation.

It is expected to incorporate all possible ideas and suggestions that have evolved during the course of training.

An evaluation feed back regarding the merits and demerits of the module will also sought.

T.P.LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

Directions

The following items describe aspects of leadership behaviour. Respond to each item according to what you would most likely act if you were the leader of a work group by circling the appropriate response given at the left of each statement.

Code	Response
A	Always
F	Frequently
O	Occasionally
S	Seldom
N	Never

A F O S N	1.	I would most likely act as the spokesman of the group
A F O S N	2.	I would encourage overtime work
A F O S N	3.	I would allow members complete freedom in their work
A F O S N	4.	I would encourage the use of uniform procedures
A F O S N	5.	I would permit the members to use their own judgement in solving problems
A F O S N	6.	I would stress being ahead of competing groups
A F O S N	7.	I would speak as the representatives of the group
A F O S N	8.	I would needle members for greater effort
A F O S N	9.	I would try out my ideas in the group
A F O S N	10.	I would let the members do their work the way they think best
A F O S N	11.	I would be working hard for a promotion
A F O S N	12.	I would tolerate postponement and uncertainty
A F O S N	13.	I would speak for the group if there were visitors
A F O S N	14.	I would keep the work moving at a rapid pace
A F O S N	15.	I would turn the members loose on a job and let them go to it.
A F O S N	16.	I would settle conflicts when they occur in the group
A F O S N	17.	I would get swamped by details
A F O S N	18.	I would represent the group at outside meetings.
A F O S N	19.	I would be reluctant to allow the members any freedom of action.
A F O S N	20.	I would decide what should be done and how it should be done.

- A F O S N 21. I would push for increased production.
- A F O S N 22. I would let some members have authority which I could keep.
- A F O S N 23. Things would usually turn out as I had predicted.
- A F O S N 24. I would allow the group a high degree of initiative.
- A F O S N 25. I would assign group members to particular tasks.
- A F O S N 26. I would be willing to make changes.
- A F O S N 27. I would ask the members to work harder.
- A F O S N 28. I would trust the group members to exercise good judgement.
- A F O S N 29. I would schedule the work to be done
- A F O S N 30. I would refuse to explain my actions
- A F O S N 31. I would persuade others that my ideas are to their Advantage
- A F O S N 32. I would permit the group to set its own pace.
- A F O S N 33. I would urge the group to beat its previous records.
- A F O S N 34. I would act without consulting the group.
- A F O S N 35. I would ask that group members follow standard rules and regulations.

T.P.LEADERSHIP SCORING SHEET

For every statement for which your response is either of the two indicated against each, you score one point. Mark each item by placing a \surd if you score.

T Score

P Score

<u>Item No</u>	<u>Response</u>	<u>Item No</u>	<u>Response</u>
1	A or F	2	A or F
3	A or F	4	
5	A or F	6	A or F
7	A or F	8	S or N
9	A or F	10	A or F
11	A or F	12	S or N
13	A or F	14	A or F
15	A or F	16	A or F
17	S or N	18	S or N
19	S or N	20	A or F
21	A or F	22	A or F
23	A or F	24	A or F
25	A or F	26	A or F
27	A or F	28	A or F
29	A or F	30	S or N
31	A or F	32	A or F
33	A or F	34	S or N
35	S or N		

Total Score
(total No of \surd s)

Total Score
(Total No of \surd s)

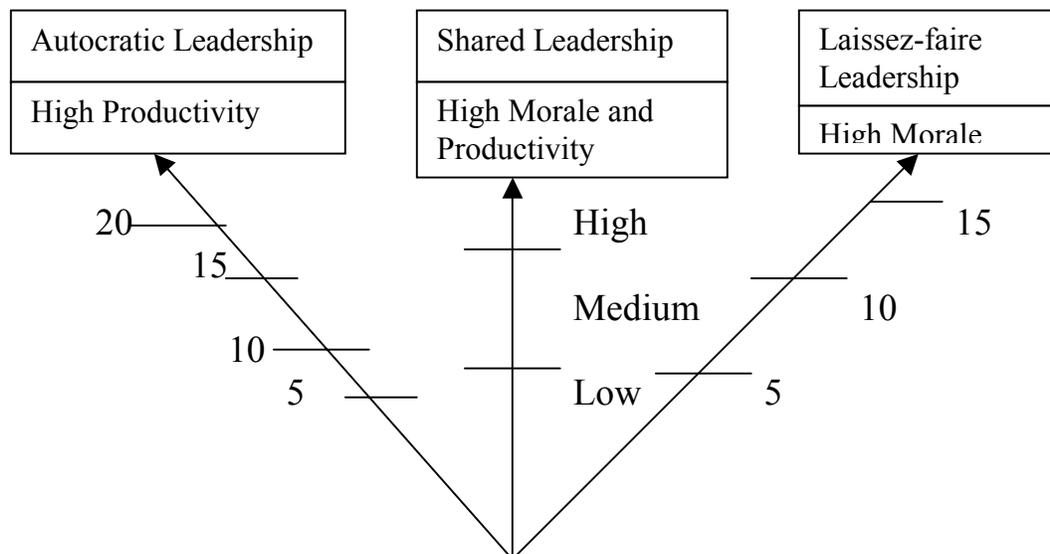
T.P.LEADERSHIP-STYLE PROFILE SHEET

Name

Orgn

Directions: To determine your style of leadership, mark your score on the concern for task dimension (T) on the left-hand arrow below. Next, move to the right hand arrow and mark your score on the concern for people-dimension (P). Draw a straight line that intersects the P and T scores. The point at which that line crosses the shared leadership arrow indicates your score on the dimension.

SHARED LEADERSHIP RESULTS FROM BALANCING CONCERN FOR TASK AND CONCERN FOR PEOPLE



EXPLORING YOUR PERSONALITY

Show how frequently you do each of the following behaviours by placing (√) in the proper column opposite each item.

Behaviour on the job	Frequency				
	Almost Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Very Frequently
1. I give people reasons why my work isn't done					
2. I feel bad about something (about what someone did or said to me, or about something I did or said)					
3. I expect people to do what I say					
4. I send out a questionnaire or carry out a survey to get needed information					
5. I do what my boss says to do even when it's difficult					
6. I feel guilty about something (not getting a job done on time, coming in late, working too hard, and so on)					
7. I play a hunch without bothering to gather factual data.					
8. I smile at other people (co-workers, subordinates, customers, superiors, and so on)					
9. I suggest that an ill person see the nurse or take the rest of the day off.					
10. I insist that things be done my way.					

11. I hear a voice in my head saying something like: "Those people should....."					
12. When I know something won't be ready when I want it, I repeatedly ask if it might possible be ready ahead of schedule.					
13. I find ways to make a boring task interesting.					
14. I attend classes, programs, seminars, and so on, to improve my job skills.					
15. I have a feeling that something unusual is about to happen before it happens.					
16. I plan ways to do things that might be considered harmful, illegal, or unethical.					
17. I say (or think) things like: "What would you do without me?"					
18. I do a little dance step when walking into a friend's office or work area.					
19. I correct subordinates when they fail to perform up to standard					
20. I cleverly figure out how to get my own way at someone else's expense					
21. I keep calm when in an emotionally charged atmosphere.					

22. I help my co-workers, subordinates, or boss by going a little out of my way to do something for them.					
23. I feel hurt and go off somewhere to be by myself.					
24. I put people down without thinking.					
25. I take a stretch break and really enjoy the feeling of loosening up my muscles and relaxing					
26. I say "please" and "thank you".					
27. I say or think things like: "I'll do it for them; they can't be expected to handle it."					
28. I talk about facts when another person is in need of comfort.					
29. I take the last one of the doughnuts or other goodies someone brought for coffee break.					
30. I gather necessary information and then use my sixth sense to make an accurate interpretation					
31. I help out co-worker in an emergency					
32. I insist that others take care of themselves-for example, that they wear a coat on a windy day or carry an umbrella if it looks like rain.					

33. I answer the phone in a well-modulated voice, giving my name or the name of my company for unit.					
34. I slyly work out a way to avoid doing a job that's been assigned to me.					
35. I set people straight when they aren't doing their job properly					
36. I set standards for proper performance.					

Reference: JONGEWARD M D & SEYER P C
CHOOSING SUCCESS
(Transactional Analysis on the job)
Publisher: John Wiley & Sons Inc. 1978

Now that you've filled out the questionnaire. Let's score it. Here's how to do it.

1. Give yourself a score for each question using this formula
 4 points for "very frequently"
 3 points for "frequently"
 2 point for "sometimes"
 1 point for "rarely"
 0 points for "almost never"
2. Write your scores in the proper boxes in the chart. For example, if you answered question 1 with "sometimes," you would put a "2" in the box indicated for question 1. If you answered "very frequently" for question 2, you would put a "4" in the box designated for question 2, and so on.
3. Add the numbers in each column and enter the totals in the spaces provided.

The total for the first column is your score for your CP (Controlling Parent). The total for the column labeled NP is your score for your Nurturing Parent, and so on.

- CP - Controlling Parent
- NP - Nurturing Parent
- A - Adult
- NC - Natural Child
- LP - Little Professor
- AC - Adapted Child

Question No	Ego State					
	CP	NP	A	NC	LP	AC
1.						
2.						
3.						
4.						
5.						
6.						
7.						
8.						
9.						
10.						
11.						
12.						
13.						
14.						
15.						
16.						
17.						
18.						
19.						
20.						
21.						
22.						
23.						
24.						
25.						
26.						
27.						
28.						
29.						
30.						
31.						
32.						
33.						
34.						
35.						
36.						
Totals	CP	NP	A	NC	LP	AC

PLEASE FOLLOW THE INSTRUCTIONS

- 01. Read everything before doing anything, but work as rapidly as you can**
- 02. Put you name and address in the space provided for:**

Name:.....

Address:.....

- 03. Circle the world name in the second instruction**
- 04. Write the name of your native place:.....**
- 05. Now draw a circle around the title of this paper**
- 06. Sign your name under the title**
- 07. In sentence four, draw a circle around the word “native”.**
- 08. Write the name of India’s Capital:.....**
- 09. Underline all of sentence seven**
- 10. Stand up for a few seconds (2 to 5 seconds will do)**
- 11. Draw an “X” in the lower left hand corner of this paper**
- 12. Draw a circle around the “X” you drew just now**
- 13. Write the name of your husband or wife if you are married If not, write your father’s name:.....**
- 14. Draw a circle around the word “Capital” in sentence eight**
- 15. Shout out loud your name when you get to this point**
- 16. If you think you have followed instructions to this point, call out “I HAVE” in such way that everyone in the room can hear you.**
- 17. Close your eyes and raise your left hand over your head**
- 18. Write your designation**
- 19. Count out loud and clear in your voice, backwards from ten to one.**
- 20. Now that you have red the instructions carefully, do only what instructions one and twenty ask to do. Ignore all other directions.**

Note: Please do not give this paper to anybody; make no comments or explanations If you have read this far, pretend that you are still writing. Let us see how many persons really follow instructions carefully.

SEPARATE FACT FROM INFERENCE

Read the narration carefully which follows. Then see how well you can distinguish a FACT from an INFERENCE.

Shama, a buyer with the XYZ company, was scheduled for a 10 O’Clock meeting in Singh’s office to discuss the terms of a large order. On the way to that office, the buyer slipped on a freshly waxed floor and as a result received a badly bruised leg. By the time Singh was notified of the accident, Shama was on the way to the hospital for X-ray. Singh called the hospital to enquire, but no one there seemed to know anything about Sharma. It is possible that Singh called the wrong hospital.

Examine the statements below. Without discussion, put a tick (✓) mark against each statement as to whether it is a FACT or an INFERENCE (in the personal choice columns)

Statements	Personal Choice		Group Choice	
	Fact	Inference	Fact	Inference
1. Mr.Shama is a buyer				
2. Shama was supposed to meet with Singh				
3. Shama was scheduled for a 10 O’Clock meeting				
4. The accident occurred at the XYZ company				
5. Shama was taken to the hospital for X-Ray				
6. No one at the hospital which Singh called knew anything about Shama				
7. Singh had called the wrong hospital				

COMMUNICATING EFFECTIVELY-I
(LISTENING)

1. Are you waiting impatiently for the other person to shut up so that you can talk?
2. Are you in such a hurry to offer a solution that you don't want to hear the problem?
3. Are you listening only for what you like to hear?
4. Do emotional blocks get in the way of your listening?
5. Do your thoughts take side excursions while the other person is talking?
6. Are you memorizing more details instead of getting the main points?
7. Do you quit listening when the subject matter gets difficult?
8. Do you have a negative attitude while listening?
9. Do you just pretend to listen?
10. Do you put yourself in the speaker's place to understand what makes him/her say that?
11. Do you take into account that you and the speaker may not be discussing the same question?
12. Are you alert for misunderstandings that could arise because the words don't mean the same to you as they do to the speaker?
13. Do you try to find out what the argument is about? Whether there is a real difference of opinions or is it just a matter of stating the problem?

COMMUNICATING EFFECTIVELY-II
(SPEAKING)

Are you careful to watch for signs of misunderstandings in your listener?

Do you choose words that fit the listener's intelligence and backgrounds?

Do you think out directions before giving them?

Do you breakdown orders in to small enough packages?

If your listener does not ask questions about a new idea you are presenting, do you assume that he/she understands it?

Do you speak distinctly? Control distractions as far as possible?

Do you "bale" your thoughts before speaking so that you won't ramble?

Do you put the listener at ease?

Do you encourage questions?

Do you assume that you know what the other person has in his/her mind? Or do you ask questions to find out?

Do you distinguish between facts and opinions?

Do you stiffen up the opposition by contradicting his/her/their statements?

Do you influence your listeners to be "Yes Sir", "Yes Madam" or "Yes friend" people?

RATING SCALE FOR ASSESSING PERFORMANCE OF PRESENTATIONS

Name of Presenter:.....

Attribute	Rating				
	Excellent (5)	Good (4)	So So (3)	Poor (2)	Bad (1)
01. Correctness of Language					
02. Clarity of words					
03. Clarity of thought					
04. Logical sequence of ideas					
05. Speed					
06. Audibility					
07. Voice modulation					
08. Use of pauses					
09. Body posture					
10. Facial Expression					
11. Eye contact with audience					
12. Gestures					
13. Mannerisms (Visual & Vocal)					
14. Confidence					
15. Manners					

HOW MUCH IS YOUR TIME WORTH?

Annual Salary _____

Overhead _____

Benefits _____

Your Staff Salaries _____

Their Ovhd & Benefits _____

TOTAL _____

52 Weeks _____

(Rs/hr)

45 hrs/week _____

CAUSES OF TIME MISMANAGEMENT

Procrastination: The word procrastinate comes from the Latin word for 'tomorrow'. Procrastination can be defined as *intentionally, habitually, and without good reason*, putting off things that should be done now. Procrastination is the world's number one time-waster.

Poor Delegation: Delegation means entrusting a task to another person, together with the authority to do it. Delegation is a gift of trust which will generate an answering trust. Both parties will benefit from good delegation. Poor delegation arises from a lack of trust. If you don't entrust the other person with enough work to do, or you check everything they do too carefully, you are a poor delegator.

Organized Workplace: If you don't have a properly organized workplace you can waste time trying to find the information you need to get your work done. Looking for a missing file is a good example of non value-added time!

Wasting Your Peak Time: You should do your hardest tasks when you are at your peak energy level.

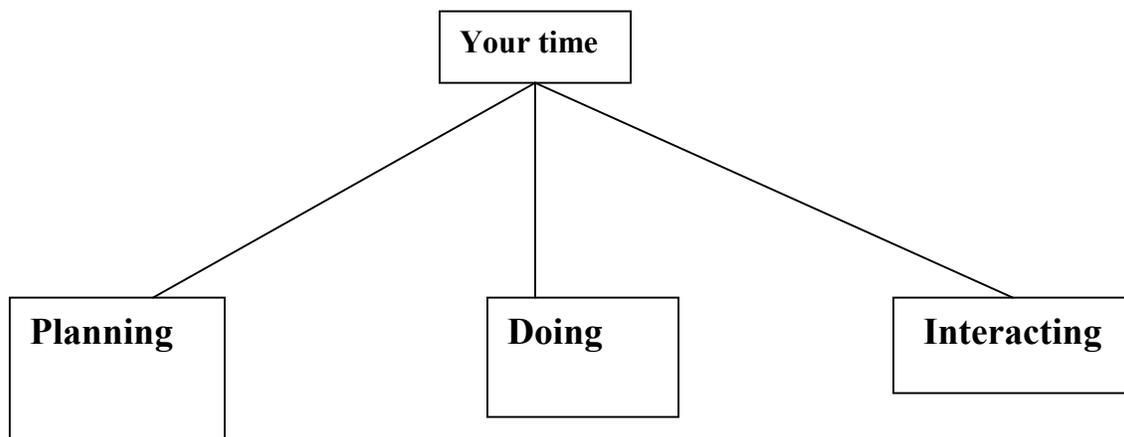
Working Without Goals: If you don't have goals, you can't set priorities. If you can't set priorities you will mismanage time.

DO NOT WORK HARD

But work 'smart'. Working 'smart' means organizing yourself so that you invest your time only in value-added activities. These are activities which contribute toward achieving your goals and objectives.



There are three types of demand on your time:



Planning : is organizing

Doing : is carrying out the plan as decided

Interacting : is working with other people

What is your style?

Plus – You are strong

Planning		Doing		Interacting	
Plus	Minus	Plus	Minus	Plus	Minus

Minus- You need improvement

Tick your style

You are a Plus Time Manager

If you had two or more pluses

Planning	Doing	Interacting	Style
+	+	+	You are a balanced person
+	+	–	You do your own things well
–	+	+	You do others' Priorities well
+	–	+	You have good intentions but no work done

You are a Minus Time Manager

If you had two or more Minuses

Planning	Doing	Interacting	Style
+	–	–	Unrealistic Dreamer
–	+	–	You are on a tread mill
–	–	+	Delightful Person but incompetent
–	–	–	Neither delightful nor competent

An Inch of gold cannot buy an inch of time.

Urgent

Not Urgent

<p>I</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Crises• Pressing problems• Deadline-driven projects, meetings preparations	<p>II</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Preparation• Prevention• Values clarification• Planning• Relationship building• True re-creation• Empowerment
<p>III</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Interruptions, some phone calls• Some mail, some reports• Some meetings• Many proximate, pressing matters• Many popular activities	<p>IV</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Trivia, busywork• Junk mail• Some phone calls• Time wasters• “Escape” activities

TIME CHEATERS & BEATERS

Time cheaters come in all shapes and sizes. They can be physical and mental, created by you or imposed upon you by other people. The important thing is to become aware of them and then you can learn to deal with them.

Time Cheater	Is this me?	Time Beater
I spend too much time talking to people who won't go away		Learn to be firm, say I don't mean to be rude but I must get on with my work
I get side tracked easily and lack self discipline		Make action plans, stick to them and reward yourself for good time keeping
My colleagues/friends interrupt me all the time.		Set aside times when you don't want to be disturbed.
I take on too much work		Learn to say "No" politely but firmly.
Time runs out! I am always rushed and late		When you make your plans, allow extra time for unexpected surprises!
I get panicky and try to do everything at once.		Prioritise!
I spend ages looking for letters and files		You need to organize your work space. Use filing and sorting systems.
Staff interrupt with questions about work I have assigned.		Learn to delegate effectively
I spend too much time in meetings that don't accomplish anything		Learn about conducting effectively meetings.

