

Managing Soft Skills *for* Personality Development

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Managing Soft Skills *for* Personality Development

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Prolegomena

Development is sometimes defined as the process of human capability expansion rather than materialistic acquisition and possession. The importance of the development of inner human potential has been emphasized by scriptures and religious teachings of great people. The significance of personality development transcends beyond the individual domain and is now recognized as a critical component of corporate success. This is one of the reasons why the modern corporate sector is now engaged in soft skill development to make the hard skill endowment of its professionals more complete, effective and successful. In the labour-surplus economy of India, it is interesting to observe that although the demand for labour is growing rapidly, most of the unemployed labour cannot effectively be absorbed in productive occupations. Many of the unemployed labourers seeking opening in the labour market possess the necessary hard skill but they are not employable. They are deficient in soft skill and the desirable personality pattern. As a matter of fact, soft skills and desirable personality traits have many things in common and they are complementary in nature, in spite of some minor nuances. The title of the book reflects an interlocking relationship between what seems to be the two apparently different domains.

The fundamental purpose of the present book is to acquaint the readers with different facets of personality development that are compatible with soft skill development. Although soft skill development (SSD) is now formally introduced as a subject at the MBA, Engineering and other professional courses, there are hardly any organized, balanced and complete reading materials available in the market. This explains the purpose of this project of editing a volume that will be adequate, balanced and useful. While teaching a few topics on soft skill development, as the Director and Visiting Professor of the Institute of Management and Technology, Punnapra, Govt. of Kerala, I realized the intense need for a volume of the present genre. This is the genesis of the present volume.

Although soft skill constitutes more than seventy topics, I have chosen twenty critical topics for the present book. This is a book with many differentiating characteristics. Some of the salient features of the book are given below:

- Each topic is written by an expert in the area. The services of a cross-section of professionals, including economists, political scientists, psychologists, physicians, management specialists, professional trainers and entrepreneurs have been utilized for this book.
- On the basis of their specialization and excellence, experts have been selected from five different countries, including India, Iran, Cyprus, Malaysia and the United Kingdom.
- The book has been balanced in terms of both depth and range. The length of discussion is more or less the same for all the topics covered.

- ◎ The presentation of the matter of every topic has been made lucid, simple, precise and incisive. Each topic uses many sub-headings to make the presentation attractive and scintillating.
- ◎ Every chapter of the book has summary, key terms, test-your-knowledge questions and a list of further readings.

The framework of our analysis encompasses three inter-related dimensions. These are given in the following schematic diagram:

Self-Discovery and Goal-Setting	Instrumentalities	Motivation and Decision-making
On the basis of values, attitudes, belief and positive thinking.	Inter-personal Relations & Communications, Group Discussion, Presentation, Interviews, Public Speaking, Team Work, Etiquettes and Manners, Body Language	Leadership, Conflict Resolution, Time and Stress Management & Management of Emotional Intelligence
Where you are and where you want to Go?	How to Get Ready through Soft Skill Development?	How to Go Ahead to Achieve the Goal?

The diagram is self-explanatory. Personality development starts with the idea of discovering one's own potentials and the goal and purpose of life. For different types of professions, goals are different and personality traits should also be different. For instance, the goal of a priest is not the same as that of a business executive. Hence, their personality traits are in many ways different. Once the goal of life is known, one should constantly work to achieve that goal through some instrumentalities. These instrumentalities in the scheme of personality development are: inter-personal relations and communication, presentation abilities, good etiquettes and manners and so on. Once the personality becomes presentable and acceptable to the society, one needs motivation, decision-making skill, and time and stress management skill to lurch forward for achieving the goal. At many a stage of life, a professional confronts a paradoxical situation of emotional intelligence which he needs to resolve in a way that does not detract him from his path of success. The editor and the contributors of this volume broadly agree with the idea that soft skill development will make the hard skill more meaningful and perfect under all situations.

All said, it is instructive to note that the book is not designed to be a cornucopia or an oracle for personality development. A simple reading of this book, will not automatically transform one's personality pattern. It will need constant practice, conscious endeavour and determined efforts to get the best result out of this book.

In the preparation of a book of this genre, the first necessary prerequisite is to have a team of competent contributors. In this endeavour, the assistance rendered by Prof. Muhammad Syukri Salleh, Director, Centre for Islamic Development Management Studies, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia, has been commendable. Without his help, I would not have got a team of excellent contributors from Malaysia. My 'big thank you' goes to him. I am also thankful to the contributors, who in spite of their busy schedule have managed to steal away some time for this volume and have given their best.

Mr. Tapas Maji and Mr. Amit Kumar of Tata McGraw-Hill, New Delhi, deserve my appreciation and gratitude for their painstaking efforts to publish the book within a reasonably short period of time with a good get-up and style.

Although the volume is the outcome of a teamwork, nobody associated with this work is singularly and individually implicated for the lapses that might be lurking around. The editor of the volume is the monopolist of all the possible mistakes and errors, if there be any. The editor will appreciate all constructive suggestions for the improvement of the book and will thankfully acknowledge them in the next edition.

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Chapter One

Soft Skill Development: An Introductory Overview

B.N. Ghosh

“... the spirit who is in you is more powerful than one who is in the world”

— Bible: 1 John: 4.4

“The one who turns his mind away from the happiness that is available from outside through the senses, and the one who turns his mind away from the happiness instead looks within, finds Brahma in his own inner self and experiences eternal happiness.”

— Gita: V:21

Both the above verses that are quoted from the scriptures advise us to look at the inner self, which is potentially more powerful than whatever lies in the outer domain. By implication, the development of the esoteric self or innate qualities can be a source of eternal happiness. Indeed, proper knowledge of our hidden or covert personality gives us immense confidence and credibility throughout our life time. Without the development of the esoteric inner

self, in a spiritual sense, the realization of the supreme power (God?) is not possible. In a more mundane sense, the discovery of the potential of our personality makes us more competitive, capable, contestable and complete. In other words, whereas the knowledge of a hard skill enables us to face squarely the challenges of the exoteric professional world, the development of inner power, potentials and personality makes us successful as human beings.



NEED FOR SOFT SKILL DEVELOPMENT

Today, soft skill development (SSD) has become extremely popular and is being emphasized in various professional courses, including MBA, engineering and civil services examinations, and in several

2 Managing Soft Skills for Personality Development

competitive, job-oriented courses as well. In many institutions, hard skill development (HSD) and soft skill development (SSD) are both being given equal importance. The popularity and importance of SSD in the present job market has become so overwhelming that it is being taught as a separate course at the master's level in several institutions. With hard skill accomplishment remaining the same, most employers are now prone to laying greater emphasis on SSD. This is because a significantly large proportion of success in any business depends on interpersonal relations and communications. This can be ensured if the manager has sufficient exposure to soft skill development and training. In the present chapter, a holistic idea of SSD is presented in a rather simple way without any humpty-dumptyness.



WHAT IS SOFT SKILL DEVELOPMENT?

Soft skill development can be defined as a process of development of the human psyche and personality so that a person becomes more social and acceptable to the society at large, including the corporate world. These skills are called soft skills because at the levels of both acquisition and delivery, there are individual variations and adaptations. For instance, two individuals may be equally excellent in presentation but both may have different styles and structure. Soft skills are more flexible, individualistic and personality-related.

These skills are acquired mostly through social interactions, exposure and adaptability. It is sometimes said that SSD cannot be formally imparted. It needs to be learnt through adjusting the personality pattern, which conforms to certain acceptable social standard or norms. Some of these norms may change over time, and some of these can be country- or society-specific in practice. Thus, one can say that soft skill is a relative concept. Although the specific styles of soft skill presentation may vary from society to society, the basic principles, objectives and topical issues remain the same. For example, note the following 70 topics that can be included under the soft skill development programme.

Common Topics in Soft Skill Development

Communication	Desire for self-discovery
Knowledge of driving	Duty consciousness
Internalization of criticism	Eagerness to learn
Conflict resolution	Etiquettes and manners
Accountability	Fairness in dealings
Adorable behaviour traits	Fellow feeling
Alertness	General knowledge and understanding
Amiability	Goal-setting ability
Assertiveness	Good attitude
Awareness	Good conversational skills
Body language	Good humour
Catholicity of character	Good level of intelligence
Commitment	Grasping ability

Common sense	Group discussion
Compassion	Honesty and integrity
Courtesy	Humility
Creativity	Idealism
Critical Thinking	Impartiality in dealing
Decision Making	Innovative spirit
Interpersonal relations	Psychological stability
Interviews	Public speaking
Justice	Punctuality
Being considerate and reasonable	Reasonable and realistic beliefs
Leadership quality	Reliability
Morality	Respect for others
Motivation	Simplicity
Objectivity	Sincerity
Organizational skills	Smartness
Perception levels	Sociability
Personality development	Straightforwardness
Positive attitudes and thinking	Stress management
Positive reaction to outward stimulus	Team work
Presence of mind	Time management
Presentable personality	Trustworthiness
Presentation	Truthfulness

There are, of course, many other related topics for SSD, such as the model of man, emotional intelligence, ethical make up and so on. Only the topic on personality development needs an additional interpretation. As a matter of fact, personality development is a holistic exercise and includes all the topics mentioned in the preceding list. For example, an individual's personality, to a significant extent, depends on how he or she speaks, behaves, walks and so on.



COMPARISON OF HARD SKILLS AND SOFT SKILLS

There are many similarities as well as differences between hard and soft skills. The similarities may be noted as follows:

- Both SSD and HSD are to be learnt formally or informally.
- Both aim at developing human capital or overall efficiency and performance and productivity.
- Both are transferable from one person to another person, although in different degrees.
In most cases, a soft skill is not transferable to the same extent as a hard skill.
- Both are valuable in the job market for absorption, retention and promotion. Both are necessary for optimum outcome and efficiency.

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However, despite a few similarities, there are many differences between SSD and HSD. A few major points of difference are summarized briefly below.

- ◎ Learning a hard skill, such as the techniques of mechanical engineering, is a more formal process that requires formal schooling, practical learning and so on. But SSD involves a more informal learning process. For instance, etiquettes can be learnt by attending parties, social gatherings and mingling with people who display good manners and behaviour. The SSD learning process in the case is basically informal.
- ◎ HSD has nothing to do with the personality pattern; neither does it change the basic personality of a person. An engineer will have more or less the same personality traits as before. Such a type of education does not change the man at the core. But SSD does change the personality of a person. After learning the skill, an individual's ways of speaking, behaving and other interactive traits could dramatically change. SSD is essentially personality-related.
 - Hard skills can be individually or institutionally transferred through the process of teaching and learning. Thus, doctors are producing doctors and engineers are producing (or making) engineers. But in the case of soft skills, the transferability of personality traits cannot be accomplished in a perfect manner. Some people are of the opinion that soft skills really cannot be taught in classrooms. Even if this skill is taught in the classroom, the ultimate delivery may vary from person to person. This is because human behaviour is basically an individualized notion.
 - HSD leads to mechanical performance without any individual variation. It is mostly formula or technique based, and individual volition has hardly any role to play. But SSD does not take place in the same way. There are, more often than not, individual variations in the learning process, delivery and presentation.
 - The development of hard skills aims at and often contributes to the growth of the economy by increasing productivity and output. It is helpful for the growth of the GDP or GNP because its application leads to quantitative growth of output or production. But SSD, on the other hand, is not directly associated with increased output production as such. It, however, indirectly contributes to conditions that lead to more sales, better industrial relations, amicable method of conflict resolution and industrial peace. Through all these ways, it can create a congenial atmosphere where production can be carried on without many obstacles.
- ◎ The knowledge and application of hard skills are almost absolute in nature without any individual-specific or country-specific variation. But many of the ingredients of the soft skill package are country-specific in character. For instance, in the Greek society of Aristotle's time, *pride* was regarded as a great virtue and *humility* was looked down upon. However, in India and most of the present-day countries, pride is looked down upon and humility is seen as an ideal virtue. The same idea is also entertained in the Bible and the Gita.
- ◎ Whereas hard skills can be sold independently of soft skills in the job market, assuming, of course, that every person possesses a minimum amount of soft skills, soft skills per se cannot be sold in the job market without a minimum amount of hard skills. Soft skills alone are not very useful in an industrial economy. The owner of soft skills must have a critical amount of human capital through job experience, training (formal or informal) and working skill.