**INSTITUTE OF MANAGEMENT IN GOVERNMENT
THIRUVANANTHAPURAM**



**TRAINING MODULE ON PERSONALITY
DEVELOPMENT**

READING MATERIAL

Sponsored by

**Department of Personnel & Training
Government of India
&
United Nation's Development Programme**

**Prepared by
Dr.Chandraprasad Sreedhar, IMG, Trivandrum
&
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LEADERSHIP

Leadership is an integral part of management and plays a vital role in managerial operations. If there is any single factor that differentiates between successful and unsuccessful organizations, it could be considered as dynamic and effective leadership. Perhaps, it would be a valid assumption to state that the major cause of most business failures would be ineffective leadership. All managers, in a way, are business leaders, even though management primarily relies on formal position power to influence people whereas leadership stems from a social influence process. However, management is an integral component of technical as well as social processes.

A question which many a novice in Management ask and experts echo is whether “Manager” and “Leader” are synonymous terms. Are the functions of the ‘Manager’ the same as those of the Leader? Are the two roles the same? Or, are they different? If they are – are there or rather aren’t there areas of functional similarities? To what extent do they differ in direction and/or magnitude?

Before attempting to answer the million dollar question “Are all leaders managers or are all managers leaders? It will be prudent to clarify the concepts of leadership and management.

An extremely simplistic yet profoundly meaningful definition of leadership states it as the “Phenomenon of one person influencing the thinking or action or both of another person or groups of persons”.

Management has been defined in various ways by different authors. In fact, there exists almost as many definitions for management as there are authors on the topic. There is neither the scope nor the need to examine the various definitions of management in this discussion. However, two of them may be considered. One of the earliest universally accepted definitions of management considered it as the “process of getting things done through and by people”. One of the modern definitions of management describes it as “the process of ensuring effectiveness and efficiency in achieving goals or objectives”.

From the above discussion, it is clear that whenever one influences the thinking or action or both of another person or a group, he/she is a leader and the phenomenon of leadership exists. This is so irrespective of what the “influence” aims or achieves. Even if the followers are “influenced” for some antisocial activities,

the phenomenon involved is leadership and the one exhibiting it is a leader. Managers have to influence their “people” for achieving organizational objectives, which, we assume, to be morally right and legally straight. So, all managers have a leadership role to play. But all that every leader does may not be very “Managerial”. In short, all managers are leaders, but all leaders need not necessarily be managers. It should be remembered that this statement is made considering the roles of “leaders” and “managers” and not with reference to any individual with a managerial title or acceptance as a leader.

Categories of leaders: Based on the functions they perform, leaders can be classified into:

- (i) Entrepreneurial
- (ii) Administrative and
- (iii) Political

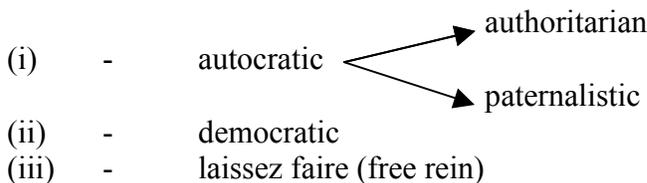
- (i) **Entrepreneurial Leaders:** As the term indicates, these are leaders who build organizations, these institution builders perform the tasks of initiation and structuring. They organize the required resources and put them in to effective and efficient use to create institutions of various sizes, nature and scope eg. Trade unions, hospitals, schools, colleges, places of worship, cultural organizations etc. Entrepreneurial leaders are highly motivated self starters who can get along reasonably well with a wide range of people with whom they can co-operate and from whom they can get co-operation. They will not be dispirited with setbacks and will not take “no” for an answer.
- (ii) **Administrative leaders:** These are leaders whose performance will be at its peak when they are put in charge of running organizations they work for the maintenance and growth of the organizations, they plan, organize, staff, direct and control the organizations which may be expected to “safe” in their hands. They ensure that right men occupy right positions and that tasks are carried out effective and efficiently. They undertake environmental scanning and do SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats) analysis, based on which they define and redefine the mission of their organizations, set targets and objectives and formulate policies and strategies. They have a clear idea of what the organization should be at present and where it should be in the future.
- (iii) **Political leaders:** By “political leaders” are meant those who act as representatives or spokesmen of their groups and strive for the redressal of the grievances of their groups in general and its members in particular. Many of them act on an ‘ad hoc’ basis not being very visible normally but appearing on the scene all of a sudden when a problem crops up, the tackling of which requires their attention. They may even leave the scene once the issue has been settled.

Discussion on Leader Categories:

In every individual, all kinds of leadership skills may be present but their relative concentrations vary. The implication for the top management is that organizational success depends on allocating tasks and responsibilities to individuals based on their talents and capabilities. The message for the individual is that one should identify where his/her predominant leadership skills lie and as far as possible try to seek tasks which are in tune with them. When there is little scope for choosing tasks in accordance with ones leadership endowments, developing skills required for the tasks at hand become imperative.

Leadership Styles

Based on “how” a leader performs his/her tasks, various leadership styles can be identified, viz.



The basis for the above classification is two fold, viz.,

- (i) - mode of decision making
- (ii) - manner of implementation

(i) ***Autocratic leadership style*** : As the term suggests, this is a leader-centred style where followers are reduced to insignificance. The autocratic leadership style itself has two variations, viz., authoritarian and paternalistic.

(a) ***Authoritarian Leadership Style*** : The authoritarian leader takes all decisions by himself/herself and will try to implement them even resorting to the use of force or coercion. The authoritarian leader is only concerned about the “tasks” but not the “people” with whom the tasks have to be achieved. If his/her followers/subordinates approach him/her with a problem, they face in implementing the leaders decisions or carrying out his/her orders, the leader takes the stand, I am not bothered about your problems. You expedite and report”.

(b) ***Paternalistic leadership style***: Leaders who exhibit this style assume the parental role for themselves. They also take all decisions like the authoritarian leaders, but when it comes to

implementation they resort to tact and diplomacy rather than force and coercion. The paternalistic leader considers his followers as immature children incapable of making decision and needing about the task as well as the people. If subordinates approach a paternalistic leader with their problems, they can expect empathic understanding and consideration. The paternalistic leader may be expected to sit with the subordinates to sort out their problems and help them reach or identify solutions.

- (ii) ***Democratic leadership style***: The style of leadership which recognises and respects every member of the group or team as an individual with capabilities, rights and responsibilities and a potential contributor to the group processes including task achievements, is called democratic leadership style. Where democratic leadership style is followed, decision making and implementation are consultative and participative processes. It should be appreciated that the situation is not akin to one, where say, in a group of 100, what 51 people suggest is accepted and the opinions and suggestions of the remaining 49 are rejected mercilessly. That at best be termed majority rule. Where democratic leadership style is practised, one is free to express his/her opinions as everybody's opinions and their right to express them are respected. A member gets an opportunity to understand why his/her suggestions are not accepted as the group's decision, even when that is the case. The ultimate group decision is everybody's. When one had a say in the making of a decision, a high level of commitment may be expected to be exhibited by the group members for its achievement.
- (iii) ***Laissez faire or free rein leadership style***: Whether one follows autocracy or democracy as a leadership style, the leader will be performing the basic functions of providing direction and control to the group. The autocratic and democratic leaders differ only in the manner in which they perform the direction and control functions. Apart from this, there are leaders who follow a policy of "no intervention" in group processes. Their style is called "Laissez faire" or "free rein". There are behavioural scientists who even object to considering this as "leadership" as the "leader" does not discharge the basic functions of direction and control. However, one may find many in leadership positions practising this style.

Discussion on Leadership Styles

To decide on the "best leadership style" one has to enumerate the merits and demerits of each, evaluate their effectiveness and efficiency and more than anything else, see whether they deliver the goods". Analysis

of the various leadership styles conclusively proves that there does not exist something as the “best” leadership style. If there existed one, it should have proved successful under all circumstances. It can be observed that different leadership styles produce the best results under different conditions and circumstances. That which results in the most favourable and desirable outcome under any particular circumstances is the “right” leadership style in that context. The success of the manager depends on his/her ability to identify the “right” leadership style in that context. The success of the manager depends on his/her ability to identify the “right” leadership style in any given situation and then exhibit enough flexibility and adaptability to practice that style.

Sources of Leader Influence on Followers

What provides a leader with the capacity to influence followers? Why will subordinates respond to the influence attempts of a leader by doing that the leader intends or wishes them to do? In other words, what is the source of the leader’s power over subordinates? Five distinct sources of leader power or influence have been identified. Any particular leader may have at his or her disposal any combination of these different sources of power.

1. Reward Power refers to the leader’s capacity to reward followers. To the extent that a leader possesses and controls rewards that are valued by subordinates, the leader’s power increases. Rewards at a leader’s disposal fall into two categories. Rewards such as praise, recognition and attention are sources of personal power possessed by the leader as an individual. In addition, a leader also usually controls certain organizational rewards, such as pay raises, promotions and other perquisites. These are sources of power that depend upon the leader’s position in the organization.
2. Coercive power is the flip side of reward power and refers to the leader’s capacity to coerce or punish followers. Sources of coercive power also break down into personal and positional components. Leaders personally possess coercive power to the extent that followers experience criticism or lack of recognition from their leader as unpleasant or punishing. In addition, leaders possess coercive power to the extent that their position permits them to administer organizational sources of punishment (such as demotion, withholding of pay increases or firing) to followers.
3. Legitimate power refer to the power a leader possesses as a result of occupying a particular position or role in the organization. In every organization, certain types of requests and directions issued by

leaders to subordinates are viewed to be legitimate and valid. Subordinates are obligated to comply with such requests because of the norms, policies, and procedures accepted as legitimate by all members of the organization. Legitimate power is clearly a function of the leader's position in the organization and is completely independent of any of the leader's personal characteristics.

4. Expert power refers to power that a leader possesses as a result of his or her knowledge and expertise regarding the tasks to be performed by subordinates. Subordinates are most likely to respond positively to a leader's attempts to influence their behaviour if they view the leader as a competent and in possession of knowledge and information regarding effective task performance that they themselves lack. The possession of expert power by a leader obviously depends upon the personal characteristics of the leader (ie., his or her personal expertise) and is not determined by the formal position that the leader occupies in the organization.
5. Referent power is dependent upon the extent to which subordinates identify with, look up to and wish to emulate the leader. The more that subordinates admire and identify with the leaders, the greater the leader's referent power over subordinates. Referent power, like expert power, is totally dependent upon the personal characteristics of the leader and does not depend directly upon the leader's formal organizational position.

Current Issues in Leadership

In addition to focusing on the different powers discussed above, leadership researchers have also recently identified a number of new and important issues that deserve our attention.

Leadership as Mutual Influence

The very term leadership naturally serves to draw our attention to leaders themselves and focuses our interest on the ways in which leaders influence their followers. As a result, research on leadership has tried to understand how different types of leaders and different types of leader behaviours cause follower to react in different ways.

An important contribution of recent research on leadership has been to point out the shortsightedness of this view of leader-follower relations. While it is no doubt true that leaders can and do influence their

followers, it is also true that leaders and followers engage in interaction with one another, which necessarily implies the existence of mutual influence. In other words, not only is it true that leaders influence followers, but it is equally true that followers influence leaders.

Constraints on Leadership Behaviour

In thinking about leadership as mutual influence process we are taking in to account the fact that the behaviour of subordinates has a casual influence upon the behaviour of the leader. In other words, leaders do not decide how they are going to behave in total isolation from their subordinates. Leader must select and adjust their leadership style in light of how their subordinates are performing and responding. But acknowledging that the behaviour of subordinates can influence how leaders behave raises the question of what other factors may be influencing and constraining what leaders do. In fact, it turns out that leaders are far from totally free and unencumbered in choosing their leadership style.

Subordinate Behaviour

As was pointed out in our discussion of leadership as a mutual influence process, the evidence is quite clear that the performance of subordinates has a critical casual impact upon that a leader does and how he or she behaves toward followers.

Characteristics of Subordinates

In addition to what subordinates do and how they perform, other identifiable traits, or characteristics, of subordinates may influence the leader's behaviour as well as the behaviour of the subordinates themselves. For example, a leader may behave differently toward males and females, older and younger people, and those with similar as opposed to different personal backgrounds from his or her own.

Characteristics of the Leader

The leader's abilities and personal characteristics obviously influence and constrain what the leader does and how he or she behaves toward subordinates. On the ability side, task relevant knowledge and skill, as well as supervisory skills and sensitivities, will have an important impact. In terms of trait, personality characteristics such as assertiveness, dominance, and self-confidence all have an influence on leadership behaviour.

Leaders Superiors

How leaders treat their subordinates is strongly influenced by how the leaders themselves are treated by their own immediate superiors. Superiors serve both as role models for the leadership behaviour of individuals toward their own subordinates and as sources of rewards and punishments. Leaders with immediate superiors who preach, practice, and reward a participative management style, for example, are unlikely to treat their subordinates in a directive and authoritarian fashion.

Leaders Peers

As in almost all things, peers have an important influence upon how leaders behave. Peer pressure has a potent homogenizing impact upon leadership behaviour in an organization. Other managers in an organisation are likely to exert both direct and indirect pressure on individual leaders to behave toward their subordinates in a fashion that is consistent with that practised by other managers at that level in the organisation.

Organizational Policies, Norms and Climate

Some organizations are characterised by a very open, democratic, and participative management style. Such an organizational climate and policy will obviously influence a leader to behave as a participative manager. Very different leadership behaviours would be expected in an organization characterised by a very closed and authoritarian policy of management.

Nature of Subordinates – Tasks

The nature of the tasks that subordinates are performing also influences the behaviour of leaders toward subordinates. A very vague and ambiguous task such as developing the design of a new product from scratch is bound to elicit different types of leadership behaviour than is a highly structured and routine task such as producing a particular number of units on an assembly line.

INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS (TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS IN MANAGEMENT: TOWARDS PERSONAL AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT)

Introduction

All of us are social beings and interact with others in the process of satisfying our human needs and achieving our goals. In management, irrespective of your level, you have to interact with others – peers, superiors and subordinates. And most importantly, in some organizations, with general public. You may have to communicate with people of different sexes, ages, education, skills, personalities and temperaments. Ability to understand the nature and dynamics of interactions with others will help an individual to become more effective communicator – which means more positive respect for self better performance and achievement of organizational goals, more satisfied and committed employees, effective relationships with superiors and peers, more satisfied consumers or clients.

What is Transactional Analysis? What does T/A do? What does T/A not do? What are the dynamics of T/A? How can I become more effective with the use of T/A?

What is Transactional Analysis?

“Transactional Analysis (T/A) is one of the tools developed by behavioural scientists which is used for analysis of transactions” or understanding of communications that occur between people. It is a rational approach to understanding behaviour and is based on the assumption that any person can learn to trust himself or herself, think rationally, make independent decisions, and express feelings.

“Transactional Analysis” is a tool but also a complete theory of personality, containing techniques of psychotherapy for personal and social growth. A “transaction” means any exchange or interaction that occurs between two or more persons.

Transactional analysis concerns itself with the kinds of communication – both verbal and non-verbal – that occur between people. The emphasis of Transactional Analysis is upon positive communication.

Transactional Analysis is widely utilised as a consultation method in educational programmes, social institutions, business, hospitals, churches, government organizations, and other organizations. The late Eric Berne, M.D., the principal innovator and developer of Transactional Analysis, began experimenting with his ideas by applying them to group psychotherapy, but more recently it is widely used in family, couples and individuals work.

What does Transactional Analysis do or not do?

Transactional Analysis increases understanding of self and others. It decreases tendency to be critical of self and others. Transactional Analysis helps reduce stress, frustration and anxiety levels!

A few hours exposure to Transactional Analysis is not necessarily going to result in any person being transformed into a happy and an effective person. Transactional Analysis does not erase all human relations difficulties. All emotional problems won't be solved with a brief training period and traditional way of doing things that may be non-productive. Lot will depend upon the trainer. There are several who present themselves as experts. These people do more harm than good. Many companies have successfully incorporated Transactional Analysis training into their overall personnel development programmes. These organizations represent private and public sector industries. State Governments, police systems, educational institutions, municipalities, and professional associations. The benefit which an organization derives from Transactional Analysis are better process diagnosis; clearer problem analysis; reduced non-communication; new tools for selecting people for entry and promotion; and less psychological pollution.

Structural Analysis

According to Transactional Analysis theory, everyone's personality has three parts, called *ego states*. These *ego states* are named *Parent*, *Adult*, and *Child*. When we capitalize these words, we are talking about *ego states* rather than real parents, adults or children. Structural analysis involves analyzing the personality to discover the nature of our ego states. You can use structural analysis to better understand who you are and how you got that way. It will help you learn about the various sources of thoughts, feelings and opinions in your personality. Knowing your personality better can add to your effectiveness on the job.

i) The Parent Ego State

Every one develops a Parent ego state when as children they absorb certain attitudes and ways of behaving from parental figures. When you feel, think, or act as you saw your parents (or other authority figures) act when you were little, you are in your Parent ego state. While in your Parent, you may act in either a controlling, sometimes critical way or in a nurturing, sometimes loving way. Here are some examples of statements you are likely to make while in your Parent.

- Controlling Parent: "Nobody can leave until this report is finished"

- Nurturing Parent: “I’m sorry you’re not feeling well today. Would you like to go over to the nurse’s office and get some help? I’ll take care of your station”.

While in our Parent we respond automatically almost as if a tape recording were playing in our heads and directing our words and actions. For this reason, we often use the phrase “Parent tapes” to refer to:

- dialogue from Parent figures stored in our heads, and
- automatic responses we make while in our Parent ego state

ii) The Adult Ego State

Although we respond automatically when in our Parent, we respond analytically when in our Adult. Whenever you are gathering information, reasoning things out, estimating probabilities, and so on, you are in your Adult ego state. While in this ego state you are cool and collected: you make decisions unemotionally. You just want the facts. The Adult ego state has nothing to do with age. Little children have Adult ego states too! For example, when four-year-old Kristi says, “I bet Jeff is home – I see his car,” she is using her budding Adult, since she is calmly estimating probabilities on the basis of facts.

iii) The Child Ego State

Yes, even though you’re an adult, you have a Child inside you. While in your Child ego state, you feel and act like the little person you once were. Your Child has all of the feelings and impulses of a newborn. It also includes your mental recordings of your:

- early experiences
- reactions to these experiences, and
- learned view of yourself and other people

Free or Natural Child (FC or NC)

This is the source of our spontaneity, energy and curiosity, with all our potential for life. It represents the way we are when we are born – natural, loving, carefree, adventurous and trusting – with all our capacities for leading a joyful and meaningful existence. This part of us knows no rules and consequently operates without regard for others and is unconcerned about their reactions. Witness the behaviour of the twelve-month-old exploring its environment! Of course, it would be impossible to maintain the structure of a society on such a basis, and without some adaptations.

In fact, in many grown-ups the adaptations are so extensive that they rarely use their Free Child. Some examples of the expression of the Free Child in an organization are: the joy of a major breakthrough in research and the fun at an office party (alcohol first ‘strips away’ the Parent, then the Adult!).

Adapted Child

As suggested, it does not seem possible to live in a continuous Free Child state and live with other people at the same time. From an early age, we make adaptations to help us get along with and get attention from authority figures, most notably our own parents. Some of these may develop in line with general practice in our society, eg., specific modes of eye and body contact; saying ‘please’, ‘thank you’ and ‘sorry’ at the appropriate times; not making personal comments about others in public.

Note how uncomfortable we often feel with those who have not adapted to these culturally agreed ways of behaving. Many more adaptations are unique to the particular family and its situation, and are important in marking us out as individuals. Some examples that create problems in adulthood and are relevant to organizations are compliance, procrastination and rebellion.

Compliance

Some individuals learn when they are young that the way to get along is always to say ‘yes’. Their problem in adulthood is saying ‘yes’ when their better judgement, experience and knowledge suggests that arguing the point and asserting themselves would be more appropriate. Some personal and organizational disasters might have been avoided if some people had not been so compliant in the past. (Of course, some people in power want nothing better than for others to do exactly what they are told!)

Procrastination

Some people learn when they are young that a good way to get attention is to procrastinate. Consider these examples from family life:

‘C’mon, get a move on, or we’ll miss the shops!’

‘Look, put that doll down, tie your shoe laces up and let’s get going.

You’re making us late again!’

If a child decides on this basis that delaying gets attention, in adulthood the individual may still be indulging in this behaviour. Certainly, being late is a good way to get attention in organizations (albeit negative) and it may use up more energy, money and time than it is worth (clock cards, counselling interviews, disciplinary interviews etc). Flexitime is no guarantee of cure.

Rebellion

Many children only get attention when they are ‘naughty’. Such individuals in adulthood may continue this behaviour by seeking bosses and/or institutions (eg., banks, local government, the police) to constantly fight and rebel against.

Little Professor

Another functional aspect of the Child ego state is frequently introduced and used, although its relationship to the other two is unclear. This is the Little Professor, the intuitive part of us that senses things about other people in a flash. This part of us has those brilliant, non-logical insights giving us solutions to problems that typify some of the major breakthrough in the growth of scientific knowledge.

Transactions and its Analysis

Transactional analysis is related with the way in which individuals interact with each other. It explains the mechanism that takes place when people are having conversation or are trying to exchange their thoughts, feelings and ideas with each other. Thus, Transactional Analysis essentially refers to the analysis of interactions between people. According to Transactional Analysis, transactions is stimulus plus response (S+R). If two or more people encounter each other, sooner or later one of them will speak, or give some other

indication of acknowledging the presence of the others. This is called the “transactional stimulus”. Another person will then say or do something which is in some way related to the stimulus, and that is called transaction response. Transactional Analysis involves the study of the social transactions between people and it deals with determining which part of the multiple-natured individual is being activated Parent, Adult or Child.

Transactions and its Types

Normally there are three types of transactions:

- (1) Complementary Transactions;
- (2) Crossed Transactions;
- (3) Ulterior Transactions:
 - (a) Duplex;
 - (b) Angular

(i) Complementary Transactions

A transaction is complementary when communication continues on parallel lines between individuals and the lines of stimulus and response are parallel. Thus, the message transmitted from one ego-state elicits an expected and appropriate response from the proper ego-state of the other individual. The transactions are complementary because both are acting in the perceived and expected ego-states. Usually, in such a case, both individuals are satisfied, everyone feels OK and the communication is complete.

Complementary transactions can take place between A-A, P-C, P-P and so on.

(ii) Crossed Transactions

The lines of stimulus and Response cross each other in case of crossed transactions. Whenever the stimulus and response cross on the P-A-C transactional diagram, communication stops. Transactions become uncomplimentary. The message sent by one ego-state is responded to from an incompatible, unexpected ego-state of another person. The inappropriate response generates feelings of hurt and anger and the individuals, instead of coming closer, divert from each other. Crossed transactions are the source of much interpersonal

conflict in an organisation. They inhibit free flow of ideas, free thinking, creativity and social interactions. Crossed transactions have many possible dysfunctional consequences for the organisation.

(iii) *Ulterior Transactions*

The ulterior type of transactions are most complex because the communication has double meaning as more than ego-states are involved in them. When ulterior message is sent, the literal and intent meanings are not one and the same. Ulterior message is often disguised in a socially acceptable way. On the surface level, the communication has a clear Adult message, whereas it carries a hidden message on the psychological level. Ulterior transactions like crossed transactions are undesirable as they damage interpersonal relationships.

Strokes

You've seen that transactions can be open, blocked, or ulterior. It's also important to recognize that whenever two people are transacting, they are exchanging "strokes". What are strokes? To help you understand that term, let's look at an important discovery made by Rene Spitz. Spitz found that keeping infants fed and in a clean environment was not enough. Such infants became weak and almost seemed to shrivel up if they were not cuddled and stroked. Infants who are touched very little may become physically and mentally retarded; those not touched at all seem to "give up" and die. Before Spitz discovered this, doctors often puzzled at the high death rate in orphanage nurseries. Today in such nurseries "grandmothers" and "grandfathers" volunteer to come in and just cuddle infants.

In Transactional Analysis language, the term "stroke" refers to the giving of some kind of recognition to a person. This may or may not involve physical touching. As we grow from infancy into childhood and then adulthood, we do not entirely lose our need for stroking. Part of our original need for physical stroking seems to be satisfied with symbolic stroking. We no longer need constant cuddling, but we still need attention. When we receive a stroke, we may choose to feel either good or bad. If we choose to feel good, we might think of the stroke as a "warm fuzzy" (or positive stroke). On the flip side, if we choose to feel bad, we can think of it as a "cold prickly" (or negative stroke).

Since we have a basic need for strokes, we will work hard to get them. For example, ignored children will engage in all sorts of creative acts to get stroked. Often such children quickly learn that they can get strokes by:

- talking in a loud, whiny, high-pitched voice,

- spilling milk on a clean table cloth, and
- injuring themselves

A child who carries out one of these actions is likely to get a cold prickly (negative stroke). But it seems to make no difference to a stroke-deprived child. To such a child, any kind of stroke is better than none at all: a cold prickly is better than nothing! The same is true for adults who work in a stroke-deprived environment.

Example

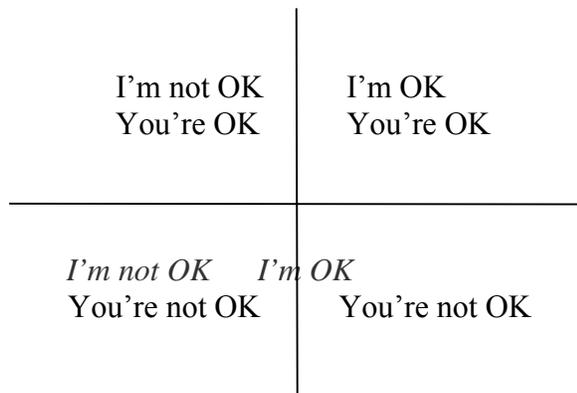
Lennie, a shipping clerk in a small mail-order firm, worked alone. Yet he got a lot of strokes from Kevin, his supervisor. Kevin often stopped by Lennie’s work station just to chat. These strokes were not usually given for any particular job performance since Lennie’s job was rather routine and didn’t require any special skills. However, Kevin did compliment Lennie for his consistent performance.

Then one day Kevin was promoted. Lennie’s new supervisor, Laura, had a different approach. She didn’t stop to chat with her subordinates and spoke to them only when she was dissatisfied with their work.

Life positions

Another way of looking at relationships between people is through the concept of ‘life position’, sometimes referred to as the basic position or existential position. A person’s life position at any given time expresses in some way just how that individual is relating to others in terms of thinking, feeling and behaving. There are four basic life positions, shown below referred to as the OK corral.

OK Corral



Examples of Life Positions

The idea of life positions can be demonstrated by the following examples.

1. 'Hey, we did a good job there', says the boss.
'Yes, things are really going well for us now', says the subordinate
(I'm OK, you're OK)
2. 'Your work is not up to the standard I need in this department!' says the boss
(I'm OK, you're not OK)
3. 'I wish I could keep on top of things the way you can', says the subordinate
(I'm not OK, you're OK)
4. 'Well, I don't know what to do and you don't know what to do. What a mess!' says the boss.
(I'm not OK, you're not OK)

Characteristics of the Life Positions

I'M OK, YOU'RE OK (I + U+)

This is sometimes referred to as the *get on with* position. People occupying this position are optimistic, confident and happy about work and life. They use time constructively, doing the things they most want to. They exchange strokes freely with those they meet, accepting the significance of other people, and decline to put themselves or others down. They are assertive in reaching their aims, i.e., they state and elaborate their own views and needs rather than attack other people's views and needs. Their dominant working style with others is collaboration and mutual respect, sharing authority and responsibility and listening constructively, even if they disagree. The problems they encounter in work and life are faced and dealt with as constructively as possible. They are likely to 'succeed' in life within the limits they've set themselves, finding satisfaction with work and relationships, and tend to live long, healthy lives.

I'M OK, YOU'RE NOT OK (I+ U-)

This is sometimes referred to as the *get rid of* position. It is characterised by feelings of anger, fury and hostility. Others are seen as inferior, unworthy, incompetent, wrong and not to be trusted. Behaviour to others is characterised by such things as spite, victimisation, trapping, condescension, abuse and disregard. They may devote much time to the destruction of the sense of self-worth of others. As well as putting others

down, they over-inflate their own self-worth, deny personal problems and find it difficult to give positive strokes. At work they are highly competitive and climb over others at whatever cost to achieve power and status. In wider social terms this is the life position of those who exploit their fellow man, or of those who take dogmatic views, believing theirs to be the only right course. In extreme cases they are homicidal (You are so “not OK”, there’s no point to your living’)

I’M NOR OK, YOU’RE OK (I- U+)

This is referred to as the *get away from* position and is typified by feelings such as sadness, inadequacy, stupidity or a sense of being ugly. In this position, people experience themselves as inferior or powerless in relation to others. They put themselves down and find it difficult to accept positive strokes, even being suspicious of them. In relation to work, they undervalue their potential and skills and they avoid or withdraw from difficult situations and problems. In life generally, they don’t succeed, are unhappy, often ill and/or depressed and in extreme cases commit suicide (I’m so useless I may as well not live’)

I’M NOT OK, YOU’RE NOT OK (I- U-)

This is also referred to as the *get nowhere position* and is accompanied by feelings of confusion or aimlessness and pointlessness. Their attitude is ‘Why bother, what’s the point?’ and they frequently waste time. They do nothing very much in life, and in extreme cases become alcoholics or drug addicts, or go crazy, possibly committing murder or suicide.

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COMMUNICATION IN ORGANIZATIONS

Organizations, large and small, commercial and not-for-profit, religious and educational – are all structured to facilitate the achievement of objectives. The communication process in an organization connects

superiors, subordinates, members of the peer group and the external environment. The top man's job is almost solely communication as he has the main task of linking and relating the organization with the environment.

In the absence of communication, human beings will have to exist as individuals never benefiting from the sharing of emotions, experiences, knowledge etc. Without communication, which has undisputed primary in the affairs of human race, man will not be able to unit to overcome limitations and ensure achievements.

Communication involves the transfer or rather exchange of ideas, information, understanding, feelings, emotions etc. between individuals. It can be defined as "who says what and why to whom through which channel with what effect". Though this is a reasonably comprehensive definition of communication, it is a process oriented one. It should be stated in this context that the concept of communication is common understanding between the involved parties – whom we shall refer to as the Sender and Receiver – about what is being communicated which we shall term as Message. "Message" may denote anything ranging from ideas to data to statistics to emotions and feelings.

The Importance of Communication

Studies have been conducted on the amount of time spent on communication by people from different walks of life. It is found that the group that has to spend least time for the process of communication is the shop floor level workers in manufacturing organizations. Even in their case, 40 to 60% of time is spent on communication. As a person's position in the organizational echelon is higher and higher, the time required to be spent on communication is more and more. The head of any organization may be expected to spend more than 80% of his/her time on some form of communication or the other. What this means is that how effectively, efficiently, creatively and productively that person communicates will decide his overall effectiveness, efficiency, creativity and productivity to a corresponding extent. The communication process in any organization is so vital for the achievement of its objectives. How a communication system is managed in an organization ie., how effective it is, has a profound impact on the ultimate effectiveness of the total organization.

Numerous studies have confirmed the impact of communication, organizational productivity, efficiency and effectiveness. In one such study, the reasons for wide variations in productivity among twenty seven branches of a package – delivery organization, were explored. As part of the study communication data were collected from the 975 employees from the branches. Comparison of productivity and communication

data revealed positive correlation between high performance and open communication between superiors and subordinates.

In a survey conducted among nearly a hundred business organizations with the objective of determining how much of top management has to say is actually understood, the following facts were revealed.

1. At the vice presidential level managers understand about two thirds of what they hear from the top
2. At the general supervisor level managers understand 56 per cent of the top level information.
3. At the manager level managers perceive only 40 per cent.
4. Foremen perceive 30 per cent
5. Persons on the production line understand 20 per cent

The above findings throw light on the need and potential for management for improving communication skills.

The ABCs of Communication

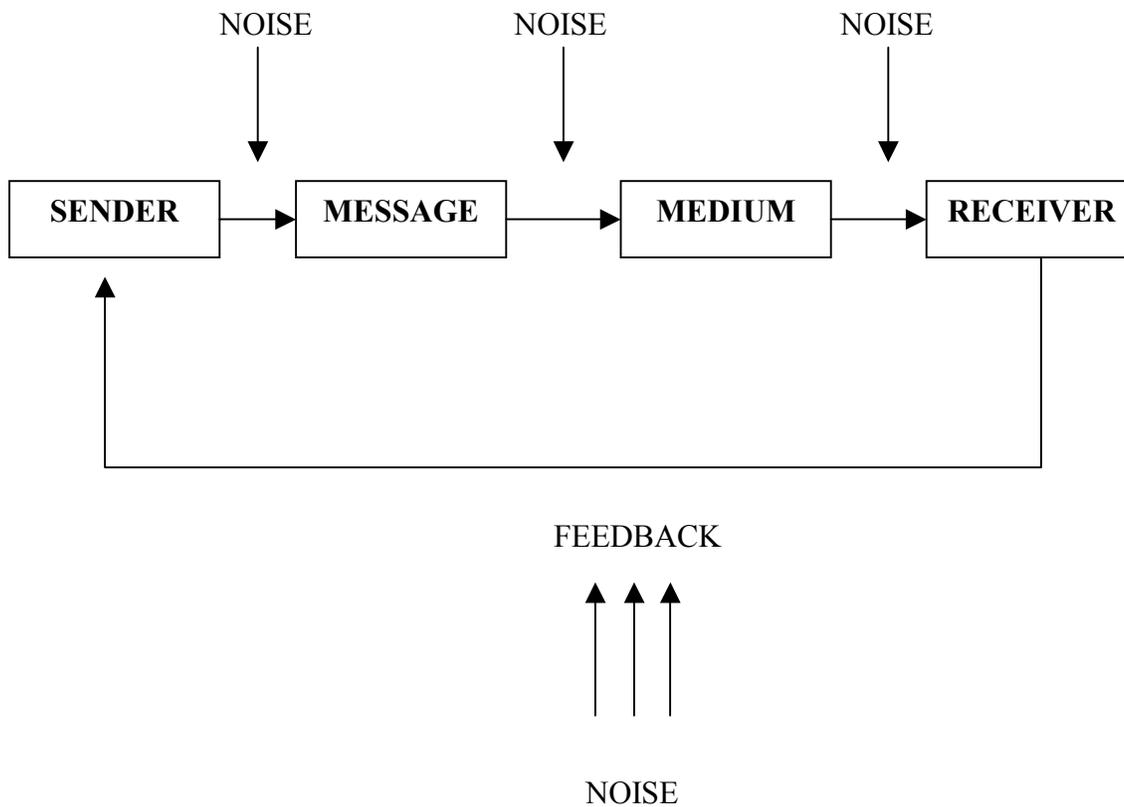
Like any other process, communication also has its ABCs and it is interesting to note that the ABCs of communication are:

- A - Attractiveness
- B - Brevity
- C - Clarity

The Process of Communication

Whatever is being communicated is called 'Message'. The person from whom the message originates – the one who initiates the process of communication – is called the Sender. The person for whom the communication is meant is called the Receiver. Communication cannot take place in a vacuum. It has to have a medium or channel. After receiving the message the 'Receiver' will react or respond to the sender when provision for that exists. This part of the communication process may be termed Feedback. When there is no provision for 'Receiver to Sender Feedback', it may be called one-way communication.

This, in most cases, may increase the distortion between the intended message and the one that is received. There are various barriers to effective communication which may affect the process at any stage and they can be collectively designated by the term 'NOISE'. The following model will illustrate the process of communication.



Communication Categories

Based on the presence or absence of two important attributes of communication viz., effectiveness and impressiveness, all communication can be grouped in to one of the following categories:

- Effective and Impressive
- Effective but Unimpressive
- Ineffective but Impressive
- Ineffective and Unimpressive

Needless to mention, the best of the above lot is the first category and the last one is the worst. It should be one's aim to make his/her communication effective and attribute each is present while the other is lacking. If a choice is to be made between the second and third categories, definitely the preference must be for the second one. In other words, if we have to prioritize, effectiveness has primacy.

Barriers to Effective Organizational Communication

There are many barriers that can impede the process of communication resulting in a communication breakdown. Some of the common barriers to effective communication are described below. However, it should be remembered that the list is not exhaustive.

- (i) **Transmission Alterations:** This refers to the changes that the original message undergoes when it passes through various people. The greater the differences between the people involved with respect to various factors like cultural background, social class, educational level, age group, experience etc. the greater will be the alterations that the message undergoes. One effective way to overcome the barrier – or at least reduce its ill effects – would be to ask the receiver to repeat what he/she has understood. This will provide the sender with an opportunity make corrections to the perceived message if found necessary. When one has the role of the receiver and if the sender is not making any effort on the lines suggested above, the receiver may take the initiative for making the required clarification.
- (ii) **Physical Limitations:** The difference between perception and reality may be termed perceptual error. Our sensory limitations – those of sight, sound, touch, taste and smell-restrict perceptual clarity.
- (iii) **Inattention:** This is related to the receiver, care should be taken to give proper attention to the message. When in sender's role, one should start communicating only after ensuring required level of attention on the part of the receivers. Despite physical proximity with the sender, the receiver's level of attention may come down or his/her thoughts may take side excursions while the sender is talking. The sender should recognize this as a natural and normal phenomenon and make efforts to regain receivers' attention at periodic intervals.
- (iv) **Selective Listening:** When receivers tend to "block out" information, especially when it is contradictory to what one believes, it results in selective perception. It is a common practice for people to ignore or distort information that conflicts with ones prescribed notions.

- (v) ***Mistrust of the Source***: Over a period of time, we develop various levels of trust, confidence or faith in the words of the sender. It may be termed source credibility. To be an effective communicator, one should develop himself/herself as a credible source of information.
- (vi) ***Exaggeration***: People may resort to exaggeration to dramatize ones presentation or to make it more attractive, humorous etc. However, in the long run, one who is known to exaggerate always loses credibility.
- (vii) ***Distortion***: Distortion of the original message may occur due to various factors. Distortion may be accidental or intentional. In earlier case, the end result is undesirable and harmful.
- (viii) ***Uniqueness***: No two phenomena, no two things, no two human beings are exactly alike. Because of the uniqueness of individuals, their experiences, and as a result of this, their perceptions differ.
- (ix) ***Badly Expressed Messages***: Badly expressed messages may be the result of inadequate preparation, inadequate control over the medium, mannerisms of the sender etc. Even a wrong punctuation can result in badly expressed messages which may not convey any meaning or may convey an unintended message.
- (x) ***Unclearified Assumptions***: When one hears, sees or reads something he/she may make certain assumptions, which have no relation with reality. When one makes decisions or takes action based on wrong assumptions, the result will be disastrous.
- (xi) ***Abstractions***: In abstracting – the process of leaving something out to derive meaning – people give differential emphasis to different factors. Because of this, different people, when bombarded with the same stimulus or set of stimuli, may give different responses based on different conclusions.
- (xii) ***Absentmindedness***: Mental pre-occupation resulting in absentmindedness can be a very important barrier to effective communication. When in the role of the receiver, one should safeguard himself/herself from it and when in the sender’s role, should watch for signs of absentmindedness on the part of the receiver and take steps to ensure proper attention and involvement.
- (xiii) ***Time Pressure***: People in positions of authority and responsibility may not have enough time to communicate with everybody. Time Pressure can result in improper and insufficient communication. Time pressure may even lead to short-circuiting which means people being left out of the formal channel of communication, who normally would have been included.

Improving Communication Skills

Remember the old adage, “Reading make a full man”, writing an exact man and conference a ready man” and practice it to be a wise communicator.