From the preceding discussion, it becomes clear that soft skills are not a substitute for hard skills and vice versa. **Both these types of skills are complementary in nature.** This is one of the reasons why in several professional courses, hard skill training is being supplemented by soft skill training.



THE PROCESS OF SOFT SKILL DEVELOPMENT

We will now dwell upon the process of soft skill development.

Introversive vis-à-vis Behaviouristic Skill

The process of soft skill development is a rather convoluted one where the introspective or introversive skill has to be transposed into a behaviouristic skill that can be applied in the job market or at the workplace. For instance, you may have an inborn leadership quality, but unless you apply that quality in a real-world situation, the quality (whether congenital or acquired) remains introversive or dormant in you. It does not then benefit anyone. Therefore, mere learning of a soft skill is not enough; it has to be translated into practice.

On the basis of introversion (introspection), there can be many types of soft skills. It is instructive to note that introspection is somewhat different from inversion although sometimes these terms are used interchangeably. Introspection is the process of thinking; it is in your thought process, but introversion may not be in the domain of thought. It is there within you but you are not bringing it out. In both cases, the skill does not become behaviouristic.

Introspective or introversive skills are of many types. Some of them are value, attitude, virtue, alertness, awareness, catholicity of character, motivation, creativity, sense of duty, critical thinking, honesty and integrity, positive thinking, goal-setting and self-discovery. All these soft skills are in the store/stock but not put into use or translated into behaviouristic practices.

On the other hand, behaviouristic skills are experimental and have been applied or are being applied. Some of these skills are assertiveness, body language, public speaking, courtesy, etiquette, good humour, proven leadership, interpersonal relationship, organizational skills, team work, management of time and decision-making. These skills are manifested in actual working or practice.

In some countries, including Saudi Arabia, the practice of shaking hands or sitting close to a Muslim lady customer is not allowed for a salesman. Also, in Iran, people follow the practice of having food while sitting on a floor mat. No English custom is followed while eating the food.

Cognitive Equilibrium and Disequilibrium

In the course of personality development through soft skill formation, you come across two distinctly different situations. Let me explain them briefly. When one learns a soft skill, one likes to apply it sooner or later. However, when applying this soft skill, an individual may find that it is not suitable to a particular situation or context, or it may be contrary to practice. Thus, there arises a **cognitive disequilibrium** in

the mind of the soft skill owner. Then the individual has to either modify or completely discard the skill or practice that was learnt.

Cognitive equilibrium, on the other hand, is a situation in which you can deliver or convert your introversive soft skill into a behaviouristic skill without any opposition or barrier. The whole

It is said that if you think positively, something positive will happen and negative thoughts bring negative outcomes.

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purpose of your soft skill is to make it fully behaviouristic by minimizing or eliminating the obstacles or barriers. The more you can adjust and adapt to the local milieu, the more successful the delivery of your soft skill would be.



IMPORTANCE OF SOFT SKILL DEVELOPMENT

There is an old story of two shopkeepers who had their shops side by side. They stocked the same goods, had the same quality and charged the same prices. However, one was able to sell more whereas the other was always short of customers. One day, the shopkeeper who could not sell more discussed this matter with one of his close friends. The friend, who was an educated person, analysed the possible reasons for this and concluded that it was his friend's curt and unfriendly behaviour with the customers that kept them away and contributed to the loss. The moral is that you may have everything, but if you lack the skill to behave well with your customers, you are likely to lose them one by one.

As a matter of fact, socially acceptable skills are prerequisites for a good opening in the competitive corporate world. Similarly, an employer does not merely look for a person who will perform all tasks mechanically like a robot. This is because effectively dealing with people, which is an important part of management, requires soft skills that have a more important role to play than hard skills.

The basic purpose of soft skill development (SSD) is to develop the human personality in a holistic sense, to make beings more socially refined. Through this development, you get a chance to make a self-study vis-à-vis others who have become successful in their careers. In this process of comparative analysis, you can know your strong points, weaknesses, opportunities and threats as regards the particular profession. The SWOT analysis thus gives you an analytical base to know your deficiencies and relative merits. On the basis of this comparative advantage (COMAD) and self-discovery, you can design a plan for developing your career. The self-discovery is imperative before deciding on goals and profession.

If you do not know your potentials through self-realization and discovery, you will never be able to choose an appropriate vocation or profession. If you can ascertain the professional trajectory, you can prepare a number of schemes to reach the goal. Here it is assumed that you have the necessary qualifications and experience in hard skills.

All through your professional career and also for becoming a successful human being, you need to have a positive attitude and thinking.

The power of positive thinking in making people happy, satisfied and successful has been very elaborately described by Norman Vincent Peale (2004). A reader of this chapter is requested to read the book thoroughly.

When you have the right kind of attitude to life and work, you can engage yourself in preparing for a suitable opening in the job market, assuming that you are not already there.

It has already been explained that the soft skill expertise will be an added qualification, and will be a decisive factor in selecting the most suitable employment and also for an effective entry in the job market.

In this context, a number of SSD-related qualifications will be immensely helpful. These are: etiquettes and manners, group discussions, interviews, presentation and body language. Nobody likes a person who has no etiquettes or manners. Although etiquettes and manners are related to ideal human behaviour,

there is a small difference between them. Whereas manners are general guidelines for good behaviour, etiquettes are codified rules for conduct, especially at public places or social gatherings.

Your presentation may involve public speaking that demands skills in pronunciation, fluency and time management. As a speaker, you will not make an impression if you are not fluent in your language, you stammer and falter while speaking, or your pronunciation is horrible.

When you are selected for a job, the soft skills that you possess and the ones that were discussed earlier will have to be put into constant use. While on the job, you must have the ability to work in a team, have organizational skills, and in every case, have good interpersonal relations and communications with your colleagues and staff and outsiders, including customers, suppliers and stakeholders. If you are disorganized and ignorant in relation to these skills, you are likely to be criticized and disregarded. .

It has been seen from experience that it is difficult to find a job only on the basis of hard skills, and even if you are able to get one, you cannot expect to progress in your career unless you excel in soft skills.

Given certain ethical values and commitment, soft skills will make you an ideal officer and a leader if you have the required leadership qualities. A successful leader can hardly overlook the importance of soft skills. Such a person needs positive thinking, respect for others, ability to speak publicly, team work, group behaviour, interpersonal relations and the ability to persuade others through self-confidence. Many of these soft skill components are also necessary to create a successful marketing strategy to win customers.

Soft skills are additional qualities but at times more deterministic for the success of an enterprise. For example, if you have no communication skills, you cannot express anything to your clients and customers. You may be a very qualified and experienced manager, but if your demeanour is repelling and language caustic, you are likely to drive people away from you.

If you want professional recognition and success on a permanent basis, you must combine your professional skill with soft skills. Whereas a hard skill makes you efficient in your job, a soft skill makes you an efficient human being.



HOW TO DEVELOP AND IMPROVE SOFT SKILLS

The development or improvement of soft skills (SS) needs constant and consistent efforts. For those who are not yet in the job market or preparing for an entry into the job market, you will do well to **identify the soft skill** that is most suitable to you and develop it to excel in the near future. Note that although SS comes as a total package, it may not be possible for you to excel in all the components of SS. Hence, there is a need to pick and choose. And this choice is mainly dependent on the profession you choose. Alternatively, a career can be chosen on the basis of the soft skill that one is endowed with. So the choice may be based on the profession and its specific demand for a particular type of soft skill or on the soft skill that one excels at. Whatever be the direction of your trajectory, it is imperative to identify your SS.

The possession of soft skill including courtesy, manners and good human relations will not only make you more popular in your own organization but will also endear you to the management.

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Know Your COMAD

It is very essential to understand your comparative advantage (COMAD). You may excel in many areas, but that does not mean that you are the best in all of them. Given a time frame, you can know your comparative advantage by comparing interpersonal performance. For instance, with a gift of speech, you can convince a customer about the utility, price and after-sales services for a product within 10 minutes, whereas other sales men may take half an hour or more. However, suppose that you are also good in presentation and you have presented a topic with equal efficiency in 15 minutes that others have done in 13 minutes. In such a case, your comparative advantage lies in your salesmanship, the monetary implications remaining the same in both these instances.

Identify Your Soft Skill

The identification can be done in various ways. In this context, one can take the help of family, friends and peer groups. They can spot something special in you that relates to a soft skill. It may be public speaking, interpersonal relations and communications or presentation. While identifying your special soft skill, you must not be guided by the idea of being good in the area but to be the best.

Practice Your Soft Skill

In order to master a soft skill, you need to constantly practice it. Indeed, practice makes a man perfect. The practice, however, should be consistent, regular and motivated. Sporadic practice will not help in absorbing and internalizing the skill. Under some guidance, self-training can be done if the rules and formalities of the soft skill are already known.

Develop Your Career Based on the Soft Skill

As pointed out earlier, a profession can be based on one's soft skill or the development of a soft skill may be based on the demands of the profession. For instance, if you are a good speaker and researcher, you could perhaps enroll in teaching or research activities. Or if you have the power and confidence to convince others, you would do well in marketing jobs. However, suppose that, by some luck, you get a job in a marketing department. In that case, you would need to develop your skills in selling, talking and convincing customers. When you do not have the skill, you must learn it.

Permit Creative Destruction

While practising the chosen soft skill, you need to willfully abandon the inherited or acquired habit that goes against the standard (international or local) norm. Destroy your old but uncanny habits, if you have any, and replace it with the new or more suitable ones. The old habit may be destructive or unsuitable, which nobody pointed out to you earlier—for example, a person who repeats “you know” several times in his or her speech has to get rid of this habit if he or she wants to be an effective speaker.

Join a Training Institute

For proper guidance and developing your soft skill, it is better to join a good institute run by experts and experienced teachers. Such an institution can also contribute simultaneously to the development of the

qualities of team spirit and competitive learning. In every country, city and town these days, there are training institutes for public speaking, spoken English and such other soft skills. If these institutes are recognized and affiliated, their certificates can be useful in the job market for new openings.

Educate Yourself

Soft skill development requires a different genre of learning where the informal learning process may, at times, be more useful than formal learning. Thus, ways of speaking, standing, walking and so on may be learned more accurately by observation rather than through books. Some types of soft skills, however, can be learnt by reading, through visual aids, examples and experience. Both formal and informal learning can go a long way in the development of SS. But keep your mind and eyes open so that you learn these skills when an opportunity comes by.

Family and Friends

Family and friends can be very helpful in imparting soft skills to you directly or indirectly. Thus, for the purpose of learning, you need to carefully select a group of friends who are themselves well-versed in such skills and can also impart informal knowledge and training. Similarly, some family members may be helpful in transferring the required skill. For example, you can learn spoken English or say, presentation skills, from your elder sister or brother, who has undergone training or who is an expert in that type of skill. It is often observed that a politician's son becomes a good politician without much formal training in politics. The importance of heredity or environment, in such cases, can hardly be exaggerated.

Watch Your Learning Curve

You must constantly watch and study the soft skill development in you. This can be done in two ways: First, compare with others. Second, with intuition and introspection, analyse what improvement you have made in a given period of time. That is, can you do something meaningful that you could not do earlier? Maybe earlier you were not able to deliver a lecture before strangers, and now you can. This, then, is definite improvement. Progress, therefore, is a function of continuous and repeated practice.

Change the Personality Pattern

For every type of learning, an extrovert type of personality is more helpful than an introvert type. Give up being shy. Be dynamic and always ready to learn and emulate. A person who does not want to learn cannot do so even if there are ample opportunities. You can take the horse to the stream but you cannot make it drink water. Similarly, the desire and eagerness to learn must be present for any type of learning.

Prioritize Your Learning Process

As said earlier, soft skill development is a package that includes skills in public speaking, interpersonal relations and communications, etiquettes and manners and so on. However, with time being short, you can prioritise as to what skill you want to learn first. This depends on many factors, including your job

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requirements, personal needs, availability of facilities and so on. The learning process, in many cases, needs to be decomposed and segregated.

Feedback and Feed-Forward

While working on improving or developing your soft skill, give a demonstration before your friends and colleagues and get feedback about the good points, defects, suggestions for further improvement and so forth. In the next demonstration, you should be able to make up for the deficiencies and present better. Thus, the feedback will give you the impetus to feed-forward the process of learning and this will definitely improve your performance.

There are four stages in the development of soft skills, which are as follows:

- ◎ Learning through formal and informal processes
- ◎ Absorption and rooting in the mind or psyche
- ◎ Demonstration and delivery of the skill
- ◎ Diffusion (spread it and become a resource person and expert in the field)



CAN SOFT SKILLS BE MEASURED?

In the measurement of qualitative data in the case of soft skill, it is possible to translate those data in quantitative terms in several ways. Several soft skill components are not amenable to precise measurement as is possible for quantitative data. Most soft skills are qualitative in nature. But with reference to certain soft skills (say leadership quality), it is possible to classify the possessors in such a way that only one of the following relations will hold good.

Qualitative Comparison Technique

1. $Ax = Ay$
2. $Ax > Ay$
3. $Ax < Ay$

[A is the soft skill and x and y are individuals].

In these cases, the qualitative differences can be known from observation and examinations on the basis of questions and from the opinions of an expert panel, such as in music competitions. Another way of measurement is the transitivity condition (see Ghosh, 2004, p.145).

Transitivity Technique

Transitivity relation says that:

If $Ax > Ay$, and $Ay > Az$, then it can be presumed that $Ax > Az$.

[A is the soft skill component and x, y and z are individuals.]

The preceding two conditions are very useful in measuring **intensive qualities**. Intensive quality measures the intensity of an attribute rather than the extent. In the case of measurement by assigning

marks for qualitative differences, you can only know the broad differences but not the exact quantitative differences.

Ordinal and Cardinal Measurement

If you can know the exact quantitative magnitude of any soft skill among two individuals, you can make a precise measurement in quantitative terms. For instance, you can say that X is twice as tall as Y. This is called **cardinal measurement**. But for soft skills, you cannot say that X is twice as good as Y in making a presentation. You can only say that X is better than Y or Y is better than X, but you cannot precisely say “by how much?” In many cases of soft skill measurement, you make a ranking indicating “better than,” “worse than” or “equal to.” Such type of measurement by assigning ranks is called **ordinal measurement**.

In the case of qualitative measurement by ordinal ranking, you can know the relational property (or attribute) that is **asymmetrical**. That is to say, if you say that X is more polite than Y, you cannot at the same time say that Y is more polite than X. After you give a ranking according to marks (indicating performance), you can classify individuals according to quality and get a scale or ladder of this quality.

Scaling Technique (ST)

On the basis of differences in soft skill endowment, you can make a measurement through the scaling technique (ST). There can be a three-point, four-point or five-point ST, indicating the quality of soft skill—average, good, very good, excellent and so on. For a detailed discussion on Scaling Technique, see Ghosh (2004), Ch. 17.

SUMMARY

As explained in this chapter, soft skills are the gateway to success. While the knowledge of hard skill enables you to face squarely the challenges of the esoteric professional world, the development of inner power, potential and personality (soft skill) makes you successful as human beings. It is this internal power that soft skills promote. Therefore, it is not surprising that soft skill development (SSD) is now being emphasized in various professional courses, including MBA, engineering and the civil services, and in several competitive job-oriented courses as well.

In many institutions, hard skill development and soft skill development are both being given significant importance. The popularity and importance of soft skill development in the present job market has become so overwhelming that SSD is being taught as a separate course at the masters level in several institutions. With hard skills accomplishment remaining the same, most employers are now placing greater emphasis on SSD. This is because a significantly large proportion of success in any business depends on interpersonal relations and communications. And this can be ensured if the manager has sufficient exposure to soft skill development and training.

Soft skill development can be defined as a process of development of the human psyche and personality so that a person becomes more social and acceptable to the society at large, including the corporate world. These skills are called soft skills because at the levels of both acquisition and delivery, there are individual variations

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and adaptations. For instance, two individuals may be equally excellent in presentation but both may have different styles and structure. Soft skills are more flexible, individualistic and personality-related.

There are over 70 topics that can be included in the soft skill development programme. Also, there are many similarities and differences between soft skills and hard skills. Hard skill, in a sense, is more a type of institutionalized knowledge, whereas soft skill is more individualized social knowledge, manners and etiquette.

SSD involves controversial vis-à-vis behaviouristic skill. It can be developed under situations of cognitive disequilibrium. To develop or improve soft skills, you must know your comparative advantage and other requirements. SSD can be developed in many ways: through family and friends, through training, practice and education. At times, the change in the personality pattern becomes essential and you may have to undergo the process of creative destruction of many old values, habits and taboos.

Remember that soft skill cannot be quantitatively measured, but in the ordinal sense, you can rate the skill as better or worse. Although it would still be difficult to say by how much is the skill better or worse.

K E Y T E R M S

- Soft skill • Hard skill • Personality development • Etiquettes and manners
- Group discussion • Positive thinking • Stress management
- Interpersonal relations and communication skill • Leadership quality • Body language
- Time management • Team work • Organizational skill
- Cognitive equilibrium and disequilibrium • Cardinal and ordinal measurement
- Transitivity technique • Scaling technique

T E S T Y O U R K N O W L E D G E

1. Explain the meaning of a soft skill in detail.
2. What are the similarities and differences between soft skills and hard skills?
3. Why is soft skill development regarded so important in the business world?
4. ‘Soft skill is related to personality development.’ Do you agree? Give reasons for your answer.
5. Explain with examples how soft and hard skills are complementary to each other.

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Chapter Two

Self-Discovery and Goal Setting

E.K. Vinod Nambiar

“There are three things extremely hard: steel, a diamond, and to know one’s self.”

— Benjamin Franklin

“Deep within man dwell those slumbering powers; powers that would astonish him, that he never dreamed of possessing; forces that would revolutionize his life if aroused and put into action.”

— Orison Sweet Marden

Companies do not just hire job applicants because of their educational qualification—instead they use skills as criteria for filling positions. “Why don’t you tell me about yourself?” is the most frequently asked interview question. This is also a question that most interviewees expect and the one that they find most difficult to answer.

The inability to answer this simple and straightforward interview question makes you frustrated and ashamed in front of the interviewer. Therefore, if you really want to develop a personality for success, the key is to know yourself.

Self-discovery, in simple terms, is the discovery of your own personality. The greatest discovery that you can make is self-discovery. You need to discover your potentials, your strengths, your abilities, your purpose, and your weaknesses.

With self-discovery, you have the following:

- ◎ You have purpose and focus in life.
- ◎ You will be able to identify and unlock your potential.

The more you know about yourself, the more you can transform your life, so look inward and discover your potential.



SELF-DISCOVERY—WHAT COMPRISES IT

If you want to build high self-esteem and become more confident, you should have sufficient levels of self-discovery. This means that you should know the following:

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- ◎ D: Dreams and goals in life
- ◎ I: Inculcation of achievement motivation
- ◎ S: Strengths and weaknesses
- ◎ C: Causes for your failure and how to overcome them
- ◎ O: Opportunity and threats
- ◎ V: Values and beliefs
- ◎ E: Events and things that make you happy, as well as those that make you sad
- ◎ R: Relating well with others
- ◎ Y: Your philosophy in life

Dreams and Goals in Life

Make your life a mission—not an intermission.

—Arnold H. Glasgow

Dreams and goals shape you as human beings and are crucial to your lives. However, a dream is simply a wish and involves no action, whereas goals transform the dreams into reality. How many of you have ever really sat down and thought about this? So how do you know what your dreams are?

The answer to this is in mastering the art of listening. Listening to others will result in trying to chase their dreams and goals, whereas listening to your heart results in fulfillment.

Inculcation of Achievement Motivation

“I can’t do it” never yet accomplished anything; “I will try” has performed wonders.

—George P. Burnham

Achievement motivation is the tendency to attempt for success and to choose goal-oriented success or failure activities. People who are oriented towards achievement, in general, enjoy life and feel in control. Being motivated keeps people dynamic and gives them self-respect. They set moderately difficult but easily achievable targets, which help them achieve their objectives. They do not set up extremely difficult or extremely easy targets. By doing this, they ensure that they only undertake tasks that can be achieved by them. It is also seen that achievement-motivated people seem to be more concerned with their personal achievement than with the rewards of success.

Strengths and Weaknesses—SWOT Analysis

*Our greatest strength as a human race is our ability to acknowledge our differences,
our greatest weakness is our failure to embrace them.*

— Judith Henderson

SWOT is an acronym for strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats. Some people call it self-discovery. Whether in business or in everyday activities, SWOT analysis is an indispensable tool for self-discovery.

Personal SWOT Analysis

- **Strengths:** Strengths are your internal, positive attributes and selling points. You have some control over these.
- **Weaknesses:** Weaknesses are your internal negative attributes. You have some control over these as well.
- **Opportunities:** Opportunities are uncontrollable external events that you can potentially leverage.
- **Threats:** Threats are uncontrollable external factors that may work against you and require you to take protective action.

Table 2.1 SWOT Analysis

Strengths	Weaknesses
Identify the things that you do well. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What unique skills and abilities do you possess? • What do you do better than anyone else? • What characteristics, competencies, or skills do others commend you for? • What activities would you gladly perform even if you were not getting paid? 	Identify the things that you do not do so well. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Which area could you improve? • What things do others do better than you? • What aspects do others see as your weakness? • In the past, what specific behaviors have been obstacles to your success?
Opportunities	Threats
Identify a relevant need not filled. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What kinds of breakthroughs and innovations are you aware of, or can anticipate before others? • What and where are the interesting opportunities in your market? • What do you anticipate happening in the future that may represent an opportunity? 	Identify obstacles. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What threatens, or has threatened, your success? • Which of your weaknesses or limitations could seriously threaten your success? • What obstacles, beyond your control, could thwart your success?

Answering the questions in the Table 2.1 creates an inventory of Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats, which will determine the possible areas to achieve mastery in. Develop ways to use strengths to exploit opportunities and avoid or defuse threats. In what ways could you exploit your knowledge and wisdom to create a niche market?

Causes for Your Failure and How to Overcome Them

Do one thing every day that scares you.

—Eleanor Roosevelt

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The greatest fear that people have is the fear of failure, which is closely related to the fear of criticism and the fear of rejection. Successful people overcome their fear of failure. Fear incapacitates unsuccessful and weak people. Weakness leads to all kinds of miseries—physical and mental.

So, do not consider failure as mere failure but consider it as feedback, because human beings learn through mistakes. Successful people do not give up. They just try different approaches to achieving their outcomes until they finally get the results they want. Unsuccessful people try one thing that does not work and then give up. Often people give up when they are on the threshold of succeeding.

Values and Beliefs

Don't back down just to keep the peace. Standing up for your beliefs builds self-confidence and self-esteem.

—Oprah Winfrey

Beliefs are the assumptions that you make about yourself, about others in the world and about how you expect things to be. Beliefs are about how you think things really are, what you think is really true and what, therefore, you expect as likely consequences that will follow from your behaviour.

Values are about how you have learnt to think things ought to be or people ought to behave, especially in terms of qualities such as honesty, integrity and openness.

Events and Things That Make You Happy, As Well As Those That Make You Sad

She said she usually cried at least once each day not because she was sad, but because the world was so beautiful and life was so short.

—Brian Andreas

Certain thoughts lead to positive feelings associated with happiness; others lead to feelings of the opposite variety. Therefore, it is a good idea to think about the choices you make on what to think! It is not so easy to manage thought control. If it were, you would not fill your head with negative thoughts, pessimism or any ideas that do not promote positive feelings and joy.