Though there are various forms of communication, more often than not, we communicate orally. Oral communication involves:

- (i) Listening
- (ii) Speaking

Improving Organizational Communication

There is no magic formula for ensuring effective organizational communication as it is too complicated a process. However, organizational communication can be bettered. An awareness of the barriers to effective communication will help in two ways: (1) Avoiding the barriers or reducing their ill effects in ones communication (2) anticipating communication malfunctions in others which helps to overcome many a barrier in communication.

In ones effort to become a better communicator, he/she must not only strive to be understood but also to understand. The task is two fold. First, the message must be improved. So should be the understanding of what other people are trying to communicate to them. Some techniques that will aid in the accomplishment of these tasks are discussed below:

1. Receiver Orientation: To improve communication, one should speak the language of the receiver. Care should be taken to use words and usages that suit the listeners intelligence and background.
2. Attention to the ABCs: As a guiding principle for effective communication it should always be remembered to give proper attention to the ABCs viz., attractiveness, brevity and clarity.
3. Appropriateness: Appropriateness in communication means a lot of things. There should not be too much or too little of communication. It should not be too formal or too informal. It should sound serious or humorous depending on the topic being discussed, the nature of the receiver, time availability etc.
4. Use of Humour: Communication process is akin to the functioning of machinery with moving parts which requires lubrication for smooth friction-free operation. An effective 'lubricant' for the process of communication is humour. However, care should be taken to use it judiciously to avoid unintended or negative results.

5. Use of Right Appeal: The effectiveness of communication will be greatly enhanced when the right appeal is used. The skill of the communicator lies in identifying the right appeal for each situation and then using it.
6. Repetition: The universally acknowledged principle of learning viz., repetition can greatly contribute to communication effectiveness. Repetition will ensure that even if one part of the message is not understood, there are other parts, which will carry the same meaning.
7. Effective Timing: A host of message compete for peoples attention simultaneously. Many are not even decoded or received just because of the impossibility of taking them all in. Messages are best understood and received when they face least competition from other messages. Improper timing can result in distortions and value judgements which are harmful.
8. Simplifying Language: Many people, especially teachers and trainers have the habit of resorting to technical jargon that transforms simple concepts into complex puzzles. Complicated language is a very important barrier to effective communication. It has to be recognized that effective communication involves transmitting understanding as well as information.
9. Effective Listening: Effective listening is as important to communication as effective speaking. Managers must not only seek to be understood but also to understand. By proper listening, one can encourage other to express true feelings, hopes, aspirations and emotions. More than just listening, 'listening with understanding' is what is required.

Conclusion

The above discussion attempted to convey the basics in the process of communication and means and techniques for effective communication. The principles described apply to oral and written communication and is equally significant whether communication is vertical, horizontal or diagonal. Some of the techniques suggested for improving communication may find difficulty in being translated in to action for want of time. However, it is hoped that the discussion has thrown enough light on the challenge of effective communication and its requirements. Managers have to be effective in both transmission and reception. They must communicate effectively in their endeavour to understand and be understood, which will go a long way in improving their effectiveness and efficiency as managers.

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STRESS MANAGEMENT

INTRODUCTION

Many people think they understand stress. In reality, however, stress is complex and often misunderstood. To learn how job stress truly works, we must first define it and then relate it to the individual in the workplace.

Stress Defined

Although stress has been defined in many ways, a common ground of most definitions is that stress is caused by a stimulus, that the stimulus can be either physical or psychological and that individual respond to the stimulus in some way. Here, then we define stress as a person's adaptive response to a stimulus that places excessive psychological or physical demands on that person.

Let us look at each component of this definition. First is the notion of adaptation. As we discuss shortly, people adapt to stressful circumstances in any of several different ways. Second is the role of the stimulus. This stimulus is generally called a stressor. That is, a stressor is anything that induces stress. The definition also notes that stressors can be either psychological or physical. Finally, the demands placed on the individual by the stressor must be excessive for stress to result. Of course, what is excessive for one person may be perfectly tolerable for another.

The Cost of Stress

The human cost is severe. In America, the estimated annual cost to industry of combined absence from work, health charges, increased insurance and diminished productivity, is thought to run close to \$75 billion. The cost of stress related coronary heart disease alone is about \$30 billion. In Britain, at least 40 million working days are lost each year due to the effects of stress and it is estimated that stress related illness costs

the medical and social services an average of 55 million pound per year, accounting for loss of 2-3 per cent in the gross national product.

Stress and the Individual

Much of what we know about stress today can be traced to the pioneering work of Dr. Hans Selye identified what he called general adaptation syndrome and the notions of eustress and distress.

General Adaptation Syndrome ?

According to this view, we each have a normal level of resistance to stressful events. Some of us can tolerate a great deal of stress, while others can handle much less, but everyone has a basic threshold at which stress starts to affect us.

The GAS begins when a person first encounters a stressor. The first stage is called alarm. At this point, the person may feel some degree of panic, may wonder how to cope, and so forth. For example, suppose a manager is assigned a lengthy report to write overnight. His first reaction may be, "How will I ever get this done by tomorrow?"

If the stressor is too extreme, the person may simply be unable to cope with it at first. In most cases, however, the individual gathers his or her strength (physical or emotional) and resists the negative effects of the stressor. For example, the manager with the long report to write may calm down, call home to say he's working late, roll up his sleeves, order out for dinner, and set to work. Thus, at stage 2 of the GAS, the person is resisting the effects of the stressor.

In many cases, the resistance phase may end the GAS. If, for example, the manager is able to complete the report earlier than expected, he may drop it in his briefcase, smile to himself, and reach home tired but happy. On the other hand, prolonged exposure to a stressor, without resolution, may bring on phase 3 of the GAS i.e exhaustion.

At this stage, the person literally gives up and can no longer fight the stressor. The manager, for example, might fall asleep at his desk at 3.00 a.m and not get the report finished.

Distress and Eustress

Selye also pointed out that the effects of all stress need not be detrimental. For example, receiving a bonus and then having to decide what to do with the money can be stressful. So, too can getting a promotion, gaining recognition, getting married, and similar "good" things. Selye called this type of stress eustress.

Of course, there is also negative stress. Called distress, this is what most people think of when they hear the word stress. Excessive pressure, unreasonable demands on our time, bad news, so on and so forth, all fall in to this category.

For purposes of simplicity, we will continue to use the simple term stress. It is important to remember throughout the discussion, though, that stressor can be either positive or negative. It can motivate and stimulate us, or it can lead to any number of dangerous side effects.

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

It is also important to note the effects of individual differences on stress. We have already noted, for example, that people differ in their normal levels of resistance to stressors.

Cultural differences are also important. For example, as detailed more fully in international Perspective research by Cary Cooper suggests that American executives may have less stress than executives in many other countries, including Japan and Brazil.

Other research suggests that women are perhaps more prone to experience the psychological effects of stress, whereas men may report more physical effects. Finally, it has also been suggested that people who see themselves as being very complex are better able to handle stress than are people who have a simpler view of themselves. We should add, though, that the study of individual differences in stress is still in its infancy; it would be premature to draw rigid conclusions about how different types of people handled stress.

SOURCES OF JOB STRESS

Individuals will experience stress when they face new or threatening factors in their work environments. While individuals will vary, of course, in what they experience as stressful there are some aspects of work that systematically create job stress for employees.

One major source of job stress is the job itself. The way the job is designed, the amount of time pressure an individual faces, and the expectations others have of a person at work can all lead to job stress. Interpersonal relationships are a second source of job stress. How much contact an individual has with coworkers and bosses, how much time he or she deals with clients or consumers, and how pleasant in personal lives can spill over into the work environment, adding further tension to an already stressful work situation.

1) Job characteristics

A major source of job stress is a person's role in the organisation. A role is simply the set of expectations that other people in the organisation have an individual in his or her job. Supervisors, co-workers, customers, suppliers, and inspectors all of these people expect an individual to behave in certain predictable ways. Often, the expectations others have of an employee are unclear, in conflict, or too high for the employee to meet within the time allotted, and he or she experiences stress.

a) Role Ambiguity

In order for people to perform their jobs well in organisations, they need to know their job objectives, what they are expected to do and not do, and what the scope and responsibilities of their jobs are. When there is a lot of uncertainty surrounding job definitions or job expectations, people experience role ambiguity.

With the recent increase in mergers and acquisitions among major corporations, for instance, more and more employees are often unsure who is to perform which job duties. Employees wonder if they are duplicating other people's work, and are uncertain about whom they should be reporting their problems to. All this role ambiguity is anxiety-arousing to employees, and they consequently experience job stress.

b) Role Conflict

Often employees discover that different groups of people in an organisation have widely varying expectations of them and that they cannot meet all these expectations. This inconsistency of expectations associated with a role is called role conflict. There are two general types of role conflict in organisations.

The first type is intersender role conflict: two different groups have expectations of an individual that are incompatible or inconsistent. For example, admissions of clerks in hospitals are expected by public

relations officers to be pleasant, sympathetic and helpful to incoming patients and their families but are also expected by the comptroller's office to get detailed insurance and financial information. It is difficult for admissions clerks to achieve both goals simultaneously.

The second type is intrasender role conflict: One group has incompatible or inconsistent expectations of another. The plight of air traffic controllers is a good illustration of such conflict. Air traffic controllers are under order from the Federal Aviation Administration to properly space all air craft traffic. Nevertheless, control tower supervisors encourage air traffic controllers to ignore some of these regulations because aircraft traffic would get too heavy if all rules were followed to their letter. However, if a near-miss or an error occurs, the controllers are disciplined by these same supervisors for not following the regulations. Air traffic controllers are receiving inconsistent messages from their bosses (ignore regulations; follow regulations) and experience tremendous stress as a result. In one year alone at Chicago's O'Hare Airport, seven controllers experienced such acute hypertension that they had to be carried out of the control tower on a stretcher.

c) Role Overload

Role Overload is a situation in which employees feel they are being asked to do more than time or ability permits. Working under time pressure is especially stressful. People are anxious when they have a lot to do before some deadline; as time runs out, a feeling of impending disaster increases.

Two particularly interesting studies have been conducted on the impact of role overload on job stress. One study was done with tax accountants approaching the April 15 tax deadline, the other was done with medical students before an impending examination. In both studies, physiological symptoms of stress increased dramatically prior to the time deadline, and decreased sharply after the deadline had passed. The general adaptation syndrome does activate itself as the threat of time deadlines draws near and the body returns to equilibrium after the threat is over.

d) Role Underload

Most frequently, employees experience stress from having to respond to the role expectations of too many people. For some jobs and some workers, though stress comes from role underload. Role underload is the condition in which employees have too little work to do too little variety in their work. Salespeople in a store with no customers, standing around all day with nothing to do could be said to experience role underload. Assembly line workers also generally experience role underload; rarely do they perform more than one or two tasks day after day.

Ironically, role underload can lead to many of the same problems as role overload; low self-esteem; increased frequency of nervous symptoms and complaints; increased health problems. One of the most disturbing outcomes of role underload is passivity. Workers with role underload report they feel both physically and psychologically weary; even when they are not at work, they do not show much interest in social activity or physical exercise.

2) Interpersonal Relationships

A second major source of stress in organisations is poor interpersonal relationships with others, namely supervisors, coworkers or clients. When interpersonal relationships at work are unpleasant, employees develop a generalised anxiety, a diffuse feeling of dread about upcoming meetings and interactions. Three aspects of interpersonal relationships at work, in particular, have a negative impact on job stress.

- a) amount of contact with others
- b) amount of contact with people in other departments
- c) organisational climate

a) Amount of Contact with Others

Jobs vary in terms of how much interpersonal contact is built into them. Some job, like security guard or research scientist, involve relatively little interactions with others. In contrast, jobs like administrative assistant or waitress require constant human interaction. While most of these interactions

proceed smoothly, over time people become burned out and feel a need for privacy. Too much prolonged contact with other people can cause stress.

This stress is exacerbated when the people we come into contact with are in distress themselves. For this reason, employees in the "helping professions" - health care, social service, education and law-report the highest levels of stress. The client's stress rubs off on people who are acting in the helping capacity. It is ironic that doctors have the highest rate of alcoholism of any of the professions and that psychiatrists have the highest rate of suicide.

b) Amount of Contact with people in other Department

Having contacts with people outside one's own departments creates a special sort of stress. People in other departments do not always have an adequate understanding of jobs outside their own areas. As a result they are more likely to make requests that cannot be honored or set deadlines that cannot be met.

In hospitals, for example, employees in service departments like X-ray and pharmacy report high amounts of stress. The X-ray technicians and pharmacists report that doctors and nurses from the medical and surgical units make unreasonable demands on them and set very unrealistic deadlines for their services. Two X-ray technicians on call all night, for instance, cannot respond to all calls for service quickly when always has to be on duty in the emergency room.

c) Organisational Climate

Finally, the overall psychological climate of the organisation can create stress, when day-to-day life in an organisation is marked by unfriendly distant, or hostile exchange, employees are continually tense. They have little trust in each other and do not express their true concerns and desires. They are unsupportive of each other and spend little time helping each other with problems.

3) Personal Factors

Frequently, employees' personal lives have a marked effect on their lives at work. If things are going well personally, they are more likely to be upbeat and optimistic. They have more energy and patience for

dealing with problems at work. On the other hand, if employees are having some personal problems, they might be more tense or distracted when they go to work. Little problems at work make them angry and irritable. Their nerves may already be a little frayed; it takes less to get them upset.

Three factors in particular, influence how much stress people bring from their personal lives to the work setting: 1) their career concerns 2) their geographical mobility and 3) the rate of change in their personal lives.

One major career concern that can cause stress is lack of job security. With the exception of some unionised employees, very few workers in America have job security and in recessions, even those employees enjoy few guarantees. Even top-level managers can lose their jobs on short notice. When the economy worsens or the profits of the firm go flat, people become especially worried about how they could support themselves if they lost their jobs.

CONSEQUENCES OF JOB STRESS

(1) Physical Health

Job stress has a substantially negative impact on physical health. First, job stress increases the frequency of minor physical ailments. People who are experiencing stress are more likely to have headaches, stomachaches, backaches, and chest pains.²⁹

Second, job stress has a major impact on contributory factors to major illnesses. People under stress are more likely to have a quickened heartbeat and greater difficulty breathing.

Blood pressure rises with stress, as do cholesterol levels. All of these factors make the body more susceptible to major illnesses like heart disease.

Indeed, the research quite strongly suggests that people who undergo prolonged periods of stress are more likely to suffer more major physical illnesses. In particular, stress is a major contributor to ulcers, arthritis, drug and alcohol abuse, and heart disease. Some researchers suggest that managers with high levels of stress may be twice as prone to heart disease, five times as prone to a second heart attack, and twice as prone to fatal heart attacks as low-stress managers.

Finally, and not surprisingly in light of the evidence presented above, job stress influences longevity. There is strong evidence that job stress shortens one's life. Job Stress not only makes bodies more susceptible to major illnesses, but also contributes directly to life-threatening diseases.

Even the courts have been making worker compensation awards on the basis of stress-induced disabilities. Courts have rules that in stress cases, "the central consideration isn't the actual work environment, but how the employee reacts to it." Employers can be held liable if the illness has been "aggravated, accelerated, precipitated, or triggered" by the conditions of the job.

(2) Psychological

Stress has a marked impact on mental as well as physical health. Probably the most noticeable impact job stress has on people psychologically is that it increases their anxiety. Anxiety is a vague sense of apprehension and foreboding. People may not know exactly how to put their finger on what's bothering them, but they feel vulnerable to people and events in their work environments. They worry more about how they will deal with potential threats that may not even materialize.

Stress also increases frustration. When people are blocked from behaving the way they would like to behave or from getting what they want, they are said to be frustrated. ³⁴ When people get passed over for a promotion, for instance, they feel frustrated. They can't do the job they want, and they can't obtain the status and rewards they desire. There are several ways in which individuals respond to frustration.

One response to frustration is passivity. If a person constantly fails at a job despite increased efforts, or keeps on getting the bad breaks, he or she is likely to give up or become disinterested. When you read in the newspapers about unemployment among those "actively seeking employment," for instance, these figures exclude those workers who have not looked for a job in six months. These workers are so frustrated by

constant rejection that they have withdrawn from the work force and have stopped looking for work altogether.

Another response to frustration is aggression. Aggressive employees strike out at those around them. If employees feel aggressive toward their supervisors and coworkers, they may snipe at them in meetings. They may become irritable, losing their temper over relatively unimportant matters. They may become more negative, finding fault with everyone and everything.

A third response to frustration is depression. When people are frustrated at work, they often become sad. They may become pessimistic and lose their self-confidence and self-esteem. Individuals may start to avoid social contacts and feel more lonely. For instance, sometimes people will become depressed if they do not win some special award or recognition they had hoped for. They blame themselves for their failure and feel helpless to control events around them.

Most people have suffered from acute depression occasionally. Individuals may be really depressed after getting poor performance evaluations, or getting job rejection letters, or breaking up a marriage. Generally, after a short while, they are like their “old selves” again, with confidence renewed. However, if the depression does not self-correct and becomes chronic, more serious problems can ensue.”

A fourth response to frustration, although much rarer, is suicide. For a variety of reasons, an individual may feel unable to cope with all the negative aspects of his or her life and decide to end it. Unfortunately, the occurrence of suicide has increased over the past decade, particularly among executives.

(3) Performance

Stress may also have a negative impact on individual performance. Stress can lead to increased turnover and absenteeism, for instance. Turnover and absenteeism allow workers to withdraw from unpleasant environments. In addition, stress has been frequently associated with industrial sabotage. Workers sometimes create mechanical failures on the assembly line to give themselves a break from the monotony and strain of their work. Job stress also has an impact on individual productivity.

(4) Decision Making

Stress also impedes effective decision-making. When people are feeling stress, they are more likely to procrastinate and to avoid having to make decisions. They have more trouble concentrating and often forget important pieces of information. They are less likely to seek out new information that could help them make better decisions. As a result, the quality of the decisions they make suffers.

For example, when individuals are trying to decide which job offers to accept, they frequently feel stress. While there are several good opportunities that lie ahead, there is also much uncertainty about what these jobs are really like. The costs of a wrong decision can be high. Moreover, often these decisions have to be made within a few days' time. As a result of this stress, many people delay making the decision until the last moment; they keep on trying to put it out of their minds. They have trouble concentrating on the information they already have, and feel too distracted to search out additional data on their options. As a result, individuals often make bad job decisions when they are operating under high stress.

COPING WITH JOB STRESS

As we have pointed out before, it is not true that employees do not want any stress at work. Indeed, there is substantial evidence that employees are energized and motivated by moderate amounts of stress. However, most people want to reduce their stress to the point where they feel they have some control over what is going on around them.

In this, section, we will be looking at a variety of ways in which individuals cope, or deal, with stress at work. The first set of these coping strategies are work-focused. Employees can decrease stress by directly changing their own work habits or the work environments they are in. The second set of these coping strategies are emotion-focused. These strategies do not directly change the work environment perse, but rather help employees adjust to the stress more easily.

(1) Work-Focused Coping Strategies

Role Clarification

Probably the most direct way in which individuals can cope with stress is by trying to clarify or change the role expectations of others. If employees feel their job assignments are unclear, they can ask their supervisors for clarification of what is expected. If they feel that they are getting conflicting signals from their managers (for instance, "I don't care how you get this done, just get it done" but "Don't step on any toes") they can confront their managers about the lose-lose situations they find themselves in. One overlooked coping strategy in this area is changing the constraints put upon a job assignment. If a job is due in two days and there is no way it can be accomplished even by working twelve-hour days, it is rational to ask for more time or help when the assignment is initially given.

Time Management

Another way of coping with stress is to manage time more effectively. People can learn to get better organized so that they can do their work more efficiently and fritter away less time needlessly. For example, managers often waste time by answering all calls and letters as they come in. Instead, they could put off unimportant activities until slack periods and try to do their most important work in the morning when they are feeling fresh.

Delegation

A third way of coping with job stress is to delegate some responsibilities to others. Managers can let subordinates gather some of the data they need, or represent them at some meetings. Secretaries can take care of many of the bureaucratic details managers don't need to attend to personally. Delegation can directly decrease work demands put upon the manager-and often the tasks the manager delegates to subordinates are seen as challenging by those who receive them.

Search for More Information and Direct Task Help

Some employees may think it is a sign of weakness to ask for more information or some initial assistance when given an unfamiliar task. It is not uncommon, for instance, to see new employees work three times longer on a job than necessary rather than admit they are not sure what they are doing. It is much more efficient, effective and anxiety-reducing to get some help before getting lost.

Co-operative work Strategies

Sometimes an effective way of dealing with too much work is to co-operate with other people in the same situation. For instance, in preparing major reports, dividing the work and sharing information can help employees complete their projects faster and with much less effort. People worry, of course, that they will be taken advantage of they will work hard, but others will not. However, more often than not, people will realize it is in their own best interest to share the load and will co-operate enthusiastically.

Departure from the job

Finally, it is important to note that sometimes the stress on a job is too great, and that not much can be done to relieve it. The organization may be greatly understaffed, and the person greatly overworked. An employee might be in a job for which he or she is simply not well trained. Whatever the reason, it is not a sign of weakness to leave a job before one gets physically sick or emotionally depressed.

(2) Emotion Focussed Coping Strategies

Reduced Perfectionism

One of the biggest sources of stress in people's lives is the attempt to live up to the impossible standards they set for themselves. People expect themselves to perform consistently at high levels, even when they are trying to get too much done in too little time. They expect themselves to be efficient "machines" at work even when they are ill or pre-occupied with personal problems. Sometimes a good way of dealing with stress is to accept less than one's very best every once in a while. Not that people should become lazy or lackadaisical, but rather they should realize that not every performance can be stellar, and the world will not stop turning if they are not perfect every time.

Employees also have fantasies about what the perfect job or perfect manager would be like. They imagine there are saintly, compassionate, competent supervisors out in the world and they feel ill-used because they don't have them. However, their managers have the same stresses they have, probably not, an expecting ideal behaviour from them inevitably leads to disappointment. There is no perfect boss and there not perfect job. Learning to live with a little less is not compromising standards. It is dealing with the job more realistically.

Increased Social Support

A very effective way of coping with job stress is to seek out social support from others. When people feel stressed, it helps to have friends and colleagues who are supportive. Friends can provide an outlet for blowing off steam; they can support lagging self-confidence or self-esteem; they can be confided in about personal and work-related problems.

Increased Tolerance of Ambiguity

Through out school, most people receive clear homework assignments, objective tests, and frequent feedback. The work world is not like that. Most of the problems managers work on are ill-defined: little feedback is received; the criteria for success are much fuzzier. Certainly it makes sense to try to reduce role ambiguity wherever possible. However, employees can never obtain the role clarity they had as students, and they might be better off becoming more tolerant of ambiguity.

Relaxation Techniques

Relaxation techniques are another type of emotion-focused coping device. When individuals can't change the stressful work situation, they can sometimes cope with it more effectively if they are calmer. Some researchers have found that people experience a "relaxation response" if: (1) they are in a quiet environment' (2) they close their eyes; (3) they get into a comfortable position; and (4) they keep on repeating a simple sound to block out work-related thoughts. While the research in this area is still relatively new and sketchy, there is some evidence that such a "relaxation response" can decrease muscle tension, heart rate, blood pressure, and rate of breathing.

Health Maintenance

Researchers in the area of job stress have advocated increased health maintenance for those in high stress jobs. Proper diet, proper exercise, and enough sleep can keep the body in better shape for dealing with stress. When employees are tired and run down, they are much more likely to let their jobs get on their nerves.

They eat too much junk food, drink coffee to keep them going and consider walking to the vending machine as sufficient exercise. People are much more likely to get physically sick or emotionally depressed if they are out of shape, over tired, or poorly nourished.

3) Organizational Programmes to Manage Stress

Before concluding this chapter, we also want to look briefly at some programmes organisations are using to help their employees better deal with stress. While a wide variety of stress programmes have been experimented with, three types of programmes have become the most widespread.

Probably the most frequently used organisational stress management programme is health maintenance. The Sun Valley Health Institute in Idaho, for instance, runs four-days programmes that not only monitor employees' current health, but also emphasize to participants what changes are needed in their diets and exercise routines. Many companies, such as Xerox, Kinberly Clark, Weyerhaeuser, Pepsi-Cola and Rockwell International, have invested large sums of money in gym facilities staffed with full time physical education and health care personnel.

Another type of stress management programme that organisations are experimenting with is Supervisor training. For instance, organisations like American Express have systematically trained managers to be more effective in delegating, authority and including subordinates in decisions that affect their work assignments and workloads. Other organisations, such as First Union National Bank of North Carolina, have used leadership training to teach managers better counselling skills. Central to many of these supervisory training programmes is an emphasis on preventing job stress. Managers are trained to give better performance appraisals to listen to employees' problems more effectively and to communicate job assignments and instructions more clearly.

Third, some organisations have also sponsored individual stress reduction workshops for their employees. These programmes have run the gamut from bio-feedback, sensitivity groups, and transcendental meditation to career counselling, time management, and interpersonal skills workshops, Kaiser-Permanent a health maintenance organisations to California; runs a four-day stress management programme for its staff. In lecturers and seminars, participants are given a basic understanding of the causes of stress and its

consequences for their well-being. Then, participants are given materials to help them identify the major sources of stress in their own lives, and some strategies for dealing with that stress more effectively.

The future of such stress management programmes, ironically, is itself uncertain. In recent years, a thriving industry has sprouted to teach corporations and their employees at rates as high as \$ 2,700 per person how to deal with stress. Unfortunately, some charlatans have been drawn to the area, casting doubt upon the many good stress programmes also available. One company active in stress management, Drilcota Texas tool manufacturer, has discontinued its programme because it found that much of the stress of its employees was personal, and better handled outside the company. IBM, a company otherwise noted for its generous employee policies, has no psychological counselling programme for employees, labelling such programmes "deadly paternalism".

In the final analysis, then, the management of stress lies by necessity with the individual. Even if organisations continue to remain active in stress management programmes, ultimately it is the individual who has to be responsible for his or her own well-being.

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GROUP DYNAMICS AND TEAM BUILDING

Human beings are always found in groups in organizations. No institution is an exception. It is very evident that even though an individual's needs and motivations do not change, the existence of groups influence the behaviour of individuals in organizations. Organizational behaviour is neither the sum nor the product of individual's behaviour. The group is a very significant element in the phenomenon of Organizational Behaviour.

Marvin E Shaw in 'Group Dynamics' defines a group as "two or more employees who interact with each other in such a manner that the behaviour and/or performance of a member is influenced by the behaviour and/or performance of other members".

Types of Groups

In any organization, most of the individuals will be members of groups based on their position in the organization. Such groups are termed *formal groups* eg., staff of a particular department. When individuals have opportunities for reasonably continuous associations, they tend to form groups whose activities are not dictated by organizational requirements. Such groups may be termed *informal groups*. Eg. Junior officers of various departments. It should be borne in mind, that this classification is based on the manner of formation of groups in organizations. The general attributes and nature of both groups are more or less the same.

Objectives of Group Formation

The most important reason for group formation is the satisfaction of needs. In '*Perspectives on Group Processes*', Gratton Kemp describes a group as an instrument for satisfaction of individual needs. It may be observed in this context that the security, social, esteem and self-actualization needs of employees find satisfaction in group affiliations.

Physical closeness and mutual appreciation, perception of commonly shared objectives, interests or attitudes also facilitate group formation. So is attraction to group goals, which an individual finds personally beneficial.

The importance of financial reasons of group formation cannot be overemphasized. Here the group members common interest is increased economic benefits.

Leadership of groups

In the case of formal and informal groups the phenomenon of leadership is of great importance. ***Leadership is said to exist, when, one person influences the thinking or action or both of another person or group of persons.*** The individual exhibiting the phenomenon is the leader. The leader of a formal group has access to de jure power and so can reward or punish individual members to ensure compliance with norms, commands, stipulations etc.

The leader of the informal group who is devoid of any de jure power will have to rely on de facto power and, will, by and large, be a respected and accepted member of the group. The members expect the informal leader to be their spokes-person who will work for the redressal of grievances of the group in general and its members in particular. The members expect the leader to maintain the group as a sound functional unit on a long term basis. The members may replace the informal leader if found necessary.

So, irrespective of whether the group is formal or informal, the leader has to possess required knowledge and skills and exhibit the right attitudes to facilitate group task achievement.

It will be prudent to identify and enumerate issues and processes found in groups. These should be of interest to those in administration as they can greatly affect level and quality of group performance.

Group Processes and Issues:

Cohesiveness: By cohesiveness is meant the extent to which individual members of a group are attracted to each other and value their group affiliation. The factors contributing to greater group cohesiveness are:

- (i) Similarity of traits, orientations, attitudes, value systems etc.
- (ii) Physical proximity and interaction
- (iii) Perception of group affiliation as beneficial
- (iv) Existence of an outside threat
- (v) Smaller group size

As its impact on the behaviour of members is great, a cohesive group is a powerful social force in any organization. A cohesive work group is very handy for managers when the group identifies its objectives with those of the organization. When this is not the case, the person in charge has the responsibility to identify the factors that contribute to the group opposition to the organizational objectives and take the required corrective action. This is because a non-cohesive work group creates administrative problems as there is lack of group pressure for excellence in job performance and task achievement.

Norms: The standards stipulating how an individual member of the group should conduct himself or herself are called norms. Norms have very strong influence on the behaviour of individual members of a group. One may trace the development of group norms through the informal interaction of its members. There may be occasional instances of deviant behaviour. However, more often than not, group pressure will be sufficient to bring the behaviour of the deviant member into conformity with group norms. In extreme cases of incessant deviant behaviour, the group may excommunicate the errant member. Managers can, in all normal circumstances, expect members to adjust their behaviour so that it is in tune with the group norms. Problems will arise when the group norms are in conflict with the organizational objectives. Managers should take it up as their responsibility to ensure that there exists a supplementary and complimentary relationship between the goals of the organization and the norms of the groups that comprise it.

Decision making in groups:

When autocratic leadership style is practised, the leader takes all decisions in a group. In the case of democratic leadership style decision making is a consultative and participate process. Though the general belief is that involvement and participation in decision making will ensure acceptance of and commitment to those decisions, research studies have not always been supportive of it. Moreover, in practice extreme autocracy or democracy in decision making is also very rare. It should also be remembered that the manager will ultimately be responsible for the decisions, no matter how they were made. Another factor which managers should consider is that the quality of group decisions depends on factors like the complexities of the problem, access to data, knowledge skill and attitude of group members, organizational culture, the members perception of their involvement in the process etc. Members of many professions are highly independent. The success of the manager or administrator depends on his/her skill to identify which leadership style suits the organization best and then exhibiting it.

Intragroup relations in a work team

Many people are excellent individuals but bad team players. The success of institutions depends more on effective team playing and synergy than individual excellence.

Because of basic human nature and more because of the socialization process that one has undergone, people exhibit various behaviours, harbour certain feelings and emotions and experience various states of mind which are negative or unproductive to effective group functioning and performance. Some of these are:

- "I have done my work; let me withdraw". This state of mind signifies an inability to perceive a group task as a group task.
- Being a blocker to group activity though many a time it is unintentional.
- Consuming more than ones due share of resources, thus depriving others of even their legitimate share.
- Satisfaction with limited achievements.
- Collecting resources and idling them.
- Hard but unproductive work.
- Frustration at task non-achievement leading to disregard for organizational relations/norms etc.
- Dissatisfaction with existing leadership and desiring better alternatives
- Always wanting to be the leader
- Feeling of alienation with ones immediate work group eg. "I wish I had joined XYZ organization".
- Contempt for colleagues

One has to consider all of the above when engaged in team building and management.

The leader should take it up as his responsibility to ensure that these negative feelings, behaviours etc. cease to exist or at least that their ill effects are kept to the minimum.

Intergroup relations in organization & Relationship between organizations in society

The field of intergroup dynamics has baffled many a behavioural scientist. While the various sections/groups of an organization are only sub systems of the organizational system, hardly is this fact recognized and appropriate behaviour exhibited in practice. The various subsystems of the organization will pull it in different directions with the ultimate result of the whole organization crumbling and perishing. When the various subsystems of the organization get opportunities for interaction they can use it productively for the organization and also benefiting themselves in the process. This will necessitate the exhibition of traits such as:

1. ***mutual trust***
2. ***co-operation***
3. ***collaboration***
4. ***understanding, etc.***

However, in reality one finds that in majority of such situations, the traits exhibited by the involved groups are:

1. ***mistrust***
2. ***conflict***
3. ***confrontation***
4. ***misunderstanding etc.***

Occasions are many where groups block achievements of their groups even when doing so will prevent their own task achievements and they are aware of it also. The reason for this sad state of affairs is that because of basic human nature and more because of ones socialization process many have developed the deep rooted concept of 'WIN-LOSE', which advocates that to be 'successful', one has to ensure the 'failure' of the other party. By extension this will also mean that if the other party is 'winning', you have to be a loser. No one will willingly opt to lose. But when ones concept is that of 'WIN-LOSE', the decisions made and actions taken with the hope and expectation of ensuring ones 'success', will only ensure the other party's failure. In ensuring the failure of the other, both parties will be successful. What is basically needed for healthy productive and effective intergroup dynamics is a shift in ones basic concept from WIN-LOSE to WIN-WIN which will

mean discontinuance of traits like mistrust, conflict, confrontation, misunderstanding etc. and substituting them with trust, co-operation, collaboration, understanding etc.

TEAM BUILDING

In recent years, teams have emerged as the most important group phenomenon in organizations. The term "team" is not new to organizations, and teamwork has been stressed throughout the years. For example, the well-known quality guru Joseph Juran first took his "Team Approach to Problem Solving" to the Japanese in the 1950s and then in the 1980 to the United States. Today, teams are becoming increasingly popular. Recent estimates of the prevalence and type of teams among Fortune 1000 companies are as follows.

1. Almost all use project teams (diverse managerial/professional employees working on projects for as defined, but typically extended, period of time).
2. A large majority (87 percent) use parallel teams (employees working on problem-solving or quality teams in parallel to the regular organisational structure)
3. About half use permanent work teams (self-contained work units responsible for manufacturing products or providing services).

After first defining what is meant by a team and critically analyzing self-managed teams found in today's organizations, the ways to train self-managed teams and make them effective are discussed.

The Nature of Teams

Although the term "team" is frequently used for any group, especially to get individuals to work together and to motivate them, some team experts make a distinction between teams and traditional work groups. For example, the authors of a recent book on the use of teams for creating high-performance organizations note that the difference between a work group and a team relates to performance results.

They go on to note these specific differences between work groups and teams:

1. The work group has a strong, clearly focused leader, the team has shared leadership roles.
2. The work group has individual accountability; the team has individual and mutual accountability.
3. The work group's purpose is the same as the organization's the team has a specific purpose.
4. The work group has individual work-products; the team has collective work products.
5. The work group runs efficient meetings; the team encourages open-ended, active problem-solving meetings.
6. The work group measures effectiveness indirectly (for example, financial performance of the overall business); the team measures performance directly by assessing collective work-products.
7. The work group discusses, decides and delegates; the team discusses, decides and does real work.

The point is that teams do go beyond traditional formal work groups by having collective, synergistic (the whole is greater than the sum of its parts) effect.

The Effectiveness of Teams

Although there has been considerable testimonial evidence of the value of self-managed teams, supporting research and documented experience are now starting to emerge. To date, both the research and practice literature has been quite favourable to self-managed teams. For example, a comprehensive meta-analysis covering seventy studies concluded that self-managed teams had a positive impact on productivity

and specific attitudes related to the team, but not on general attitudes, absenteeism, or turnover. This finding on the impact on productivity is impressive, and recent studies also find a more favourable impact on attitudes as well, but there are still practical problems to overcome. For example, a recent in-depth interview survey of 4500 teams at 500 organizations uncovered a host of individual and organizational factors behind team ineffectiveness. Individual problems included the following:

1. Team members aren't willing to give up past practices or set aside power and positions.
2. Not all team members have the ability, knowledge, or skill to contribute to the group. Team function slows because some members shoulder more responsibility than others.
3. As team members, workers often face conflicts or challenges to their own personal beliefs. What works for the group often does not work for the individual.

Organizational-level problems uncovered by this survey included compensation and reward systems that still focused solely on individual performance; thus there was little incentive for teams to perform well. A recent survey of 300 large companies found that only 9 percent of them were pleased with their team-based compensation.

How to Make Teams More Effective

For teams to be more effective, they need to overcome some of the real problems that some, if not most, are currently experiencing. Most suggested guidelines revolve around training and evaluation systems. An example of an effective training approach would be the ten-step model shown in Table 9.3. GE, in its Electrical Distribution and Control Division, has successfully used this training model. According to the trainers, the trained GE teams "are made up of dedicated people who enjoy working together, who maintain high standards, and who demonstrate high productivity and commitment to excellence".

Besides going through the steps of training teams to become effective self-managing entities, team experts agree that they must also be monitored and evaluated on a continuous basis. As one expert noted:

At any point, team members can slide back to a lower level of effectiveness if they do not continually work together as a team, listen and communicate effectively, deal with conflict demonstrate other characteristics of an effective team.

She then goes on to specify five key areas of the team that should be closely monitored and periodically measured : (1) team mission (2) goal achievement (3) empowerment (4) open, honest communication and (5) positive roles and norms. By controlling such key functions, self managed teams can be effective and contribute to the performance goals of the organisation.

The use of Cross-Functional Teams

Over the last few years, emphasis on team training has remained high. However, to increase effectiveness, the focus has also shifted to the use of cross-functional teams made up of individuals from a host of different departments or functional specialities.

To improve co-operation within cross-functional teams, organisations have found that they need to carry out five steps. These include (1) choosing the membership carefully (2) clearly establishing the purpose of the team (3) ensuring that everyone understands how the group will function (4) conducting intensive team building up front so that everyone learns how to interact effectively and (5) achieving noticeable results so that morale remains high and the members can see the impact of their efforts.

In promoting cross-functional teams throughout an organisation, there are three steps that have been found to be extremely helpful. First, clear and specific goals have to be established so that the group is focused on a particular objective, such as increasing productivity or reducing time to market. Second, hiring, promotion and performance appraisal criteria have to be determined so that members can be carefully selected and the people on the teams understand how their performance will impact on their evaluations and promotions. Third, compensation systems must be carefully crafted so that people are equitably rewarded for their efforts. In other words, the effective use of cross-functional teams must draw from other areas of the field of organisational behaviour discussed in this text (e.g., goal setting, socialization and reward systems).

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CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

Introduction To Conflict:

Conflict is difficult to define, because it occurs in many different settings. The essence of conflict seems to be disagreement, contradiction, or incompatibility. Thus, CONFLICT refers to any situation in which there are incompatible Goals, Cognitions, or Emotions within or between individuals or groups that lead to opposition or antagonistic interaction. The definition recognizes three basic types of conflict:

Goal conflict is situation in which desired end states or preferred outcomes appear to be incompatible.

Cognitive Conflict is a situation in which ideas or thoughts are inconsistent.

Affective Conflict is a situation in which feelings or emotions are incompatible; that is, people literally become angry with one another.

Conflict is very common in organizational settings. This is not necessarily a negative feature; the resolution of conflict often leads to constructive problem solving.

Conflict exists in many forms other than the form that can result from competition, and managers should understand the different ways of conflict resolution. Thus examines conflict from a variety of view points. It first considers the positive and negative aspects of conflict. Next, it discusses the levels of conflict that can occur within organizations. Finally, it identifies some of the basic strategies for managing conflict.

Levels Of Conflict

The five levels of conflict are intrapersonal (within an individual), interpersonal (between individuals), intragroup (within a group), intergroup (between groups), and intraorganizational (within organizations).