Relating Well with Others

"To handle yourself, use your head; to handle others, use your heart.

—Donald Laird

Ramakrishna Paramahansa explains ego through one of his parables: "If you melt butter in a pan over fire, how long does it make a noise? So long as there is water in it. When the water is evaporated it ceases to make further noise."

Humility or humbleness is a quality of being courteously respectful of others. It is one of the greatest qualities that a human being can have. It does not mean denying your self-worth but it rather affirms the inherent worth of all persons. And this is what relationship is all about.

Any relationship can prosper only if there is trust and understanding, and the most important step towards that is by silencing one's ego.

As the water of egoism gets evaporated, the soul becomes purer, and healthier becomes the relationship.

Your Philosophy in Life

This is my simple religion. There is no need for temples; no need for complicated philosophy. Our own brain, our own heart is our temple; the philosophy is kindness.

—Dalai Lama

Everybody is a philosopher and everyone has a philosophy of life whether they realize it or not. Philosophy is about deciding which goals and values are worthy of pursuit and what ends are important. You can be scientific or pragmatic about pursuing your goals in the most efficient manner, but it is important to have the right or most reasonable goals in the first place. Philosophy is a way of scrutinizing ideas about which goals are the most worthy ones.

So, where does this philosophy generally come from?

It comes from the culture you live in and is influenced by the following factors:

- Your family upbringing
- Your education
- Your social culture

Nurture and develop your subconscious mind with what you believe and your philosophy of life. When your subconscious has accepted the idea, your subconscious mind will automatically influence your day-to-day conscious decisions to execute that idea.

Importance of Self-Discovery

Self-discovery is a tool that unveils your talents and reveals areas that you need to improve. It is a guide to exploring a career in which you can excel; you get a direction; you recognize your wants, and all this ultimately leads to building a life of success and fulfillment.

According to Swami Sivananda, behind all discoveries and inventions, behind all religions and philosophies, behind all life-saving or life-destroying devices, is thought.

You sow a thought and reap an action.

You sow an action and reap a habit

You sow a habit and reap a character.

You sow a character and reap your destiny.*

So, remember that destiny is in your hands; if you can change your habits, you can become the master of your destiny.

*Emerson, Ralph Waldo

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Goal Setting

Based on the study conducted on students in the 1979 Harvard MBA program, the students were asked:

Have you set clear, written goals for your future and made plans to accomplish them?

Only 3% percent of the graduates had written goals and plans; 13% had goals, but they were not in writing; and a whopping 84% had no specific goals at all.

Ten years later, the members of the class were interviewed again, and the findings,

while somewhat predictable, were nonetheless astonishing.

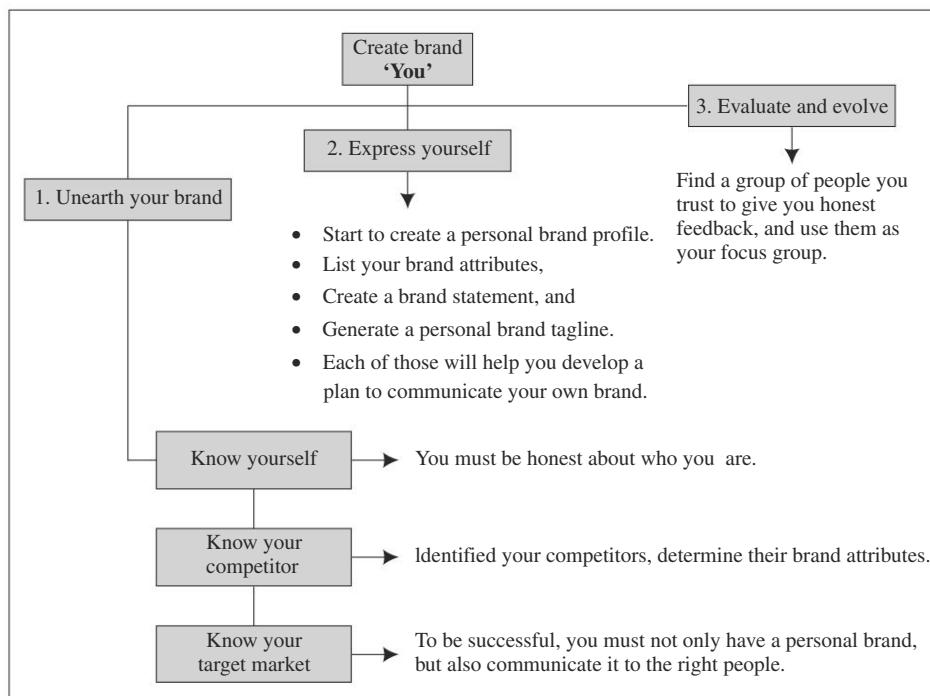
The **13%** of the class who had goals were earning, on an average, twice as much as the **84%** who had no goals at all.

What about the 3% who had clear, written goals? They were earning, on an average, 10 times as much as the other 97% put together.

This is clear and documented evidence of the importance of writing down goals and the impact that goal setting in writing will have on your life.

Create the Brand “YOU”

A personal branding creates expectations. It defines who you are (your strengths, skills, values and passions), how you operate, and how you are different from your competitors, and guides your career decisions. Here are five easy steps to building a successful and strong personal branding:





WHAT IS THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN WISHES, DREAMS AND GOALS?

A dream, a wish, and a goal walk into a restaurant.

The dream says:

"I'd love to have a pizza and coke."

The wish says:

"That would be great. I wish I could have a pizza. Maybe someday!"

The goal says:

"I'm going to get a pizza and coke. You guys want anything?"

A goal without a plan is only a wish. Wishes do not actually have that kind of power over our lives though, because until those wishes have been elevated to the dream status, they are just fanciful thoughts.

A dream is what happens when you close your eyes—a goal is what happens when you open them. Your dreams are what YOU want, not what the rest of the world wants.

Wishes and dreams are just desire and desires are weak.



WHY SET GOALS?

The world is moving so fast these days that the man who says it can't be done is generally interrupted by someone doing it.

—Elbert Hubbard

Think about the purpose of goal setting.

There are six basic questions that you can ask yourself in order to achieve your goals:

- | | |
|---------------|--|
| What? | To identify goals |
| Why? | To learn the importance of goal setting in achieving success |
| Who? | To distinguish the people involved in the goal-setting process |
| Where? | To locate opportunities for useful goals |
| How? | To effectively reach goals; to accomplish what you want to achieve |

The only question missing is **When**. You are the best person to answer that question.

Simply knowing the answers to these questions will help you make the most of your life and will bring a balance in your personal and work life.

A goal is an end towards which you direct specific effort.

A goal is a standard or level of proficiency that you work toward or want to attain.

Types of Goals

If you want to live a happy life, tie it to a goal, not to people or things.

—Albert Einstein

There are three different types of goals, including

- Outcome goals
- Performance goals
- Process goals

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Outcome goals focus on results—for example, getting into a prestigious college or winning a championship.

Performance goals allow you to increase your own personal standards of performance based on previous experiences—for example, how to complete a project on time.

Finally, process goals focus on the steps that you need to take in order to attain the desired outcome—for example, what new skills or strategies must one acquire in order to achieve this goal?

On basis of time, there are three types of goals:

- ◎ Short-term goals (One day to one year)
- ◎ Medium-term goals (One year to three years)
- ◎ Long-term goals (Three years and above)

Short-term Goals

- ◎ These usually deal with current activities that you can apply on a daily basis.
- ◎ Your long-term goals cannot amount to very much without the achievement of solid short-term goals.
- ◎ On achieving your short-term goals, you should date the occasion and then add new short-term goals that will build on those that have been achieved.

Medium-term Goals

- ◎ These build on the foundation of the short-term goals.
- ◎ Whenever you move only a step at a time, you should never allow yourself to become discouraged or overwhelmed.
- ◎ As you complete each step, you will reinforce the belief in your ability to grow and succeed. And as your list of completion dates grows, your motivation and desire increases.

Long-term Goals

Long-term goals may be related to your dreams of the future. Life is not static. You should never allow a long-term goal to limit you or your course of action.

Benefits and Areas of Goal Setting

Goal setting has many benefits. You may ask, “What’s in it for me?” Well, here are some great reasons to set your goals:

- ◎ You are focused on what YOU want to achieve.
- ◎ Your self-confidence increases as you reach milestones along the way.
- ◎ You are no longer confused about what action to take.
- ◎ You are able to prioritize your time.
- ◎ You can see hope for better things.
- ◎ You can see possibilities that you never saw before.
- ◎ You are able to accomplish more in a few short years than most people do in a lifetime.

Arriving at one goal is the starting point to another.

—John Dewey

The areas of goal setting are listed in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 Areas of Goal Setting

1. Financial and Career	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Am I making the kind of money that I want to make? • Have you achieved a satisfactory standard of living? • Do you enjoy your work? • Are you living up to your potential? • What is stopping you from leaving this job or getting that promotion?
2. Social and Cultural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do you feel you are making a contribution to society? • Are you living up to those personal values? • Do you have a good sense of community? • Do you donate money to charity? How much and how often?
3. Spiritual and Ethical	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Have you ever articulated specific personal values to yourself? • Are you living up to those personal values? • Is religion important to you? • If so, are you happy with the way you are practising your religion?
4. Family and Home	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Have you realized your dream in terms of your home and family relationships?
5. Mental and Educational	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Did you accomplish the educational goals you set for yourself following high-school graduation? • Are you still growing and learning?
6. Physical and Health	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are you satisfied with your current level of physical health? • Are you living up to your own standards in terms of diet and exercise? • Are you fit enough to do the things you want to do?

Clarity of Goals

Arriving at one goal is the starting point to another.

—John Dewey

If you would hit the mark, you must aim a little above it; every arrow that flies feels the attraction of earth.

—Henry Wadsworth Longfellow

Far too many people have dreams and ideas that stay in their minds, never to be written down and spoken of. Too many people allow their thoughts and ideas to run around aimlessly in their heads. They do not know how to turn their ideas into a goal, never create an action plan, and have little focus to see their goals through. Are you one of those people? It is never too late in life to start working on a goal.

Start by setting SMARTER goals.

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Smarter Goals

1. S	<p>Be Specific.</p> <p>A specific goal is a goal that contains an action plan that describes the following:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How you will achieve the goal • How you will evaluate the goal (performance measure) <p>So, the formula is:</p> <p>“I will (goal + performance measure) BY (specific actions).”</p> <p>An example of a specific goal to help you meet this objective is:</p> <p>“I will lose five kilos in two months BY walking for half an hour six days a week.”</p>
2. M	<p>Measure your progress.</p> <p>You can measure and take pride in the achievement of goals. You can see forward progress in what might previously have seemed unachievable.</p> <p>To determine whether your goal is measurable, ask questions such as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How much? • How many? • How will I know when it is accomplished?
3. A	<p>Make your goals Achievable.</p> <p>Set a goal that is achievable. This does not mean that you should set a low level goal, which is easy to achieve. You need a concrete plan for how you will achieve your goals and hold yourself accountable. A very high goal may look out of reach initially but eventually, as you move closer, it becomes attainable, not because your goals shrink, but because you grow and expand to match them.</p>
4. R	<p>Be Realistic; think about the reason.</p> <p>Why are you choosing a particular goal? Why and how is it meaningful to you?</p> <p>Your goal is probably realistic if you truly believe that it can be accomplished. Additional ways to know whether your goal is realistic is to determine if you have accomplished anything similar in the past.</p>
6. E	<p>Evaluate.</p> <p>You should regularly review your progress towards achieving your goal. Identify and write down any problems that you have or any obstacles that you face.</p>
7. R	<p>Redo.</p> <p>Reassess and revise your goals as necessary and continue with the SMARTER goal-setting process.</p>

Reasons Why Most People Fail at Goal Setting

Some reasons why goal setting *fails* are as follows:

- There is no good reason to set goals.
- You do not see how goal setting will help you.
- You have no time.
- You feel too hard to achieve your goals.
- You fear both change and failure.
- You are not serious.

Barriers to Goal Achievement

Setting goals are much easier than keeping them. There are a number of barriers that challenge you to keep your goals. These barriers are called roadblocks. Roadblocks can happen because of:

- **Lack of knowledge:** It is the lack of relevant information that you need to achieve your goal.

If knowledge is power, lack of knowledge is obesity.

- **Lack of skill:** It means that you do not know how to apply knowledge. It is the lack of physical or mental skills needed to achieve goals.

You cannot be skillful without first being knowledgeable. However, you can easily be knowledgeable without being very skillful.

- **Lack of self-confidence:** This creates low self-esteem and holds you back, and also becomes an obstacle on your path to turning your dreams into reality.

Know yourself and you will win all battles.

- Sun Tzu

- **Lack of social support:** It is the lack of support from your friends and family that makes your task of achieving goals and success extremely difficult.

If the community is happy, then they support your business and if your business is doing well, then you can give back even more to the community.

- Magic Johnson

If you can answer yes to these questions, you are well on your way to success. Otherwise, you may have to set a new goal to achieve the knowledge, skill, self-confidence, or support that you need.

In ancient times, a king had a boulder placed on a road. Then he hid himself and watched to see if anyone would remove the boulder. Some of the king's wealthiest merchants and courtiers came by and simply walked around it. Many loudly blamed the king for not keeping the roads clear, but none did anything about getting the boulder out of the way. Then a peasant came along carrying a load of vegetables.

On approaching the boulder, the peasant laid down his burden and tried to move the stone to the side of the road. After much pushing and straining, he succeeded. As the peasant picked up his load of vegetables, he noticed a purse lying on the road where the boulder had been. The purse contained gold coins and a note from the king stating that the gold was for the person who removed the boulder from the road. The peasant learned what many others never understood. Every obstacle presents an opportunity to improve one's condition.

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HOW TO USE POSITIVE AFFIRMATIONS IN GOAL SETTING

Set your goals high, and don't stop till you get there.

—Bo Jackson

Affirmations will ensure that your *goals* grow into successful results. That is to simply make sure that each Goal, once written on your sheet, meets the following specifications:

1.	Begin each affirmation in First person	I
2.	Goal affirmations need to be in the present tense .	I always take Healthy food.
3.	An affirmation must be expressed in a positive manner .	I always take Healthy food. It is helpful in digestion and subsequently gives good health.

Daily affirmations will make you positive and help you to achieve the goal you created. You can chant the positive affirmation (mantra) either aloud or silently, but the best time to repeat it is in the morning when you get up and in the evening just before you go to bed. The chanting of a mantra in the evening gives a command to the subconscious mind to work even while you are asleep and when it is repeated in the morning, it enables the subconscious to introspect what it did when you were asleep.

Goal-setting Worksheet

Assignment: Complete the following goal-setting worksheet:



What are your life-time goals?



What are your goals for the next three to five years?



What are your goals that you have set out to achieve this year?



What are your goals for the next 30 days?



What are your goals for the next 24 hours?

(This is like a “to do” list!)



Write down five positive affirmations that you can repeat each and every day on how you desire your life to be.

1. _____
 2. _____
 3. _____
 4. _____
 5. _____

The reason why failure comes in 99 percent of the cases, or to be more precise, of all the cases of failure, 99 percent are due to underestimating the means of attaining a goal. With the means all set, the end must come. You forget that it is the cause that produces the effect; the effect cannot come by itself. The means are the cause, attention to the means, therefore, is the greatest secret of life.

Arise, Awake and Stop not Till the Goal is Reached.

—Swami Vivekananda

According to **Swami Vivekananda** (one of the most famous and influential spiritual leaders), the most widespread and annoying defect in life is that people lay great stress on formulating goals tasks, but think too little of the means for attaining those goals.

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K E Y T E R M S

- | | | | | | |
|------------------|-----------------|---------------|----------------|---------------|---------|
| • Self-discovery | • Values | • Mission | • Goal setting | • Beliefs | • Brand |
| • Strengths | • Relationship | • Affirmation | • Weakness | • Philosophy | |
| • Barrier | • Opportunities | • Ego | • Threats | • Self-esteem | |

T E S T Y O U R K N O W L E D G E

1. What sort of a person are you—focused towards the goal or a person who keep changing his/her goals?
2. What are your strengths?
3. What are your weaknesses?
4. What is your motto in life?
5. What is one area of your career that you want to improve?
6. What special materials or help would you need to reach your goal?
7. How will you reward yourself when you achieve your goal?
8. How is your plan working? Is it working well? If not, why?
9. Does your plan need to be revised?

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Chapter Three

Belief, Values, Attitude and Virtue

B.N. Ghosh

“The qualities of character can be arranged in triads, in each of which the first and last qualities will be extreme and vices, and the middle quality a virtue or excellence. So between cowardice and rashness is courage; between stinginess and extravagance is liberality; between sloth and greed is ambition; between humility and pride is modesty; between secrecy and loquacity honesty; between moroseness and buffoonery, good humour; between quarrelsomeness and flattery, friendship; between Hamlet’s indecisiveness and Quixote’s impulsiveness is self-control.”

— Aristotle

In Lewis Carroll’s *Through the Looking Glass*, the White Queen says, “Why sometimes I believed as many as six impossible things before breakfast?”

This quotation can be used as an instance of mockery against belief. Can there be beliefs contrary to facts? Yes, there can be, but such types of beliefs are generally called fantasy or disillusioned beliefs. Beliefs, values and attitudes are all interlinked. Whatever you believe in determines your values. Values are assumptions about things or persons, which or who ought to behave in a certain way that you believe. If you believe in spirituality, you assume that spirituality is valuable and that people should be spiritual in nature. When you develop a certain value system, it enters into your attitude towards things and people. It becomes an established way of responding to or interacting with people. Attitudes die hard. Therefore, it takes time to change attitudes.

In the present chapter, the apparent relationship between beliefs, values and attitudes are explained. The salient features of *virtue ethics* are explained at some length. Although some virtues are acquired, it is not uncommon that some are naturally endowed with or have a proclivity towards being virtuous. For instance, two sons of a father who are brought up in the same family circumstances may have different degrees of virtues or vices. This can be attributed either to the social milieu or to their inherent nature. Virtue may also depend on beliefs, values and attitudes towards life and religiosity.

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BELIEFS

Beliefs come from knowledge or information. It has an epistemic basis. Epistemology is the philosophical study of beliefs and knowledge. However, all knowledge cannot be the basis of belief. Only true knowledge is helpful for real understanding and belief. Beliefs are ideas or principles that people hold dear in their hearts. In a sense, beliefs are the foundations of the value system. The ethical behaviour of a person, in many cases, depends on beliefs and attitudes. Some of the basic assumptions of life and society are based on beliefs. Science believes that there is an order in nature. However, what people claim to know is mainly belief or judgment. Not every type of belief can be equated with knowledge, because some beliefs, even true ones, may turn out to be false on verification. Knowledge or the epistemological foundation of understanding is not foolproof, and knowledge is only a matter of degree. True beliefs can exist even without direct perception of facts. Some beliefs can be supported by evidence and some cannot. The evidence may be based on perception and experience. The beliefs that are supported by evidence are called justified beliefs. Only justified belief is knowledge. Justified beliefs consist of two types of judgements: Direct or intuitive judgements, and derived judgements. Direct judgements are based on sensory perceptions. Derived judgements are formed from the existing body of knowledge.

In psychology, belief is the elementary form of mental representation and is also one of the fundamental bases of conscious thought. Belief depends on the moral state of the believer. In other words, a belief represents a mental state. Beliefs are sometimes defined as a mental attitude of acceptance or recognition of facts without verification. There are basically two types of beliefs: **core beliefs and dispositional belief**. Core beliefs are more or less permanent and are difficult to change, whereas dispositional beliefs depend on many factors and are changeable.

Contemporary Approaches to Belief

Lynne Rudder Baker (1989) of Princeton University has analysed **four main contemporary approaches to belief**:

1.	Our common-sense understanding of beliefs is correct.
2.	Our common-sense understanding of beliefs may not be entirely correct, but is useful for making some relevant predictions.
3.	Our common-sense understanding of beliefs is entirely wrong, or is overridden by a theory, which does not make use of beliefs.
4.	Our common-sense understanding of beliefs may be wrong but is not useless. It may be used in the cases of human beings and animals for making some predictive strategy.

Formation of Beliefs

There are generally the following **six ways of belief formation**:

- Beliefs come from confidence in the words of the persons whom you respect. This type of belief is called commendatory belief.

- You may have some belief from childhood about the existence of something like ghosts, heffalump or will-o-wisp and so on. These may be real or not. This type of belief is called existential belief.
- Beliefs can be adopted from your role models.
- In younger days, somebody else's belief may be internalized.
- Sudden changes in life may also result in new beliefs or cancellation of old beliefs.
Some beliefs are formed on the basis of new knowledge, new research or advertisements.



VALUES

Every person believes in certain critical values. Thus, Jesus Christ valued *love* more than anything else; Mahatma Gandhi valued *truth*; Plato valued *wisdom*; and Moses valued *justice*. *Value* is anything that has utility or worth. It may be physical values or intrinsic values (in psychological or philosophical sense). A value is a general belief containing the idea of individual as to what is good and what is bad. Values guide your actions as individuals in personal or social life. It is a particular standard that a community gives importance to.

In almost all communities, moral values are assigned to fairness, justice, honesty, integrity and so on. Mostly, your actions are guided by your values. Moral value is something that is esteemed, prized or is a highly regarded good (Angeles, 1981, p. 310). When you can assign values to particular objects, it becomes easier to make a choice. Values are related to culture, society or a systemic attribute. When a particular thing conforms to a basic value or conviction, you would prefer it when compared to another alternative that may have a better appeal to another person, from another point of view.

As a social phenomenon, values are inculcated and sustained through an adaptive process. Values are desires that have contents and intensity. The content aspect of a value indicates the nature of achievement or the ultimate benefits as realised by the user. The intensity attribute of a value indicates the degree of its importance in a particular context. Individual values are commitments to which a particular person subscribes, such as social justice, honesty and so on.

Significance of Values

A set of values is not only critical for a person to live in a particular way, but it also gives the person the direction and motivation to live a desired type of life. A good value is also socially useful and has many positive externalities (external influences) for others. For instance, if a person is non-violent, that person is helping others by not hurting anyone. Similarly, a person of good character is not only an ideal man but that person is also a source of good work and inspiration for others. A man of knowledge is not only helping himself but also helping others by disseminating his knowledge and new ideas.

A value system that a person is endowed with through experience and inherent predisposition may help that person in the following ways (Alex, 2010, p. 35):

- The value system helps a person in making clear decisions.
- The value system helps the perception of the individual.
- A clear value premise helps a person to arrive at flawless logical deductions and moral reasoning.

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- ⦿ It gives a clear understanding of the duty of a person who is confronted with a particular situation.

Some examples of individual values are as follows:

- ⦿ Adherence to justice
- ⦿ Practice of honesty under all situations
- ⦿ Hard work
- ⦿ Sincerity
- ⦿ Sacrifice
- ⦿ Kindness
- ⦿ Care and compassion for the poor
- ⦿ Simplicity
- ⦿ Respect for others

(The list is indeed very conservative here; you can add many more individual values.)

Types of Values

Five classificatory schemas are generally used by researchers in the categorization of values.

1. Terminal Values and Instrumental Values

There are some values that are called *terminal values*. These are the values that a person wants to attend to at the end. As against the end, there may be many means to achieve the terminal value or the desideratum. These values are called instrumental values. In terms of spirituality, to be just or righteous is instrumental in the realization of God, which is the terminal value. An instrumental value is necessary to achieve the ultimate goal or telos.