Intrapersonal Conflict

Intrapersonal Conflict, which occurs within an individual, often involves some form of goal conflict or cognitive conflict. Goal conflict exists for individuals when their behaviour will result in outcomes that are mutually exclusive or have compatible elements (both positive and negative outcomes).

- Approach-approach conflict is a situation in which a person has a choice between two or more alternatives with positive outcomes; for example, a person can choose between two jobs that appear to be equally attractive.
- Avoidance - avoidance conflict is a situation in which a person must choose between two or more alternatives, and they all have negative outcomes. For example, employees may be threatened with punishment in the form of demotion unless they do something they dislike spend much time travelling on their job, for example.
- Approach-avoidance conflict is a situation in which a person must decide whether to do something that had both positive and negative outcomes, for example, being offered a good job in a bad location.

Interpersonal Conflict

Interpersonal conflict involves two or more individuals rather than one individual. Two managers competing for the same promotion, two executives maneuvering for a larger share of corporate capital - examples of conflict between individuals are legion and quite familiar.

Reasons

1. **Personality differences:** Some people have difficulty in getting along with each other. This is purely a psychological problem and it has nothing to do with their job requirements or formal interactions.
2. **Perceptions:** Varied backgrounds, experiences, education and training result in individuals developing different perceptions of similar realities; the result being an increase in the likelihood of interpersonal conflict.
3. **Clashes of values and interests:** Conflict that so commonly develops between engineering and manufacturing personnel shows how differences in values might underlie conflict. Members of the engineering department might place a premium on quality, sophisticated design and durability while members of the manufacturing department might value simplicity and low manufacturing costs.
4. **Power and status differences:** As pointed out by Abraham Zelenznik "Organizations are political structures". They operate by distributing authority and setting a stage for the exercise of power. Similarly status inconsistencies lead to conflict.
5. **Scarce resource:** Interpersonal conflict is almost automatic anytime there is scarcity. Conflicts over scarce resources are exceedingly common in organizations. Where the scarcity is absolute (the resource level cannot be enhanced) it is very difficult to manage interpersonal conflicts. For example if three qualified individuals ie. for superior positions in the organization and there is only one such position, interpersonal conflict may develop to an unmanageable level.

Intragroup Conflict

A group experiencing intragroup conflict, may eventually resolve it, allowing the group to reach a consensus. Or the group may not resolve the conflict, and the group discussion may end in disagreement among the members. A study of a large number of groups engaged in business and governmental decision making, tried to identify some the conditions that lead to (1) the successful resolution of conflict (consensus or (2) the failure to resolve conflict (disagreement). This study showed that conflict within groups is not a simple, single phenomenon. Instead, intragroup conflict seems to fall into two distinct categories : (1) substantive conflict and (2) affective conflict.

Substantive conflict refers to conflict based on the nature of the task or to "content" issues. It is associated with intellectual disagreements among the group members. In contrast, affective conflict derives primarily from the group's interpersonal relations. It is associated with emotional responses aroused during interpersonal clashes.

Inter-Group Conflict

An organization is a collection of individuals and groups. As the situation and requirements demand, the individuals form various groups. The success of the organization as a whole depends upon the harmonial relations among all interdependent groups, even though some intergroup conflicts in organizations is inevitable. The idea is to study intergroup behaviours within an organization so that any conflict can be recognized and dealt with by the management.

Intra-Organizational Conflict

Four types of intra-organizational conflict exist: (1) vertical conflict (2) horizontal conflict (3) line-staff conflict and (4) role conflict. Although these types of conflict can overlap, especially with role conflict, each has distinctive characteristics.

Vertical Conflict: Vertical conflict refers to any conflict between levels in an organization; superior-subordinate conflict is one example. Vertical conflicts usually arise because superiors attempt to control subordinates and subordinates.

Horizontal Conflict: Horizontal Conflict refers to conflict between employees or departments as the same hierarchical level in an organization.

Line-Staff Conflict: Most organizations have staff departments to assist the line departments.

The line-staff relationship frequently involves conflict. Staff managers and line managers typically have different personal characteristics. Staff employees tend to have a higher level of education, come from different backgrounds, and are younger than line employees. These different personal characteristics are frequently associated with different values and beliefs, and the surfacing of these different values tends to create conflict.

Role Conflict

A role is the cluster of activities that others expect individuals to perform in their position. A role frequently involves conflict.

Managing Conflict

Except in very few situations where the conflict can lead to competition and creativity so that in such situations the conflict can be encouraged, in all other cases where conflict is destructive in nature, it should be resolved as soon after it has developed as possible, but all efforts should be made to prevent it from developing.

- **Preventing conflict.** Some of the preventive measures that the management can take, according to Schein are:
 - a) *Goal structure:* Goals should be clearly defined and the role and contribution of each unit towards the organizational goal must be clearly identified. All units and the individuals in these units must be aware of the importance of their role and such importance must be fully recognized.
 - b) *Reward System:* The compensation system should be such that it does not create individual competition or conflict within the unit. It should be appropriate and proportionate to the group effort and reflect the degree of interdependence among units where necessary.
 - c) *Trust and communication:* The greater the trust among the members of unit, the more honest and open the communication among them would be. Individuals and units should be encouraged to communicate openly with each other so that they can all understand each other, understand each other's problems and help each other when necessary.
 - d) *Co-ordination:* Co-ordination is the next step to communication. Properly co-ordinated activity reduce conflict. Wherever there are problems in co-ordination, a special liaison office should be established to assist such co-ordination.

- **Resolving Behavioural Conflict**

Various researchers have identified five primary strategies for dealing with and reducing the impact of behavioural conflict. Even though different authors have given different terminology to describe these strategies, the basic content and approach of these strategies remain the same. These are:

1. *Ignoring the conflict.* In certain situations, it may be advisable to take a passive role and avoid it all together. From the manager's point of view, it may be specially necessary when getting involved in a situation would provoke further controversy or when conflict is so trivial in nature that it would not be worth the manager's time to get involved and try to solve it. It could also be that the conflict is so fundamental to the position of the parties involved that it may be best either to leave it to them to solve it or to let events take their own course. The parties involved in the conflict may themselves prefer to avoid conflict, specially if they are emotionally upset by the tension and frustration created by it. People may intrinsically believe that conflict is fundamentally evil and its final consequences are never good. Thus people may try to get away from conflict causing situations.
2. *Smoothing:* Smoothing simply means covering up the conflict by appealing for the need for unity rather than addressing the issue of conflict itself. An individual with internal conflict may try to "count his blessings" and forget about the conflict. If two parties have a conflict within the organization, the supervisor may try to calm things down by being understanding and supportive to both parties and appealing them for co-operation. The supervisor does not ignore or withdraw from the conflict nor does he try to address and solve the conflict but expresses hope that "everything will work out for the best of all." Since the problem is never addressed, the emotions may build up further and suddenly explode. Thus smoothing provides only a

temporary solution and conflict may resurface again in the course of time. Smoothing is more sensitive approach than avoiding in that as long as the parties agree that not showing conflict has more benefits than showing conflicts, the conflict can be avoided.

3. *Compromising*: A compromise in the conflict is reached by balancing the demands of the conflicting parties and bargaining in a give and take position to reach a solution. Each party gives up something and also gains something. The technique of conflict resolution is very common in negotiations between the labour unions and management. It has become customary for the union to ask for more than what they are willing to accept and for management to offer less than what they are willing to give in the initial stages. Then through the process of negotiating and bargaining, mostly in the presence of arbitrators, they reach a solution by compromising. This type of compromise is known as integrative bargaining in which both sides win in a way.

Compromising is a useful technique, particularly when two parties have relatively equal power, thus no party can force its viewpoints on the other and the only solution is to compromise. It is also useful when there are time constraints. If the problems are complex and many faceted, and the time is limited to solve them, it might be in the interest of conflicting parties to reach a compromise.

4. *Forcing*: As Webber puts it, “the simplest conceivable resolution is the elimination of the other party – to force opponents to flee and give up the fight – or slay them.” This is technique of domination where the dominator has the power and authority to enforce his own views over the opposing conflicting party. This technique is potentially effective in situations such as a president of a company firing a manager because he is considered as a trouble-maker and conflict creator. This technique always ends up in one party being a loser and the other party being a clear winner. Many professors in colleges and universities have lost promotions and tenured re-appointments because they could not get along well with their respective chairpersons of the departments and had conflicts with them. This approach causes resentment and hostility and can backfire. Accordingly, management must look for better alternatives, if these become available.
5. *Problem solving*: This technique involves “confronting the conflict” in order to seek the best solution to the problem. This approach objectively assumes that in all organizations, no matter how well they are managed, there will be differences of opinions which must be resolved through discussions and respect for differing viewpoints. In general, this technique is very useful in resolving conflicts arising out of semantic misunderstandings. It is not so effective in resolving non-communicative types of conflicts such as those that are based on differing value systems, where it may even intensify differences and disagreements. In the long run, however, it is better to solve conflicts and take such preventive measures that would reduce the likelihood of such conflicts surfacing again.

If there is a single contributory factor that helps in reducing and eliminating negative conflict, it is "trust". Our ability to trust each other has great impact on our working lives, on our family interactions and our achievement of personal and organizational goals. In order to create trust and be trustworthy, it is necessary to avoid aggressive behaviours and at the same time develop supportive behaviours where people are respected for what they are or what they believe in and are treated equally without bias or prejudice. In case, a conflict develops at any level, it should be resolved with mutual benefit in mind.

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PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL

The performance of everyone in an organisation constantly being appraised by the person himself as well as by his superiors, peers, subordinates. Because different people do different tasks it is possible to assess the performance of each. The concept of Performance Appraisal has changed a lot through the time. Earlier, it was a means of assessing the subordinates performance by the superior. Nowaday the appraisal system has changed with one person being evaluated by his superiors, subordinates and peer gaps.

According to Rollins (1999) Performance Appraisal process is a formal process in an organization whereby each employee is evaluated to determine how he or she is performing.

Barrett thinks that Performance Appraisal mainly with the three purposes.

- a) Administrative Decisions, ie., promotions, transfers and allocation of financial rewards.
- b) Employee Development, ie., identification of training and development needs and performance feedback
- c) Personnel Research ie., generation of manpower.

Most of the evaluation that takes place in an organization is informal, but some of it become part of the formal performance evaluation system that are present in many organisations. Ideally, the formal evaluation systems utilize valid data includes to determine how well an individual is performing his job. The following pages tells us more about the various techniques of Performance Appraisal, what it measures, who does this formal appraisal, its application etc.

Decenzo and Robbins (1998) mentions that three different approaches exist for

doing appraisals. Employees can be appraised against (1) absolute standards (2) relative standards and (3) objectives.

Absolute Standards

One group of appraisal methods use absolute standard. This means that employees are compared to a standard, and their evaluation is independent of any other employee in a work group. Included in this group are the following methods: the essay appraisal, the critical incident appraisal, the checklist, the adjective rating scale, forced choice and behaviourally anchored rating scales.

Relative Standards

In the second general category of appraisal methods, individuals are compared against other individuals. These methods are relative standards rather than absolute measuring device. The most popular of the relative methods are group order ranking, individual ranking, and paired comparison.

Objectives

The third approach to appraisal makes use of objectives. Employees are evaluated on how well they accomplished a specific set of objectives that have been determined to be critical in the successful completion of their job. This approach is frequently referred to as Management By Objectives (MBO). Management by objectives is a process that converts organizational objectives into individual objectives. It consists of four steps:

- 1) Good setting
- 2) Action Planning
- 3) Self Control and
- 4) Periodic reviews

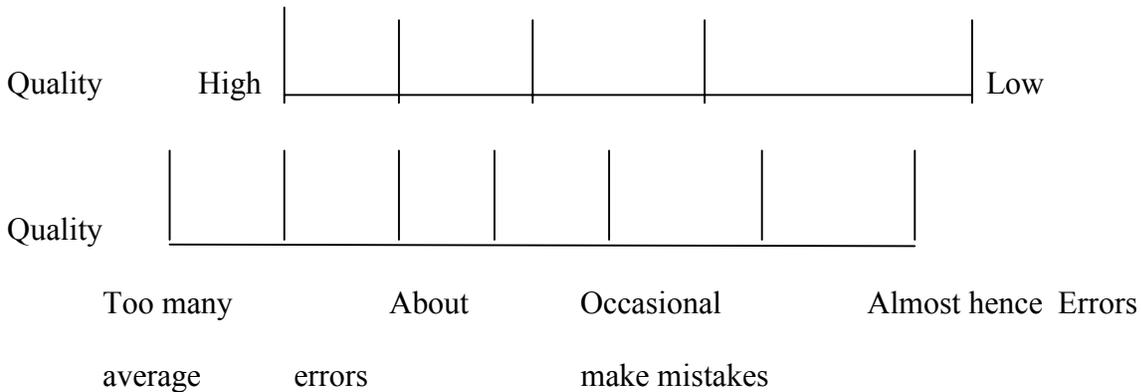
We will look at MBO in more detail later.

Now let us take a more detailed look at some of the important Appraisal

Techniques.

- 1) **Graphic Rating Scale**

Graphic Rating Scale consist of list of general personal characteristics and personality traits, such as quantity of work, quality of work, initiative, co-operativeness and judgement. The rates judges the employee on each dimension, on a scale who rating vary, for example, from low to high or from poor to excellent. The scales are referred to as graphic because they visually graph performance from one extreme to another. Some examples of Graphic Rating Scales are given below:



Whether a graphic rating scale produces accurate ratings of subordinates performance depends very much on what specific characteristics or traits are included in the scale. In order for a rating process to produce an accurate appraisal of a person's job performance, the ratings must reflect the most important requirements and demands of the person's job.

One of the weaknesses of graphic rating scale produces accurate rating of a subordinates performance depends very much on what specific characteristics or traits are included in the scale. In order for a rating process to produce an accurate appraisal of a person's job performance, the ratings must reflect the most important requirements and demands of the person's job.

One of the weaknesses of graphic rating scale lies in the fact that they are not directly tied to the behaviour of the person being rated. GRS require the rates to draw inference and to make personal judgement regarding the performance and personal characteristics of the person being rated. GRS do not contain rating or evaluations of the frequency of actual job behaviour that are related to successful performance. Thus, a number of negative consequences arise when graphic rating scales are used to appraise

performance like, lack of guidance on changes to be made, difficulty in designing training and development programmes, difficulty in rewards to effective behaviour etc. The common error of rating like halo effect, leniency error, error of Central Tendency etc can also occur.

Behaviourally Anchored Rating Scales (BARS)

BARS differ from GRS in two key respects. First, BARS require superiors to evaluate subordinates on a set of dimensions of work behaviour that have been carefully correlated to the specific job being performed by the person being evaluated. Whereas graphic rating scales evaluate individuals as the basis of their possession of general personality characteristics, BARS evaluate employees in terms of the extent to which they exhibit effective behaviour relevant to the specific demands of their jobs. Second, each response alternative along the dimension of a BARS is labeled or 'anchored' with examples of specific job behaviour corresponding to good performance, average performance, poor performance and so on. These behavioural examples help raters tie their ratings directly to the job behaviour of the person being rated. This is in contrast to graphic rating scales, which simply use adjectives such as "good" and "poor" for describing employee characteristics and performance.

BARS assist the person doing the evaluation by providing precise examples of the type of expected job behaviour associated with each of the ratings along the scale.

Advantages are that rating error are reduced, more reliable, valid, meaningful, more easily accepted and committed to by employees and superiors, degree of defensiveness and conflict reduced, accurate and concrete feedback can be provided. Disadvantages are time, effort and expense etc.

Behavioural Observation Scales (BOS)

BOS were developed in an attempt to capitalize on some of the strength of the BARS approach to performance appraisal while avoiding some of its weaknesses. In the BARS approach, specific examples of work behaviour that might be expected of the job incumbent are used to "anchor" the various rating points along each dimension of job performance. For each dimension of job performance evaluated by a BOS, on the

other hand, a number of specific examples of work behaviour are listed, and the appraiser rates the extent to which he or she has actually observed the employee engaging in that behaviour on a five-point scale varying from "almost never" to "almost always".

BOS share with BARS the advantages of (1) being relatively reliable and valid (2) generating high levels of employee acceptance (3) providing useful feedback.

BOS also time consuming and expensive to develop and difficult to apply to jobs whose primary components may not be physically observable.

Management by Objectives (MBO)

MBO refers to a process in which managers set specific and measurable goals with each individual employee on a regular basis. The employee is then responsible for achieving his or her goals within a certain time.

MBO is an example of a results-based method of performance appraisal. Under MBO, individuals are evaluated as the basis of what they accomplish, not how they get the job done. There are two important steps involved in the application of MBO to performance appraisal; the first step is goal setting and the second step is performance review.

In the goal setting phase of MBO each individual meets with his or her immediate supervisor to discuss plans for the coming performance period-set specific, realistic and challenging performance goals, agree on specific measurement criteria and deadlines.

In the second performance review phase of MBO the manager and subordinate meet to discuss the subordinate's progress in attaining his or her goals.

MBO seems as the basis for performance appraisal, also set specific challenging goals. Employees know what is expected and then, facilitates planning and co-ordination.

Disadvantages is that the emphasis is on results, so a lack of attention on how results are accomplished, difficult to compare this level of performance of different individuals difficult to implement effectively.

What should Performance Appraisal measure and who should do it

The appraisal process begins with the establishment of Performance standards in accordance with the organizations's strategic goals. Once performance standards are established, it is necessary to communicate these expectations. The third step in the appraisal process is the measurement of performance. To determine what actual performance is, it is necessary to acquire information about it. We should be concerned with how we measure and what we measure.

Four common sources of information are frequently used by managers regarding how to measure actual performance. Personal observation, statistical reports, oral reports and written reports. What we measure is probably more critical to the evaluation process than how we measure, since the selection of the wrong criteria can result in serious, dysfunctional consequence. And what we measure determines to a great extent, what people in the organization will attempt to excel at. The criteria we measure must represent performance as it was mutually set in the first two steps of the appraisal process.

The fourth step in the appraisal process is the comparison of actual performance with standards. Fifth is the discussion of the appraisal with the employee. The impression that employees receive about their assessment has a strong input on their self-esteem and very importantly, on their subsequent performance. The final step is the identification of corrective action.

Appropriate criteria or measures of effective performance must be identified for each job to which a performance appraisal system to be applied. Although it is impossible to identify any universal measures of performance that are applicable to all jobs, it is possible to specify a number/characteristics that a criterion of job performance should possess if it is to be useful for performance appraisal.

A good criterion must have

- reliability of measurement which includes stability and consistency. Stability is that measures taken by different methods by different people should be approximately equal.
- Should have differentiating activity, to differentiate among individuals according to performance
- Should be subject to influence by the action of the job incumbent
- Should be acceptable to the individual

A final important issue regarding criteria of effectiveness had to do with whether the criteria for performance appraisal depend on

- activities engaged by the job incumbent or
 - results achieved by the job incumbent
- eg., for activities would be number of sales calls made
eg., for results would be measure of total sales volume

Who should do the appraisal

Evaluation can be done by anybody-not necessarily the immediate boss. But the most common one is appraisal by the immediate superior who is in the best position to observe the employee's performance over the evaluation period. The position of the immediate superior, his knowledge about the task, the organizational goals etc, makes this the most common appraisal method.

Appraisal can also be done by a group panel of superiors, all from the same hierarchical level or from the next higher level. All of the superiors involved should be in a position to observe the subordinate's performance during the evaluation period. This type of appraisal will generate more reliable result due to pooling of a variety of opinions.

In some cases supervisors find it difficult to evaluate their employee's performance because they are not observing them every moment of the work day. So one of the better means is through peer evaluations. Peer evaluations are conducted by the employees' co-workers people explicitly familiar with the behaviour involved in their jobs. The main advantage of this type of evaluations that:

- 1) there is a tendency for co-workers to offer more constructive insight to each other, so that as a unit each will improve.
- 2) their recommendations tend to be more specific regarding job behaviours.

Subordinate appraisal is appraisal done by some one in a subordinate position, can also be called upward appraisal or the reverse review. Upward appraisal permit employees to offer frank and constructive feed back to their organisers on such areas as leadership and communication skills.

Self evaluations similarly tend to be used more for purposes of development then for evaluation itself. Self evaluation appears to be in slightly under use than some of the other alternative approaches to evaluation. Self evaluations can be particularly helpful in stimulating an individual to think realistically about his or her areas of personal strength and weakness.

As the number of rates increases, the probability of attaining more accurate information increases.

Emerging Trends in Performance Appraisal

Performance appraisals are now also used for the development of the employees and not just for fixing pay. More radical techniques like peer evaluation, subordinate evaluation etc, is used more.

360 Degree Appraisals

An appraisal device that seeks performance feed back from such sources as oneself, bosses, peers, team members, customers and suppliers has become very popular in contemporary organizations. It is called the 360 degree appraisal. In today's dynamic organizations, supervisors have greater work responsibility and more employees reporting directly to them. Accordingly, in some instances, it is almost impossible for supervisors to have extensive job knowledge of each of their employees.

The 360 degree feed back process also has some positive benefits for development concerns. Many managers simply do not know how these employees truly view them and the work they have done. 360 degree performance appraisals are reporting positive results which stem from having more accurate feedback, empowering employees, reducing the subjective factors in the evaluation process, and developing leadership in an organization.

Application of Performance Appraisal

Performance Appraisal can have many uses.

- 1) Planning future human resource needs and capital
- 2) Basis for Rewards and Punishments
- 3) Personal Growth
 - give feedback
 - to motivate
 - for employees to understand strengths and weaknesses in previous performance

1. Planning future human resource needs and politics

Effective performance appraisals generate information that can be of significant value to the organisation in planning its future human resource needs and policies. The members of an organization can be thought of as the human capital of the organization. PA can help recruiting, staffing and development policies in an informed, systematic manner.

2. Basis for Rewards and Punishments

Most organisations use the performance appraisal process to measure and evaluate the individual's performance and to distribute rewards on the basis of these evaluations. Performance Appraisal can produce valid performance data, which can be used as the basis for rewarding employees, for by-large planning and for training and development and activities.

3. Personal Growth

Performance Appraisal information's can serve to stimulate the personal development or organization members. Effective appraisals generate information regarding the personal strengths and weaknesses of individual employees. Future appraisals can provide a means of monitoring and assessing the improvements arising from attempts to deal with performance problems.

Data from performance evaluation system can help to pinpoint who might be good candidates for development and just what kind of development experiences might be best for them. Thus one reason for organizations appraise performance is that they need the information it yields in order to plan, co-ordinate and administer training and development programmes.

Individuals want and seek out feedback about their performance since it helps them learn more about themselves. An employee could have a deficiency or weakness in certain areas. Performance Appraisal can also motivate ineffective employees to improve their job performance. It can increase the level of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation that is present in the employees who are appraised. It cannot provide employees with constructive feedback that will help them correct and at their own behaviour.

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PERSONAL TIME MANAGEMENT FOR BUSY MANAGERS

by Gerard M Blair

Time passes, quickly. This article looks at the basics of Personal Time Management and describes how the Manager can assume control of this basic resource.

The "Eff" words

The three "Eff" words are (concise OED)

- Effective-having a definite or desired effect
- Efficient-productive with minimum waste or effort
- Effortless-seemingly without effort; natural, easy

Personal Time Management is about winning the "Eff" words: making them apply to you and your daily routines.

What is Personal Time Management?

Personal Time Management is about controlling the use of your most valuable (and undervalued) resource. Consider these two questions: What would happen if you spend company money with as few safeguards as you spend company time, when was the last time you scheduled a review of your time allocation?

The absence of Personal Time Management is characterized by last minute rushes to meet dead-lines, meetings which are either double booked or achieve nothing, days which seem somehow to slip unproductively by, crises which loom unexpected from nowhere. This sort of environment leads to inordinate stress and degradation of performance it must be stopped.

Poor time management is often symptom of over confidence, techniques which used to work with small projects and workloads are simply reused with large ones. But inefficiencies which were insignificant in the small role are ludicrous in the large. You can not drive a motor bike like a bicycle, nor can you manage a supermarket-chain like a market stall. The demands, the problems and the payoffs for increased efficiency are all larger as your responsibility grows; you must learn to apply proper techniques or be bettered by those who do. Possibly, the reason Time Management is poorly practised is that it so seldom forms a measured part of appraisal and performance review; what many fail to foresee, however, is how intimately it is connected to aspects which do.

Personal Time Management has many facets. Most managers recognize a few, but few recognize them all. There is the simple concept of keeping a well ordered diary and the related idea of planned activity. But beyond these, it is a tool for the systematic ordering of your influence on events, it underpins many other managerial skills such as Effective Delegation and Project Planning.

Personal Time Management is a set of tools which allow you to; eliminate wastage be prepared for meetings refuse excessive workloads monitor project progress allocate resource (time) appropriate to a task's importance ensure that long term projects are not neglected plan each day efficiently plan each week effectively and to do so simply with a little self-discipline.

Since Personal Time Management is a management process just like any other, it must be planned, monitored and regularly reviewed. In the following sections, we will examine the basic methods and functions of Personal Time Management. Since true understanding depends upon experience, you will be asked to take part by looking at aspects of your own work. If you do not have time to this right now-ask yourself: why not?

Current Practice

What this article is advocating is the adoption of certain practices which will give you greater control over the use and allocation of your primary resource: time. Before we start on the future, it is worth considering the present. This involves the simplistic task of keeping a note of how you spend your time for a suitably long period of time (say a week). I say simplistic since all you have to do is create a simple table, photocopy half-a-dozen copies and carry it around with you filling in a row every time you change activity. After one week, allocate time (start as you mean to go on) to reviewing this log.

Waste Disposal

We are not looking here to create new categories of work to enhance efficiency (that comes later) but simply to eliminate wastage in your current practice. The average IEE Chartered Engineer earns about 27,000 pounds per annum: about 12.50 pounds per hour, say 1 pound every 5 minutes; for how many 5 minute sections of your activity would you have paid a pound? The first step is a critical appraisal of how you spend your time and to question some of your habits. In your time log, identify periods of time which might have been better used.

There are various sources of waste. The most common are social: telephone calls, friends dropping by, conversations around the coffee machine. It would be foolish to eliminate all non-work related activity (we all need a break) but if it's a choice between chatting to Harry in the afternoon and meeting the next pay-related deadline. Your time log will show you if this is a problem and you might like to do something about it before your boss does.

In your time log, look at each work activity and decide objectively how much time each was worth to you, and compare that with the time you actually spend on it. An afternoon spend polishing an internal memo into a Pulitzer prize winning piece of provocative prose is waste; an hour spent debating the leaving present of a colleague is waste; a minute spent sorting out the paper-clips is waste (unless relaxation). This type of activity will be reduced naturally by managing your own time since you will not allocate time to the trivial.

Specifically, if you have a task to do, decide before hand how long it should take and work to that deadline-then move on to the next task.

Another common source of waste stems from delaying work which is unpleasant by finding distractions which are less important or unproductive. Check your log to see if any tasks are being delayed simply because they are dull or difficult.

Time is often wasted in changing between activities. For this reason it is useful to group similar tasks together thus avoiding the start-up delay of each. The time log will show you where these savings can be made. You may want then to initiate a routine which deals with these on a fixed but regular basis.

Doing Subordinate's Work

Having considered what is complete waste, we now turn to what is merely inappropriate. Often it is simpler to do the job yourself. Using the stamp machine to frank your own letters ensures they leave by the next post; writing the missing summary in the latest progress report from your junior is more pleasant than sending it back (and it lets you choose the emphasis) Rubbish!

Large gains can be made by assigning secretarial duties to secretaries: they regularly catch the next post, they type a lot faster than you. Your subordinate should be told about the missing section and told how (and why) to slant it. If you have a task which could be done by a subordinate, use the next occasion to start training him/her to do it instead of doing it yourself-you will need to spend some time monitoring the task thereafter, but far less than in doing it yourself.

Doing the work of Others

A major impact upon your work can be the tendency to help others with their's. Now, in the spirit of an open and harmonious work environment it is obviously desirable that you should be willing to help out-but check your work log and decide how much time you spend on your own work and how much you spend on others'. For instance, if you spend a morning checking the grammar and spelling in the training material related to you last project, then that is waste. Publications should do the proof-reading, that is their job, they are better at it than you; you should deal at the technical level.

The remaining problem is your manager. Consider what periods in your work log were used to perform tasks that your manager either repeated or simply negated by ignoring it or redefining the task, too late. Making your manager efficient is a very difficult task, but where it impinges upon your work and performance you must take the bull by the horns (or whatever) and confront the issue.

Managing your manager may seem a long way from Time Management but no one impacts upon your use of time more than your immediate superior. If a task is ill defined- seek clarification (is that a one page summary or a ten page report?). If seemingly random alterations are asked in your deliverables, ask for the reasons and next time clarify these and similar points at the beginning. If the manager is difficult, try writing a small specification for each task before beginning it and have it agreed. While you can not tactfully hold your manager to this contract if he/she has a change of mind, it will at least cause him/her to consider the issues early on, before you waste your time on false assumptions.

External Appointments

The next stage of Personal Time Management is to start taking control of your time. The first problem is appointments. Start with a simple appointments diary. In this book you will have (or at least should have) a complete list of all your known appointments for the foreseeable future. If you have omitted your regular ones (since you remember them anyway) add them now.

Your appointments constitute your interaction with other people; they are the agreed interface between your activities and those of others; they are determined by external obligation. They often fill the diary. Now, be ruthless and eliminate the unnecessary. There may be committees where you can not productively contribute or where a subordinate might be (better) able to participate. There may be long lunches which could be better run as short conference calls. There may be interviews which last three times as long as necessary because they are scheduled for a whole hour. Eliminate the wastage starting today.

The next stage is to add to your diary lists of other, personal activity which will enhance your use of the available time. Consider, what is the most important type of activity to add to your diary? No:- stop reading for a moment and really, consider.

The single most important type of activity is those which will save you time: allocate time to save time, a stitch in time saves days. And most importantly of all, always allocate time to time management: at least five minutes each and every day.

For each appointment left in the diary, consider what actions you might take to ensure that no time is wasted: plan to avoid work by being prepared. Thus, if you are going to a meeting where you will be asked to comment on some report, allocate time to read it so avoiding delays in the meeting and increasing your chances of making the right decision the first time. Consider what actions need to be done before AND what

actions must be done to follow-up. Even if the latter is unclear before the event, you must still allocate time to review the outcome and to plan the resulting action. Simply mark in your diary the block of time necessary to do this and, when the time comes, do it.

Scheduling Projects

The most daunting external appointments are deadlines: often, the handover of deliverables. Do you leave the work too late? Is there commonly a final panic towards the end? Are the last few hectic hours often marred by errors? If so, use Personal Time Management.

The basic idea is that your management of personal deadlines should be achieved with exactly the same techniques you would use in a large project:

- Check the specification-are you sure that you agree on what is to be delivered
- Break the task down into small sections so that you can estimate the time needed for each, and monitor progress
- Schedule reviews of your progress (e.g.after each sub-task) so that you can respond quickly to difficulties

Like most management ideas, this is common sense. Some people, however, refute it because in practice they find that it merely shows the lack of time for a project which must be done anyway. This is simply daft~ If simple project planning and time management show that the task can not be done, then it will not be done-but by knowing at the start, you have a chance to do something about it.

An impossible deadline affects not only your success but also that of others. Suppose a product is scheduled for release too soon because you agree to deliver too early. Marketing and Sales will prepare customers to expect the product showing why they really need it-but it will not arrive. The customers will be dissatisfied or even lost, the competition will have advanced warning, and all because you agreed to do the impossible.

You can avoid this type of problem. By practising time management, you will always have a clear understanding of how you spend your time and what time is unallocated. If a new task is thrust upon you, you can estimate whether it is practical. The project planning tells you how much time is needed and the time management tells you how much time is available.

There are four ways to deal with impossible deadlines:

- Get the deadline extended
- Scream for more resources
- Get the deliverable redefined to something practical
 - State the position clearly so that your boss (and his/her boss) have fair warning

If this simple approach seems unrealistic, consider the alternative. If you have an imposed, but unobtainable, deadline and you accept it; then the outcome is your assured failure. Of course, there is a fifth option: move to a company with realistic schedules.

One defense tactic is to present your superior with a current list of your obligations indicating what impact the new task will have on these, and ask him/her to assign the priorities. "I can't do them all, which should I slip?" Another tactic is to keep a data base of your time estimates and the actual time taken by each task. This will quickly develop into source of valuable data and increase the accuracy of your planning predictions.

There is no reason why you should respond only to externally imposed deadlines. The slightly shoddy product which you hand-over after the last minute rush (and normally have returned for correction the following week) could easily have been polished if only an extra day had been available - so move your personal deadline forward and allow yourself the luxury of leisured review before the product is shipped.

Taking this a step further, the same sort of review might be applied to the product at each stage of its development so that errors and rework time are reduced. Thus by allocating time to quality review, you save time in rework; and this is all part of project planning supported and monitored by your time management.

Finally, for each activity you should estimate how much time it is worth and allocate only that amount. This critical appraisal may even suggest a different approach or method so that the time matches the task's importance. Beware of perfection, it takes too long-allocate time for "fitness for purpose", then stop.

Monitoring Staff

Your Personal Time Management also effects other people, particularly your subordinates. Planning projects means not only allocating your time but also the distribution of tasks; and this should be done in the same planned, monitored and reviewed manner as your own scheduling.

Any delegated task should be specified with an (agreed) end date. As a Manager, you are responsible for ensuring that the tasks allocated to your subordinates are completed successfully. Thus you should ensure that each task is concluded with a deliverable (for instance, a memo to confirm completion)-you make an entry in your diary to check that this has arrived. Thus, if you agree the task for Tuesday, Wednesday should have an entry in your diary to check the deliverable. This simple device allows you to monitor progress and to initiate action as necessary.

Long term Objectives

There are many long term objectives which the good manager must achieve, particularly with regard to the development, support and motivation of his/her work-team. Long term objectives have the problem of being important but not urgent; they do not have deadlines, they are distant and remote. For this reason, it is all too easy to ignore them in favour of the urgent and immediate. Clearly a balance must be struck.

The beauty of Time Management is that the balance can be decided objectively (without influence from immediate deadlines) and self-imposed through the use of the diary. Simply, a manager might decide that one hour a week should be devoted to personnel issues and would then allocate a regular block of time to that activity. Of course if the factory is on fire, or World War III is declared, the manager may have to re-allocate this time in a particular week-but barring such crises, this time should then become sacrosanct and always applied to the same, designated purpose.

Similarly, time may be allocated to staff development and training. So if one afternoon a month is deemed to be a suitable allocation, then simply designate the second Thursday (say) of each month and delegate the choice of speakers. The actual time spend in managing this sort of long term objective is small, but without that deliberate planning it will not be achieved.

Once you have implemented Personal Time Management, it is worth using some of that control to augment your own career. Some quiet weekend, you should sketch out your own long term objectives and plan a route to them. As you would any long term objective allocate time to the necessary sub-tasks and monitor your progress. If you do not plan where you want to go, you are unlikely to get there.

Concluding Remarks

Personal Time Management is a systematic application of common sense strategies. It requires little effort, yet it promotes efficient work practices by highlighting wastage and it leads to effective use of time by focusing it on your chosen activities. Personal Time Management does not solve your problems; it reveals them, and provides a structure to implement and monitor solutions. It enables you to take control of your own time- how you use it is then up to you.

MOTIVATION

People differ by nature, not only in their ability to perform a specific task but also in their will to do so. People with less ability but stronger will are able to perform better than people with superior ability and lack of will. Hard work is crucial to success and achievement. This belief was underscored

by Albert Einstein when he said that "genius is 10% inspiration and 90% perspiration." This "will" to do is known as motivation.

The force of motivation is a dynamic force setting a person into motion or action. The word motivation is derived from motive which is defined as an active form of a desire, craving or need which must be satisfied. All motives are directed towards goals and the needs and desires affect or change your behaviour which becomes goal oriented. For example, if you ordinarily do not want to work overtime, it is quite likely that at a particular time, you may need more money (desire) so you may change your behaviour, work overtime (goal oriented behaviour) and satisfy your needs.

Viteles1 defines motivation as follows:

"Motivation represents an unsatisfied need which creates a state of tension or disequilibrium, causing the individual to move in a goal directed pattern towards restoring a state of equilibrium, by satisfying the need."

Motivated people are in constant state of tension. This tension is relieved by drives towards an activity and outcome that is meant to reduce or relieve such tension. The greater the tension, the more activity will be needed to bring about relief and hence higher the motivation.

2. Sources of motivation

Experts in the organizational behaviour field have a divided opinion as to Whether workers are motivated by factors in the external environment such as rewards or fear or whether motivation is self generated without the application of external factors. It is quite well understood that under the same set of external factors all workers are not equally motivated. Some of these motivational sources are:

- a) **Positive Motivation:** Positive motivation involves proper recognition of employee efforts and appreciation of employee contribution towards the organizational goal achievement. Such motivations improve the standards of performance, lead to good team spirit and pride, a sense of co-operation and a feeling of belonging and happiness. Some of the positive motivators are:
 - Praise and credit for work done.
 - A sincere interest in the welfare of subordinates.
 - Delegation of authority and responsibility to subordinates.
 - Participation of subordinates in the decision making process.

- b) **Negative or Fear Motivation:** This motivation is based upon the use of force, power, fear and threats. The fear of punishment or unfavourable consequences affects the behavioural changes. Some examples of negative motivation include the fear of failing in the examination, and fear of being fired or demoted. Fear of failure in the examination induces motivation in many students to work harder and pass the course. Similarly, fear of being fired keeps the workers in line with the organizational rules and regulations as well as do a satisfactory job.

While the fear of punishment and actual punishment has resulted in controlling individual misbehaviour and has contributed towards positive performance in many situations and is necessary and useful in many other situations such as disciplining a child or handling a riot, it is not recommended or considered as a viable alternative in the current business and industrial environment. This is based upon the trend and changes in the workforce including higher level of employee education and extensive employee unionization.

However, punishment or fear of it is still the most common technique of behaviour modification or control in today's life. When a child misbehaves, he is still spanked. If a worker does not behave according to the way the organization wants him to behave, he is fired. If a person does not behave as the society and law wants him to behave, he is punished by arrest and jail. All religions threaten punishment in the life hereafter if a person does not behave according to God's and religious rules.

Does the punishment system work? Does it change behaviour? Does the prison system reform the criminal? Does spanking make a "good" child? This area has received considerable attention and has become highly controversial. It has been proposed that while punishment has immediate and short-term effect in affecting and changing behaviour, the long term effects are highly questionable. A driver who gets fined for running a red light where he is supposed to stop may vow never to do it again at that time, but as the time passes, he will do it again.

In the context of organizational behaviour, no worker likes to be criticized, or threatened with employment termination. Specifically, if the worker is punished for an occasional undesired behaviour, it will have a negative effect on his morale, make him bitter with a hostile state of mind, affecting negatively his social interaction as well as his sense of loyalty, perhaps resulting in poor performance and productivity and quality.

- c) **Extrinsic Motivation:** This type of motivation is induced by external factors which are primarily financial in nature. It is based upon the assumption that the behaviour which results in positive rewards tends to be repeated. However, the reward for the desired behaviour should be sufficiently powerful and durable so that it improves the probability of occurrence of desirable behaviour. Money is probably the most important incentive for positive behaviour since money can be used for a number of other resources.

These financial incentives and rewards have been a subject of debate whether they really motivate the employees or simply move them to work and perform. These include higher pay, fringe benefits such as retirement plans, stock options, profit sharing scheme, paid vacation, health and medical insurance, sympathetic supervision and people oriented company policies.