2. Personal Values

The following are basic categories of personal values:

- ⦿ **Egocentric values:** The value is directed towards satisfying the ego.
- ⦿ **Sociocentric values:** The value aims at socialization and adaptation to society.
- ⦿ **Existentialist values:** This value is in conformity with the existing realities.
- ⦿ **Conformist values:** This is an orientation to achieving materialistic goals by controlling the physical resources.
- ⦿ **Supernatural values:** It is a type of metaphysical value beyond the norms of the physical world to achieve the ultimate reality.
- ⦿ **Tribalistic values:** It consists of submitting yourself to higher power and authority.
- ⦿ **Deontic values:** It considers your own duty as the supreme religion.
- ⦿ **Utilitarian values:** In this type, the aim is to realize the net benefits over cost.
- ⦿ **Consequentialist values:** In this case, an important value is assigned to those actions that have good consequences.

3. Many psychologists, philosophers and sociologists have classified values into the following categories:

Categories of Values

- Religious values
- Economic values
- Social values
- Aesthetic values
- Political values
- Logical values

4. **Individual Values** can be further classified into the following categories:

- Practical or pragmatic values
- Moralistic or metaphysical values
- Core values
- Cultural values
- Social values
- Values relating to social responsibilities
- Values relating to civic responsibilities

5. Another type of classification of values is based on the following:

- Acquiring and dissemination of knowledge
- Justice, righteousness and fair play
- Care and compassion
- Universal love
- God-fearing attitude
- Truth and non-violence
- No desire for materialistic possession
- Character-building
- Honesty
- Kindness and sacrifice

Characteristics of Values

- A value is **chosen freely** without any coercion or compulsion.
- A value is chosen from a number of alternative values.
- The choice of a value is made after taking into account different consequences of this choice.
- A value that is chosen is then practised and adored. It is sustained and applied at different stages of life.
- Values make a man. They show up in every situation of life.
- Values become a part of your self and being. They persist and stay on, unless some drastic value-changing situations and experiences arise.

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- ◎ Values are partly genetically determined, and partly acquired through experience and interactions.

Sources of Values and Attitudes

There are many sources of values. Some are listed below:

- ◎ Parents and family
- ◎ Teachers and classmates
- ◎ Peer groups and friends
- ◎ Reference groups
- ◎ Culture and tradition

Some important sources of values are elaborated as follows:

Family

The most important source of value formation is the family. In this context, the influence of parental behaviour can hardly be exaggerated. Parents are the first persons to instil ideas of right and wrong and bad and good in the minds of children. The conscience of the parents and their ideas on morality and immorality are gradually and deeply drilled in the minds of youngsters. If parents lie, children may pick up that habit from them, and it will be difficult to efface that from their minds. Children experience moral development and distinguish between right and wrong through reward and punishment by parents. In the course of time, they internalize these moral lessons. They accept certain values at a very young age without questioning. They think what parents say must be correct. The capacity for moral reasoning does not develop at that young age. However, subsequently, they grow up and become capable of moral reasoning with regard to bad and good, and can defend their moral behaviour and the value system they adopt.

Peer Groups

The second important source of value formation is peer groups, friends and colleagues with whom you interact in day-to-day life. In the days as an adult, you are very much influenced by the value system of your classmates, churches, clubs and playmates. During this phase of life, as an adult, you may confront with many challenging issues involved in your acquired value system. You may, after moral reasoning once again, either retain your values or reject them in favour of new ones. You may experience a wave of creative destruction. A good peer group may be helpful in inculcating good moral values, whereas a wicked peer group may be instrumental in sacrificing the good moral values for the bad.

Role Models

Sometimes, there are some people whom you admire, respect, adore and emulate. These people may be one of your teachers, a sportsman, a film star or a political leader. They exert profound influence on the minds of especially the adolescent. A film hero's moral behaviour in a film, which has become famous or notorious, does influence the minds of millions of fans all over the country. Like the peer groups, the role models can also modify the values of people from good to bad, or from bad to good.

Institutions

Institutions exert a strong and significant influence on the minds of people regarding moral development and values. The institutions may be educational institutions, religious institutions or any other social institutions. Social institutions, through the process of socialization, may mould your values and attitudes. Similarly, a religious institution, such as a church, considerably influences your value premise and value system. The changes that they bring about are from bad to good, and these influences are almost indelible. Thus, a regular church-goer inculcates a value system that is morally progressive with qualities such as compassion and care, love, kindness, sacrifice and so on.

Values and Business

Generally, a business organization depends on the following types of values:

- **Excellence** in all fields of business, such as excellence in production, marketing and distribution and so on.
- **Innovation** in production technique, in cost reduction, in procuring and finding new sources of raw materials, in finding new markets and in reorganizing the business. Innovation sustains creativity.
- **Establishing credibility**—This can be ensured by trust, goodwill, rapport with customers and suppliers, and consistently good performance.
- **Providing consumers with the best services**, in particular after-sales services.
- **Gathering market intelligence** to know about the status of a product and thereby, to make some improvements in the marketing mix if necessary
- **Maintaining external and internal coordination of all product lines, marketing and factor use efficiency**.
- **Creation and development of corporate values**—The business should have concrete ethical values towards employees, customers and suppliers, and social responsibility towards the society.

Conflicts of Values

Every professional person has to live with two values: one personal and the second, professional. These two values may come into conflicts at times. However, such a type of conflict is not always inevitable. Whenever a clash occurs between these two values, generally, professional and morally responsible people give preference to the professional value over the personal value or interest (Bivens, 2004, p.11). Thus, a judge may sentence his only son for murder or a teacher may punish his daughter for not learning lessons. Such cases are multiple in any society.

Alternatively, in many cases, a compromise, trade-off or a balanced approach may often be possible. Barring cases of penal codes, in many instances, a trade-off may be achieved. For instance, you are a forest officer and on your inspection tour, you find a wood-cutter felling a tree from the forest illegally. On inquiry, you learn that he is very poor and without a job, and his family is starving. You may show some sympathy on him. If you ask him not to do this illegal act again and impose some penalty on

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him, but pay him some money out of which he pays his penalty and still have something with which to feed his family, it will be a great compromise. However, this way of making a compromise is very rare, though not impractical. It is said in the Bible that Jesus came to this world to take away our sins and sickness, paid for our transgression and inequities and died for the sinners in order to give us eternal life through redemption and make us closer to our heavenly father who is always holy and pure.

There are indeed many cases that reveal conflicts between personal professional values.

Your Principal wants you to revise upward the grade of a student in a particular subject of the MBA class of which you are the teacher. Your official loyalty to the Principal will direct you to do so. However, your personal ethical principles may prevent you from revising the grade of the student. In such a case, there may be a third alternative. You may think twice on the matter

and reconsider the case in terms of fairness. Will it be unfair on your part to promote the grade of one student and not the entire class (Day, 2006, p. 33)? Perhaps, you may find many instances to justify your action from the attendance of the student, the level of intelligence, class participation and compelling family background.

In the case of media reporting too, there may be some potential conflicts between the public right to know fully about a reported case and the individual's right to privacy and confidentiality. For instance, it is not necessary to reveal the full name and address of a rape victim while reporting a rape case. A compromise is possible in many cases by following a middle path and collecting more and more compelling evidence in favour of your decision.



ATTITUDES

Attitudes towards life and other aspects are generally based on the value system that you have inculcated. Values and attitudes go hand in hand. Attitudes relate to personal feelings, beliefs and predisposed ideas. Attitudes are hypothetical constructs that represent your likes and dislikes. Values guide your attitudes. Attitude is a learned predisposition of behaviour towards persons, groups, objects and the environment. Attitudes regarding an object or situation may be positive or negative. Sometimes, attitudes may be neutral, or cannot be determined (unknown zone). Tables 3.1 and 3.2 list out some major differences between attitudes and values and some similarities between attitudes and values, respectively.

Attitudes and values are inter-related: values influence attitudes and attitudes, in some cases, influence our value system. There are important similarities, as well as differences between values and attitudes.

Table 3.1 Major Differences between Attitudes and Values

Attitudes	Values
Attitudes represent predisposition.	Values relate to judgements.
Attitudes are mostly personal.	Values are gathered from social and cultural parameters.
Attitudes may be an amalgam of several beliefs.	Values originate from a single belief.

Table 3.2 Similarities between Attitudes and Values

Attitudes	Values
Attitudes represent predisposition.	Values relate to judgements.
Attitudes interact with values.	Values interact with attitudes.
Attitudes affect the behaviour of people.	Values affect the behaviour of people.
Attitudes are learnt outcomes.	Values are learnt outcomes.
Attitudes are acquired from family, peer groups, role models and institutions.	Values are acquired from family, peer groups, role models and institutions.
Attitudes are difficult to change.	Values are difficult to change.

Components of Attitudes

The Greek philosophers were the first to recognize the components and importance of attitudes. Attitudes are tendencies to feel or behave in a particular way with respect to some persons, objects or events. There are three major components of attitudes—affective, behavioural and cognitive. These are briefly written as ABC.

- **Affective Component (A)** This component of attitude is the **emotional aspect** of your belief about a situation or object. This reveals the positive or negative side of your emotion towards a situation, event or some people. Whenever you see the hero or heroine in a movie, you may be moved by the charm, good dialogue, charisma and so on. All these evoke some positive responses or attitudes towards that personality. However, in some cases, the hero may show his pride or quarrelsome nature, which you may not like, and therefore, you develop a negative attitude towards him. Your attitude is thus based on your emotion towards that person at a point in time. But the difficulty is that the same person may reveal different types of behaviour at different times. Thus, in many cases, attitude formation of a permanent nature becomes rather difficult. In a majority of the cases, the basic nature of the person or situation being considered decides your attitudes.
- **Behavioural Component (B)** This component relates to an individual's predisposition to respond. The behavioural component is the **verbal expression** of the intention of the individual. If you like any person or situation or event, you are likely to express that feeling through a positive attitude of acceptance. It can also be explained that an entity's behaviour in a particular context can lead to either a good or bad attitude in the mind of the observer. In this situation, what is critical is the observed behaviour from which you can infer the nature of the attitude.
- **Cognitive Component (C)** In this case, there is a cognitive evaluation of the entity that can be helpful to form an attitude. The cognitive component is the **rational component** and the affective component is the emotional component for forming the attitudes. In forming correct attitudes, it is necessary to take into consideration both these components; otherwise, the attitudes may not be correct. This is because, sometimes, the first component dominates the second and vice versa.

As a matter of fact, attitudes about morality are a combination of many factors, including feeling (emotion), actuality (reality or rationality), thoughts and actions (Harrison, 1976, p. p.193).

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VIRTUE?

Moral virtue is an **acquired mental disposition** that forms a part of the character of a morally good person. This is reflected in the behaviour pattern of the person (Velasquez, 2006, p.110). There can be a long list of virtues. However, the major virtues are: honesty, sincerity, truth, courage, temperance, integrity, compassion and kindness. Virtue is the habit of deliberate choice of the right activities and performance of duties in the right way (Sinha, 2006, p. 286). Virtue is excellence in character. According to Aristotle, virtue is a permanent state of mind to perform the best things in life. The concept of *best* is to be decided on the basis of reason. Virtue is not a congenital disposition of the mind but is an **acquired disposition**, which is in harmony with the moral laws. Virtue implies both knowledge and habit (Mackenzie, 1956). Virtue constitutes only socially desirable human disposition and not all types of disposition.

Alasdair MacIntyre, an American philosopher, defines *virtue* as any human disposition that is praised because it enables a person to achieve the good that human practices endeavour (MacIntyre, 1981, p. 204). The use of the expression, “human practices,” has been criticized by many philosophers as something inaccurate. For instance, Pincoffs is of the opinion that moral virtues give a feeling and mental capability to judge persons so that it is possible to distinguish between a good person and a bad person (Pincoffs, 1986).

A man of virtue is always happy. Aristotle observes that a man who does not feel pleasure or happiness in noble actions is not a good man. Virtue by itself is not happiness but happiness is the index of virtue. Happiness is discovered in performing some good actions based on reason. This view is also supported by modern **eudaemonism**.

To Socrates, virtue is knowledge. However, this view is not fully correct in the sense that knowledge by itself does not give virtue, even though it may be a condition or the necessary basis for acquiring virtue. Virtue needs the knowledge of good and evil and the internalization of only the good traits.

Wisdom and virtue consist in living in accordance with the **ethos** of the people and time. *Ethos* implies the rules of morality based on ideals, institutions and collective moral habits and standards of people. Ethos is the morality of people expressed in definite rules and precepts, such as the **Ten Commandments in the Bible**.

To Aristotle, it is the habit of choosing the relative mean as determined by reason. The mean is the **moderation of two extreme values**, which are vices. Thus, the virtue of courage is the golden mean between rashness and cowardice. The point of the mean will not, however, be the same for every type of person and profession. The essence of virtue lies in moderation, and when it is excess or deficient, it becomes a vice. Moderation implies that you, as a person, control your instincts and impulses to the point that is consistent with the moral law of reason. But how do you know which is moderate (or the best mean) for you? Aristotle says that it is decided by prudence. However, all types of virtues under all circumstances cannot be based on moderation. For instance, when you are surrounded by enemies, you must show the utmost courage to fight with the enemies and in that case, moderation of courage will be a vice. **Aristotle's theory of the golden mean** must be interpreted as a general rule, which may have many limitations.

For St. Thomas Aquinas, a medieval theologian and economic thinker, virtue consists in that type of habit, which enables a person to live peacefully and reasonably well in this world and also that ideal Christian habit, which will ensure union with God. These ideal habits are: **faith, hope and charity**.

Virtue is a product of the rational self, which can be realized by controlling instincts, desires, greed and illusions. This can be done by constant endeavour and habit. To possess this type of noble habit is a virtue. All worldly virtues are streamlined from this **one single system of virtue (unicity of virtue)**. This view is entertained by all philosophers, including Plato and T.H. Green.

Because **temperance** is essential to control your senses and instincts, it is a great virtue. Temperance is a type of self-discipline. **Culture** is another important virtue that leads to development of personality and individuality. **Courage** is the power to conquer fear. Courage can be of different forms. Moral courage is the courage of conviction. **Justice and benevolence** are also critical social virtues. **A few important moral virtues** that make your character noble are: truth, beauty, goodwill, friendship, non-violence, love, loyalty, respect, renunciation, humility, righteousness, kindness, care and compassion and reverence to God, among others. These are adored by every person who is morally upright.

Virtue is a relative concept. Virtue is relative to society, the nature of the state and social positions and responsibilities. Whereas some virtues, such as patriotism and nationalism, are virtues in all types of states, for some states, such as a communist state, religious activities are not looked upon as virtues. For a totalitarian state, loyalty to the ruler is a higher virtue than devotion to God.

People are given different social powers, positions and functions, and accordingly, their virtues are different. Thus, the virtue of a teacher is different from the virtue of a priest. In the **Varnashrama Dharma (caste-based classification of duties)** that is enshrined in the Hindu philosophy, the four different classes of people perform four different functions, and therefore, their virtues will be different. For instance, a Brahmin will engage in teaching, worshipping and reading of religious scriptures; a *kshatriya* (warrior) will engage in protecting the motherland through battles and wars; a *vaishya* (trader/farmer) will engage in trade farming and so on; and a *shudra* (a low caste) will serve all other higher castes. Because the functions of these classes of people are different, their virtues will accordingly be different.

The nature of virtues differs from country to country and from time to time. In the Greek society, pride is regarded as a great elite virtue, but it is not so in India. In some countries, courage is most important but not in others. In the olden days, simplicity was regarded as a prime virtue, but now it is considered as foolishness by many. To be clever is an ideal virtue in the modern world. Thus, virtue has a contextual connotation, and therefore, it is a relative term.

Virtue has been classified in different ways by different philosophers (vide Sinha, 2006, 292–97). Some of the major classifications are shown in the following chart, which is self-explanatory.

Table 3.3 Classification of Virtue

General Classification	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Self-regarding (truth, beauty, temperance, courage and so on) Other regarding (justice, benevolence, patriotism, and so on) Ideal regarding (love, truth, passion for God)
James Seth	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Temperance (regulation of impulses) Culture (inner excellence and self-development)

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	3. Justice 4. Benevolence
Plato's Cardinal Virtues (Basis of all other virtues)	1. Wisdom 2. Courage 3. Temperance 4. Justice
Aristotle	1. Intellectual Virtue (rationality and knowledge) 2. Moral Virtue (temperance, courage and habits for the realization of God) 3. Aristotle accepted Plato's cardinal virtues but interpreted them in a narrower sense.

It needs to be noted in this context that some virtues are natural and some are artificial (Dienhart, 2000, p. 111). Thus, kindness, compassion, generosity and so on are natural virtues. They do not need any type of rule for their application. These are spontaneous and natural. But artificial virtues such as justice, politeness and so on are based on rules made by human beings (by a group of people).

Virtues and Values

Is there any difference between virtues and values? Generally speaking, virtues are character traits that are good, and as such, they are subjective in essence. Values are different kinds of objects that can be both subjective and objective. Values and virtues are inter-related qualities. By nature, values can be intrinsic and instrumental. Virtues have different connotations in different contexts.

During Aristotle's time, pride was a virtue in the Greek society and humility was a vice; but the situation is quite the opposite among the Christians. Virtue, in the context of wisdom, relates to intellectual values; in benevolence, to social values; in the context of the economy, to economic values; and so on. Thus, the habitual pursuit of different types of values in your life can help you to develop different types of virtues. Virtues and values are interrelated categories, and one may influence the other in many ways. It is interesting to note that at some stages, and for some situations, some virtues and values do have a common ground. That is to say, some virtues such as simplicity, honesty, integrity, kindness and love and so on can be regarded both as virtues and values.

Criticisms Against Virtue Ethics

- ◎ Virtues are not enough for enhancing social welfare, which depends on some right overt action. Virtues are covert qualities. Unless virtues are translated into action, there is no social welfare or even personal improvement or gratification.
- ◎ At times, it becomes very difficult to distinguish between virtues and values, and to that extent, virtue ethics loses its importance as a separate branch of ethics.
- ◎ At some places and in some cases, virtues may be looked upon as vice. For instance, in Aristotle's Greece, humility is a vice but to Christians, it is a virtue. There is no clear-cut classification of unique virtues.

- ◎ A man may possess some virtues, yet he may be a bad man. For instance, a man may possess courage, prudence, justice and temperance (the four classic virtues) and yet he may be angry, cruel, nasty and revengeful.
- ◎ Virtue ethics fail to address the dilemmas that arise in applied ethics. For instance, in the case of abortion or something similar, virtue ethics does not give any direction.

S U M M A R Y

This chapter has touched upon the interrelation between beliefs, values, attitudes and virtues. If these elements are favourable in a person, it is easier for that person to be moral or ethical. The value system enters into the life blood of a person through the subconscious mind and the whole attitude formation becomes rather permanent. Attitudes die hard and they take time to change once they are entrenched into the human psyche. Spirituality and virtue strengthen the process of ethicalization.

In the journey to ethical life, belief plays a major role. True knowledge is helpful for your understanding and belief. Beliefs can exist even without perception and experience. Your common-sense understanding may or may not contribute to your beliefs. Beliefs can be formed in many ways, including existential, commendatory, vicarious or self experience.

Value is anything that is dear to you or has some utility. Moral value is a highly prized good. Values are essential for a person to give direction and motivation. There are many types of values, for example, terminal values, instrumental values, social, political or economic values and so forth. There are many sources of values, including family, friends, peer groups, institutions, the environment and so on. A business organization depends on certain cherished values. However, at the personal and professional levels, there are many possibilities for conflict of values.

Your attitudes are generally based on your value system. But there are indeed many similarities and differences between values and attitudes. Attitudes have many components, including behavioural, affective and cognitive.

Attitude is a combination of rationality, emotion, thoughts and actions.

All theories of ethics are action-based. However, it needs to be understood that it is not so much the action but the character of the person performing the action that remains more important. Virtue emphasizes the right kind of action and character. Virtue ethics is a special genre of ethics. Virtue is an acquired mental disposition, which is praiseworthy, because it enables a person to achieve the good that human beings endeavour. To Aristotle, it is the golden mean, that is, the moderation of two extreme values. Virtue consists in that type of habit, which enables a person to live peacefully and reasonably in this world and thereafter. It can be acquired by controlling instinct, desire, greed and illusions. Virtue is a relative concept but in all societies, certain human qualities such as benevolence, temperance, courage and self-discipline are considered great virtues. Virtues and values are interrelated categories and one may influence the other in many ways.

K E Y T E R M S

- | | | | | |
|-----------------------|---------------|-----------------------|----------------------|----------|
| • Beliefs | • Role models | • Conflicts of values | • Values | • Family |
| • Values and business | • Attitudes | • Epistemology | • Varnashrama dharma | |

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- Virtue • Ethos • Plato's cardinal virtues • ABC components of attitudes
- Ten Commandments • Aristotle's theory of the • Golden Mean

T E S T Y O U R K N O W L E D G E

1. What is attitude? What are the sources of attitudes? Why does our attitude change?
2. What are values? What are the major sources of values? Why does our value change?
3. Explain the basic similarities and differences between values and attitudes?
4. What is the importance of values in our lives?
5. What values should a business organization be concerned with?
6. Write an essay on virtue ethics.
7. Elaborate on some ethical dilemmas arising out of conflict of values by giving suitable examples.

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Chapter Four

Positive Thinking and Attitude

B.N. Ghosh and Sule Aker

“*Everyday may not be good, but there is something good in everyday.*”
“*Those who wish to sing always find a song.*”

— ?

William James once said: “The greatest discovery of my generation is that human being can change his life by changing the attitude of mind.” For many people, it is indeed so. Norman Vincent Peale, the writer of a very powerful book on positive thinking, *The Power of Positive Thinking*, in the early 1950s, was a shy, introvert and below-average performer as a student in school. He had been suffering from inferiority complex, and always thought that he would not be a successful person in life. Then he became a pastor and used to pray. He gradually started believing in the enormous power of the human mind and soul. He belonged to a family of pastors and strong believers in God. From his deep acquaintance with the miracles of strong faith, he overcame his weaknesses, negative thoughts and witnessed the power of positive thinking. His wonderful book is the outcome of his experiences in life and about the innumerable events and happenings around him. He asserts that one should have strong faith, strong beliefs and proper action to achieve a particular goal. But the most important ingredient in the recipe is positive thinking and attitude.



POSITIVE THINKING

Positive thinking (PT) is related to optimism and negative thinking is related to pessimism. Who is an optimist and who is a pessimist? Here is a simple test. Suppose that there is a glass of water that is half-filled. An optimist would consider it as a glass that is half-filled with water, but to a pessimist, it would be a glass that is half empty. The difference between these two types of personalities is the difference in mental attitude. An optimist sees the brighter side but a pessimist considers the gloomy aspect of a situation or a scenario. It is said that “a pessimist sees the difficulty in every opportunity, whereas an optimist sees the opportunity in every difficulty.” It is instructive to note that PT is not

Norman Vincent Peale (1952) defines positive thinking as a positive mental attitude that firmly believes that things will soon be better and with that belief, one can overcome any type of difficulty in his favour.

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just the absence of negative thinking but it is something beyond that. PT is the enculturation of a system of belief more or less in a permanent manner so that no negative thought enters the mind (Murphy, 1955). It is embedded in the mental make-up and function of the human mind.

Theory of Propositional Control

Whatever events take place in our lives, we respond to that event by talking to ourselves about that event. This is called the *theory of propositional control* by psychologists. What we tell ourselves even subconsciously will determine the way we feel about the issue (Hughes, 2009, p.114). The question is why do people feel a particular way about an event or thing? This is because our feelings are mainly the direct consequences of our thinking process. When something bad happens to you and you ask yourself, "Why has this bad thing happened to me?" and think that its consequences will be very bad for you, you are likely to feel bad, sad and depressed. But if you respond to that bad situation by saying that God loves me and He will never allow anything bad to happen to me, unless this apparently bad thing has a good and loving purpose, you rationalize the whole situation with a positive attitude and thinking. It is the mind that makes hell of heaven and heaven of hell. Your thoughts, propositions and strong beliefs control and direct all your events to come (Seligman, 2002).