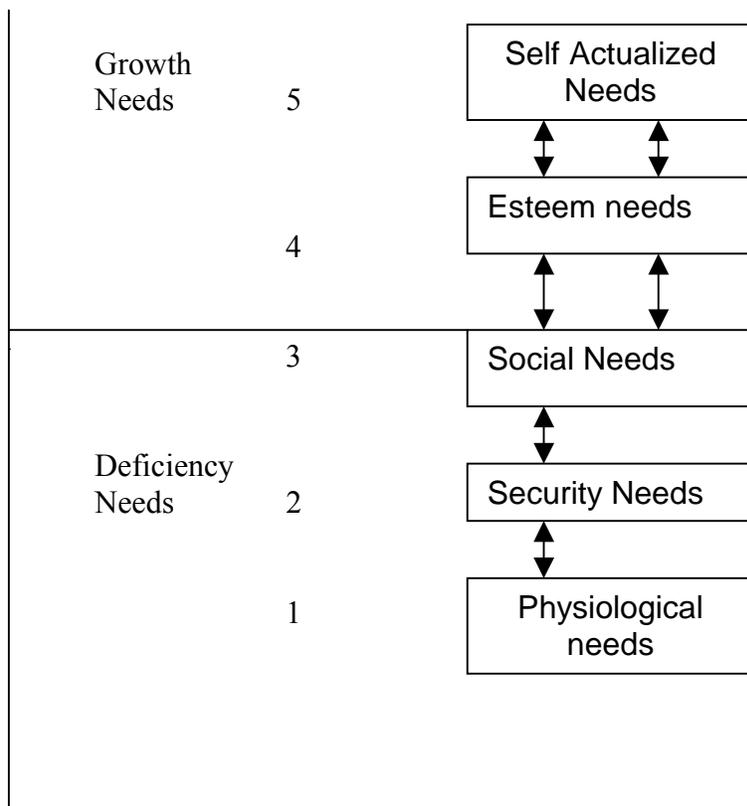
- c) **Intrinsic Motivation:** Intrinsic Motivation stems from feelings of achievement and accomplishment and is concerned with the state of self-actualization in which the satisfaction of accomplishing something worthwhile motivates the employee further so that this motivation is self-generated and is independent of financial rewards. For example, there are many retired doctors who work free in the hospital because it gives them a sense of accomplishment and satisfaction. Mother Teresa's work in the slums of Calcutta, India, not only motivates the people who work with her but also many others who simply hear about her work and then want to join the team. Similarly, Peace Corps workers work in uncomfortable environments at a minimal pay. Some of the intrinsic motivators are praise, recognition, responsibility, esteem, power, status, challenges and decision making responsibility.

3. Theories of Motivation

- 1. **Maslow's Model:** Maslow's "needs hierarchy theory" is probably the most widely used theory of motivation in organization. Abraham Maslow⁹ suggested that people have a complex set of exceptionally strong needs and the behaviour of individuals at a particular moment is usually determined by their strongest need. He developed his model of human motivation in 1943, based upon his own clinical experience and formulated his theory of hierarchical needs by asking the same

question, "What is it that makes people behave the way they do?" and made a list of answers from which he developed a pattern. His theory is based upon two assumptions. First, that human beings have many needs that are different in nature ranging from the biological needs at the lower level which is the level of survival, to psychological needs at the upper extreme which is the level of growth. Second that these needs occur in an order of hierarchy so that lower level needs must be satisfied before higher level needs arise or become motivators. Mahatma Gandhi, the Indian leader, once remarked that "even God cannot talk to a hungry man except in terms of food."¹⁰ Similarly, there is a quotation from the Holy Guru Granth sahib, the holy scripture of Sikhs in India when a holy man says to god. "Take your rosary beads away. I cannot worship and meditate on you when I am hungry." This means that if the people's basic needs which are biological in nature are unsatisfied, then their total attention will be focused upon these needs and it will not be possible to communicate with them about other matters.

This model of hierarchical needs explains human behaviour in a more dynamic and realistic manner and is primarily based upon people's inner states as a basis for motivation and the environmental conditions do not play any significant role. Maslow postulates five basic needs arranged in successive levels. These needs continue to change resulting in change in goals and activities. These five needs are arranged in the form of a pyramid as shown. The first three level needs at the bottom of the pyramid are known as "deficiency" needs, because they must be satisfied in order to ensure the individual's very existence and security and make him fundamentally comfortable. The top two sets of needs are termed "growth" needs because they are concerned with personal growth, development and realization of one's potential.



These needs are explained in detail as follows:

1. Physiological needs

The physiological needs form the foundation of the hierarchy and tend to have the highest strength in terms of motivation. These are primarily the needs arising out of physiological or biological

tension and they are there to sustain life itself and include the basic needs for food, water, shelter and sex. Sexual need and desire is not to be confused with love which is at the third level. Once these basic needs are satisfied to the degree needed for the sufficient and comfortable operation of the body, then the other levels of needs become important and start acting as motivators.

2. Security and Safety needs

Once the physiological needs are gratified, the safety and security needs become predominant. These are the needs for self-preservation as against physiological needs which are for survival. These needs include those of security, stability, freedom from anxiety and a structured and ordered environment. These safety and security needs are really provisions against deprivation of satisfaction of physiological needs in the future. It also involves a sense of protection against threats and danger of losing the job in the future. In a civilized society such as ours, a person is usually protected from threats of violence or extremes in climate or fear of material safety, so that the safety and security needs dwell upon economic and job security, life and medical insurance and other protective measures to safeguard the satisfaction of physiological needs in the future which may be unpredictable.

3. Love and social needs

After the needs of the body and security are satisfied, then a sense of belonging and acceptance becomes prominent in motivating behaviour. These needs include the needs for love, friendship, affection, and social interaction. We look for an environment where we are understood, respected and wanted. That is one reason for "polarization" where people of similar background and beliefs tend to group together. "Love thy neighbor" has perhaps a profound meaning.

4. Esteem needs

This need for esteem is to attain recognition from others which would induce a feeling of self-worth and self-confidence in the individual. It is an urge for achievement, prestige, status and power. Self-respect is the internal recognition. The respect from others is the external recognition and an appreciation of one's individuality as well as his contribution. This would result in self-confidence, independence, status, reputation and prestige. People then would begin to feel that they are useful and have some positive effect on their surrounding environment.

5. Self-actualization needs

This last need is the need to develop fully and to realize one's capacities and potentialities to the fullest extent possible, whatever these capacities and potentialities may be. This is the highest level of need in Maslow's hierarchy and is activated as a motivator when all other needs have been reasonably fulfilled. At this level, the person seeks challenging work assignments that allow for creativity and opportunities for personal growth and advancement.

This need is for soul searching and is inner-oriented. A self-actualized person is creative, independent, content, spontaneous and has a good perception of reality, and he is constantly striving to realize his full potential. Thus, "what a man 'can' be, 'must' be."

Maslow's model is a general model in which all needs interact with each other to some degree. Needs are not necessarily linear, nor is the order of needs so rigid. The relative dominance of many needs is variable and is continuously shifting. For example, a self-actualized person may shift his priority to social needs and love needs instead of prestige and status, if suddenly there occurs a vacuum due to loss of a loved one. Similarly, a person may not go to the higher need, even when his lower

needs are satisfied. It is also likely that a well-prepared elite person may decide to enter a commune where there is overwhelming emphasis on love and affection rather than climb the corporate ladder.

Maslow's theory made management aware that people are motivated by a wide variety of needs and that management must provide an opportunity for the employees to satisfy these needs through creating a physical and conceptual work environment, so that people will be motivated to do their best to achieve organizational goals.

The first level needs in the hierarchy, physiological needs can be satisfied through such organizational efforts and incentives as adequate wages and salary, acceptable working conditions in order to improve comfort and avoid fatigue, more leisure time and acceptable work environment in terms of lighting, ventilation, rest rooms, working space, heat and noise level. Some bonuses and other fringe benefits will be highly motivational.

The second level needs of safety and security can be satisfied through management's initiative to provide life insurance, medical insurance, job security, cost of living increments, pension plans, freedom to unionize, and employee protection against automation. The economic security to some degree is provided by law in the form of minimum wages, unemployment benefits, and welfare benefits. Similarly, unions protect employees against discrimination and indiscriminate firing.

Since first level physiological needs and second level security needs are primarily met by business, industrial, societal and legal environment, management must take steps to satisfy higher level needs and must establish as to which of these needs are the stronger sources of motivation.

When the third level needs of love and affiliation become motivators, then people find an opportunity in their work environment for establishing friendly interpersonal relationships. The management can satisfy these needs by:

- Providing opportunities for employees to interact socially with each other through coffee breaks, lunch facilities and recreational activities such as organized sports programs, company picnics and other social get togethers.
- Creating team spirit by keeping work groups informal wherever possible with friendly and supportive supervision.
- Conducting periodic meetings with all subordinates to discuss matters pertaining to personal achievements and contributions as well as organizational developments.

The fourth level needs of self esteem involve a feeling of satisfaction and achievement and recognition for such achievement. The management can take the following steps to satisfy these needs:

- Design more challenging tasks and provide positive feedback on performance of employees.
- Give recognition and encouragement for performance and contribution and delegate additional authority to subordinates.
- Involve subordinates in goal setting and decision making processes.
- Provide adequate training and executive development programs to help employees successfully accomplish their goals and increase their competency on their jobs.
- Provide some of the symbols for status and respect, such as executive level job title, private secretary, privileged parking, promotion, company car, stock options and write-ups about achievements in the company newspapers.

The fifth and top-level needs of self-actualization long for growth and creativity and the management can take the following steps to satisfy these needs:

- The employees should be given an opportunity to shape their own jobs.
- Give employees the freedom of expression. This will open the channels of communication further and give the employees an opportunity to get involved.
- Encourage and develop creativity among employees. Creativity is tied in with freedom of expression and freedom of movement.

Maslow believed that from the point of organizational behaviour the management should strive to create an organizational climate which motivates employees at all levels of organizational hierarchy. Research has established that top managers generally are more able to satisfy their higher level needs than lower level managers who have more routine jobs. Blue collar workers who have very little freedom over job operations may not even experience the higher level need.¹¹

ERG Theory

The ERG need theory, developed by Clayton Alderfer, is a refinement of Maslow's needs hierarchy.¹² Instead of Maslow's five needs, ERG theory condenses these five needs into three needs. These three needs are those of Existence, Relatedness and Growth. The E, R and G are the initials for these needs.

- 1) Existence needs. These needs are roughly comparable to the physiological and safety needs of Maslow's model and are satisfied primarily by material incentives. They include all physiological needs of Maslow's model and such safety needs which are satisfied by financial and physical conditions rather than interpersonal relations. These include the needs for sustenance, shelter and physical and psychological safety from threats to people's existence and well-being.
- 2) Relatedness needs. Relatedness needs roughly correspond to social and esteem needs in Maslow's hierarchy. These needs are satisfied by personal relationships and social interaction with others. It involves open communication and honest exchange of thoughts and feelings with other organizational members.
- 3) Growth needs. These are the needs to develop and grow and reach the full potential that a person is capable of reaching. They are similar to Maslow's self-actualization needs. These needs are fulfilled by strong personal involvement in the organizational environment and look for new opportunities and challenges.

A rough similarity between ERG theory and Maslow's theory is as follows:

Maslow	ERG
Self-actualization	Growth
Self-esteem (upper level)	
Self-esteem (lower level)	Relatedness
Social	
Safety	Existence
Physiological	

ERG theory differs from Maslow's theory in proposing that people may be motivated by more than one kind of need at the same time. While Maslow proposes that in the hierarchy of needs, a person will satisfy the lower level needs before he moves up to the next level of needs and will stay at

that need until it is satisfied, ERG theory suggests that if a person is frustrated in satisfying his needs at a given level, he will move back to the lower level needs. For example, assume that a manager's existence needs are fully satisfied and he looks for more challenging tasks to satisfy his self-esteem needs. If his efforts are frustrated in meeting these challenges, he will move back to existence needs and may ask for more material benefits.

4. McClelland's Theory of Needs

Since the lower level needs in Maslow's model are generally satisfied by the business, societal and legal systems, they are no longer strong motivators. Studies conducted by Harvard psychologist David McClelland¹³ concluded that from the organizational behaviour point of view, the most prominent need is the need for achievement, power and affiliation. The primary motive is the "achievement motive" and is defined as a "desire to succeed in competitive situations based upon an established or perceived standard of excellence."

Individuals with a strong "need for achievement" (known as n Ach), ask for, accept and perform well in challenging tasks which require creativity, ingenuity and hard work. They are constantly preoccupied with a desire for improvement and look for situations in which successful outcomes are directly correlated with their efforts so that they can claim credit for success. They take moderate and calculated risks and prefer to get quick and precise feedback on their performance. They set more difficult but achievable goals for themselves because success with easily achievable goals hardly provides a sense of achievement. They desire greater pleasure and excitement from solving a complex problem than from financial incentives or simple praise.

The "need for power" (n Pow) is the desire to affect and control the behaviour of other people and to manipulate the surroundings. Power motivation when applied positively results in successful managers and leaders who prefer democratic style of leadership. Power motivation, applied negatively tends to create arrogant autocratic leadership. The individuals who are high in "n Pow" are described by Litwin and Stringer¹⁴ as follows:

"They usually attempt to influence others directly--by making suggestions, by giving their opinions and evaluations and by trying to talk others into things. They seek positions of leadership in group activities; whether they become leaders or are seen only as "dominating individuals" depends on other attributes such as ability and sociability. They are usually verbally fluent, often talkative, sometimes argumentative."

These individuals tend to be superior performers and show high degree of loyalty to the organization. They are more mature, with a strong sense of justice and equity and are willing to sacrifice their own self interests for the sake of organizational interests.

The "need for affiliation" (n Aff) is related to social needs and reflects a desire for friendly and warm relationships with others. Individuals tend to seek affiliation with others who have similar beliefs, backgrounds and outlook on life. This results in the formation of informal groups and informal organizations. It is evident in social circles also that people mix with people of their own kind. Individuals with high "n Aff" tend to get involved in jobs that require a high amount of interpersonal contacts and relations such as jobs in teaching and public relations. From organizational behaviour point of view, these individuals are highly motivated to perform better in situations where personal support and approval are tied to performance. They tend to avoid conflict and exhibit strong conformity to the wishes of their friends.

5. Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

Fredrick Herzberg and his associates developed the two-factor theory in the late 1950s and early 1960s. As part of a study of job satisfaction, Herzberg and his colleagues conducted in-depth interviews with over 200 engineers and accountants in the Pittsburgh area. The researchers felt that a person's relation to his work is a basic one and that his attitude towards work would determine his organization related behaviour. The respondents were required to describe in detail the type of environment in which they felt exceptionally good about their jobs and the type of environment in which they felt bad about their jobs. It seems natural to believe that people who are generally satisfied with their job will be more dedicated to their work and perform it well as compared to those people who are dissatisfied with their jobs. If the logic seems justified then it would be useful to isolate these factors and conditions that produce satisfaction with the job and those factors which produce dissatisfaction.

The basic questions that were asked in the survey were the following two:

- a) What is it about your job that you like? And
- b) What is it about your job that you dislike?

Based upon these answers it was concluded that there are certain characteristics or factors that tend to be consistently related to job satisfaction and there are other factors that are consistently related to job dissatisfaction. Herzberg named the factors that are related to job satisfaction as motivational factors, which are intrinsic in nature and factors related to job dissatisfaction as maintenance or hygiene factors which are extrinsic in nature. These factors are described in detail as follows.

1. **Hygiene factors.**

Hygiene factors do not motivate people. They simply prevent dissatisfaction and maintain status quo. They produce no growth but prevent loss. The absence of these factors leads to job dissatisfaction. The elimination of dissatisfaction does not mean satisfaction and these factors simply maintain a "zero level of motivation." For example, if a person indicated "low pay" as a cause of dissatisfaction that would not necessarily identify "high pay" as a cause of dissatisfaction.

- Wages, Salary and other types of employee benefits.
- Company policies and administration rules that govern the working environment
- Interpersonal relations with peers, supervisors and subordinates. Cordial relations with all will prevent frustration and dissatisfaction.
- Working conditions and job security. The job security may be in the form of tenure or it could be supported by a strong union.
- Supervisor's technical competence as well as the quality of his supervision. If the supervisor is knowledgeable about the work and is patient with his subordinates and explains and guides them well, the subordinates would not be dissatisfied in this respect.

All the hygiene factors are designed to avoid damage to efficiency or morale and these are not expected to stimulate positive growth.

The word "hygiene" is taken from the medical field, where it means taking steps to maintain your health but no necessarily improve it. For example brushing your teeth helps prevent cavities but does not improve the condition of your teeth. Similarly, hygiene factors in this theory of motivation prevent decay but do not encourage growth.

Hawthorne experiments were highly conclusive in suggesting that improvements in working conditions or increments in financial benefits do not contribute to motivated performance. A new plant or upgraded facilities at a plant seldom motivate workers if the workers do not enjoy their work and these physical facilities are not substitute for employee feelings of recognition and achievement.

2. **Motivational Factors**

These factors are related to the nature of work (job content) and are intrinsic to the job itself. These factors have a positive influence on morale, satisfaction, efficiency and higher productivity. Some of these factors are:

- The job itself, To be motivated, people must like and enjoy their jobs. They become highly committed to goal achievement and do not mind working late hours in order to do what is to be done. Their morale is high as evidenced by lack of absenteeism and tardiness.
- Recognition. Proper recognition of an employee's contribution by the management is highly morale boosting. It gives the workers a feeling of worth and self esteem. It is human nature to be happy when appreciated. Thus, such recognition is highly motivational
- Achievement. A goal achievement gives a great feeling of accomplishment. The goal must be challenging, requiring initiative and creativity. An assembly line worker finishing his routine work hardly gets the feeling of achievement. The opportunities must exist for the meaningful achievement, otherwise workers become sensitized to the environment and begin to find faults with it.
- Responsibility. It is an obligation on the part of the employee to carry out the assigned duties satisfactorily. The higher the level of these duties, the more responsibility the worker would feel and more motivated he would be. It is a good feeling to know that you are considered a person of integrity and intelligence to be given a higher responsibility. It is a motivational factor that helps growth.
- Growth and advancement. These factors are all interrelated and are positively related to motivation. Job promotions, higher responsibility, participation in central decision making and executive benefits are all signs of growth and advancement and add to dedication and commitment of employees.

The Herzberg's two-factor model is tied in with Maslow's basic model in that Maslow is helpful in identifying needs and Herzberg provides us with directions and incentives that tend to satisfy these needs. Also, the hygiene factors in Herzberg's model satisfy the first three levels of Maslow's model of physiological needs, security and safety needs and social needs and the motivational factors satisfy the last two higher level needs of esteem and self-actualization.

The primary condition of any motivation at any job is that the employee must like and enjoy his job. If the employees are highly dissatisfied with their jobs, their morale would be very low which would adversely affect their motivation. There are certain indicators that reflect job dissatisfaction. These are: Employee unrest, excessive absenteeism and tardiness, excessive and short-term turnover, destructive union activity, desire of employee to retire early and so on. Management must continuously monitor the work environment to see signs of any of the above indicators and take necessary corrective action.

On the other hand, motivation is closely tied with job satisfaction so that management must take steps and offer privileges which would make the employees happy with their jobs. Some of these privileges and benefits include equitable wages and salaries, timely promotion, participative style of management, good working conditions, team spirit and so on.

While all these organisational and work related factors are important contributors and catalysts for motivational processes, the most important factor is the person himself. His own attitude towards life in general would determine his attitude towards his job. People with generally negative attitudes about life and pessimists always complain about everything including the job. Accordingly, in addition to providing a health work environment, management must ensure that the employee is happy with himself and has a positive outlook on life.

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