Benefits of Positive Thinking and Attitudes

The following are the major benefits of positive thinking and attitude:

- ◎ Because positive thinking (PT) develops a strong attitude towards achieving a desired goal, **it gives stability of mind, mental peace and equanimity**.
- ◎ **PT ends all speculative ramblings of the mind** about the many possible alternative outcomes, which are confusing to a person. For instance, if you are very sure that you will be selected for the job that you have applied for, you have nothing to speculate about or think about the many alternative things that might be possible. In such a case, you save yourself from the negative thoughts that may adversely affect your psyche.
- ◎ **PT generates a sense of surety, certainty and confidence**. This is immensely valuable for personality development. There is no **fretting and fuming**, only a sublime sense of something deeply interfused.
- ◎ **PT helps to generate self-belief and self-esteem, and is helpful in developing strong will power**. This will power acts like a miracle in many cases. It is believed that strong will power and auto-suggestions are extremely effective in curing serious diseases through the secretion of antibodies.
- ◎ **A person with positive thinking and attitude is likely to be more healthy, calm and composed and is able to prevent many types of stress-related problems**. Therefore, that person is likely to remain free from many ailments such as hypertension and serum glucose fluctuations.
- ◎ **PT has been empirically found to be associated with strong and stable relationships with family members, with working colleagues and outsiders**. Because a person with PT knows the real purpose of life, that person discovers the real meaning in every relationship and holds onto it in a permanent way. This makes life more enjoyable, exciting and meaningful.

- **PT helps you to move forward with your plans and programs without any fear of failure or frustration.**
- **PT has been found to be associated with greater creativity, purposeful design of life and a stable and organized professional career.** Because PT gives guidance and direction, it becomes easier for a person to find the trajectory for moving forward successfully.
- Dr. Irving Oyle was quoted as saying that people could live to be 150 years old if they just practised a combination of right thinking and prayer (see Peale, 1991, p.87). **Positive, beautiful thoughts trigger the release of beneficial hormones in the body, and these in turn, help the body to heal itself.**
- **One of the most important advantages of PT is the motivation that it generates in the human mind.** If your attitude is positive, you can presume the genuine outcome of your work and endeavour. When Swami Vivekananda said, “No honest labour can go unrewarded,” he was referring to the positive attitude related to work efforts. If you are sure of the possible reward, you get a positive motivation to work.

Positive Attitude and the Religious Scriptures

The study of positive mental attitude (PMA) and its importance is a development that became particularly important in the latter part of the twentieth century. However, the importance of PMA was recognized much earlier. Religious scriptures and discourses have often placed greater emphasis on positive thinking and attitudes. For instance, according to the Dalai Lama, a renowned Buddhist monk, everybody can be a Buddha if all negative emotions can be eliminated. Thus, indirectly, he speaks about the importance of positive thinking. Negative emotions arise from the misconception of reality. Peace, happiness and compassion are everything in life and these are consistent with positive thinking (Meyer, 1965). The world, as the Dalai Lama observes, is going towards more positive values; at least, it recognizes the importance of positive values by emphasizing environmental integrity, human rights, right to self-determination and so on.

The Bible is full of the importance of positive thinking, attitudes and values. A few examples will make our statement clear. The Bible declares that never harbour the negative thoughts; otherwise, the negative things will happen:

“Thou Art snared with the words of thy mouth.” Proverb 6:2

“If you have faith, nothing shall be impossible unto you.” Matthew 17:20

“It is undoubtedly better to be positive, rather than negative.” Romans 5:2

What is found to be decisive in the Bible is the strong faith in God’s words and scriptures.

This is evident from the following verses:

“According to your faith, will it be done to you.” (Matthew, 9:29)

“Therefore, I tell you, whatever you ask for in prayer, believe that you have received it, and it will be yours.” Mark 11:24

Needless to emphasize, without faith, there cannot be any true positive attitude and thinking.

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"Have faith in God." Whoever tells this hill to get up and throw itself in the sea and does not doubt in his heart, but believes that what he says will happen, it will be done for him"(Mark,11:22-24).

The significance of faith is emphasized in the new faith movement that started in the middle of the last century.

"In fact, if we can renew our minds or change our attitudes, we can change our actions and the course of our lives." (Romans 12: 1-2)

Like the Bible, the Bhagavad Gita, one of the most revered Hindu epics, emphasises positive attitude.

The central theme of the Gita is performance of the right kind of duty without any desire for its material fruits. It says:

Karmanyे vadhikaraste, Maa faleshu kadachana

(Your duty is to work and not to be desirous of its result or outcome.)

—Bhagavada Gita, II: 47

All rewards for the right human actions are given by God who loves His children and never gives anything bad to them. God is everything—the way, the supporter, the giver, the friend...the resting place (Bhagavada Gita, 9:18). The same is the assertion of Lord Jesus when he says:

I am the way, I am the truth, I am the life; no one goes to the father except by me —John 1V: 6

Thus, by implication, your attitude should not be negative but always positive and you should surrender to God and follow His will. The Lord protects your assets, rights and removes all your sins and gives liberation from the pain of endless cycles of births and deaths; He gives inner peace and bliss (Srinivasan, 2006, p. 20).

A few verses of Chapter three of the *Gita* quoted as under eulogizes positive human attitude.

The *Gita* says:

"Oh, Dhanajaya, any action performed with the expectation of reward is inferior. The one engaged in such an action deserves to be pitied and the selfless action performed, a positive mental attitude is the greatest."

(BG, II: 49)

"The one with a positive state of mind does not partake the fruits of actions, whether good or bad. It is necessary to keep the mind steady while

performing an action. This ability is called yoga which is nothing but excellence in work.

(BG, II:50)

The immediate benefit of positive attitude is described in the following verse:

"The learned people with a positive attitude of mind discard the fruits of their actions, and therefore become free from the bondage of life and attain moksha without pain." (BG, II: 51)

From what has been adumbrated above, it becomes clear that religious scriptures are in favour of positive attitude and thinking in all human actions.



HOW TO DEVELOP POSITIVE ATTITUDE AND THINKING?

The development of positive attitude (PA) requires constant and consistent practice and endeavour. The following tips are helpful for developing positive attitude:

- ◎ **If you work with determination, it is not difficult to develop PA.** The determination will come if you set goals in life to achieve something. Thus goal-setting seems to be a prerequisite for developing PA.
- ◎ **It is necessary to concentrate on strong personal factors and put more stress on those factors while minimizing the role of other factors.** In this context, a SWOT analysis is perhaps helpful. SWOT stands for strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats. In order to develop PA, you should play up your strengths and opportunities and play down the role of weaknesses and threats. A strong PA can, in many cases, overcome weaknesses and reduce threats. From the experiences of many great and successful people, you can learn that with strong positive attitudes, weaknesses can be completely conquered. Thus, many people who were shy at the beginning of their lives could become renowned orators in later years.
- ◎ **It is necessary to have strong faith.** There are two connotations of faith here. First, you must have faith in yourself and second, it is imperative to have faith in God or some natural or supernatural power (if you do not believe in God). Nothing is more faith-strengthening than to pray and have that prayer answered (Peale, 1991, p.139). However, it should be noted that weak faith is not of much use in the development of PA; so you should develop strong faith by hearing, through experience and practice. Peter had faith but when Jesus asked him to come to him by walking on water, he tried but was about to sink when Jesus exclaimed, “Ye the man of weak faith.” Simple faith is shaky and is not enough; therefore, you must develop very strong faith.
- ◎ **Many experts, including Peale, advise people to use the technique of imaging (use of imagination) for developing PA.** This imaging consists of imagining the picture that you want and then visualizing that you have it. The next is prayer and actualization of the situation wanted by you. The same advice is given in the *Bible*: pray for anything and visualize that you have got it; then really it will be yours (Mark, 11:24). As you see yourself, so you are.
- ◎ **To develop positive attitude, banish your doubts, negative thinking and imaginary fear.** All these stand in the way of development of PA. Your faith must be like the faith of a child. Sri Ramakrishna Paramahansa has also said that in order to realize God, you must be a child. A child has unflinching faith and belief.
- ◎ **Experiential studies show that better results can be obtained by completely surrendering oneself to God** and thinking that God loves me and He is my creator and sustainer; so, whatever He does will be best for me. This is indeed the logic behind the belief that something good (or better) will happen. The *Gita* advises us to perform faithfully our assigned duties in a perfect way and that the reward will be given by God. So, there is nothing to fear and everything to be encouraged.
- ◎ **For the development of positive thinking, the mind must be completely disciplined, kept under control and made free from temptation.** It is indeed very difficult to control the mind, but, as the *Gita* says, with constant practice and by surrendering oneself and the results of all actions to God, it is possible to develop positive thoughts and attitudes.
- ◎ **In the development of positive attitude, family and friends can be of immense use.** Spiritual and religious family culture indeed provides the grounding for PA. It is imperative to choose a group of friends and colleagues who also believe in PA. Cross-fertilization of ideas of PA strengthens the PA and faith. It is damaging to mix with bad people and people with negative

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attitudes. Non-believers, in many cases, may not be able to develop PA in a consistent and systematic way.

- ◎ **Study of religious scriptures, cases of miracles and true stories of supernatural healings (power) are all very encouraging to develop PA.** Way back in 2006, the first author of this chapter himself experienced the miracle of a supernatural healing touch by Pastor Chris in Johannesburg, South Africa, which completely cured his two very serious and chronic diseases. Since then, his faith in supernatural healing and the power of Jesus has become very strong and entrenched in him. Ordinarily, it is said that **to see is to believe**. I saw and I believed. Christianity also tells us that **to believe is to see**. That is, if you strongly believe (faith), you will see and realize it. The bottom line is that without faith, nothing can be actualized. So PA is the precursor of all types of positive thoughts and attitudes.
- ◎ **Make positive thinking a habit. It is necessary to develop confidence and commitment.** Sometimes, it may so happen that in spite of positive thinking, undesirable things happen. This should not be a permanent deterrent to developing PA and positive thinking. Many things that appear in our physical body are the results of mind over matter (Burns, 1992). More diseases are created by the imaginary mind than what the real ailment is. This type of imaginary thinking about possible diseases is called hypochondria.



HOW TO DRIVE OUT NEGATIVE THINKING AND ATTITUDE?

All the points discussed earlier for developing positive attitude are also the points that can help the elimination of negative attitude (NA). However, in this section, some general guidance can be considered as follows:

- ◎ **Constantly preach and practice the idea that “if you think negative, you will get negative.”** The idea should permeate your entire psyche and existential thinking. In this context, emulate the examples of others that you know.
- ◎ **There is close interaction between negative thinking and different types of worries.**
- ◎ **In order to eliminate worries, apply your reasons for winning over the situation, emphasise your strong points and leave the whole problem to God when you cannot do anything to find an effective remedy.** It is not the worry that will help you but the action that you can take to bring the situation in your favour. When you know and undertake appropriate action, the worries will pass, so also the negative thoughts. Be action-oriented and not worries-oriented.
- ◎ **Make a situational analysis of every case you are enmeshed in and you will find that many things that appear negative can really be positive.** The issue is how you explain the whole situation. Once I thought that I was over age for the post for which I had applied, although I was perhaps the best qualified person. The age factor was pinching me all the time. However, I rationalized the situation by thinking that I could still be splendidly useful for the institute. On the final day, the authorities called me and said, “We are very fortunate to have a well-experienced and overseas qualified man like you with lots of publications and so, to befit your age and experience, we appoint you as the Director of the Institute.” The bottom line is: **Interpret your negative points as positive endowment.**

- ◎ **Think that in many ways, you are the best.** Play down your inferiority complex, if any, your very ordinary and unassuming personality and so on, which are generating negative feelings in you for a particular job. Remember that biological diversity is the law of nature and that you are a unique creation of God. When you realize the truth that it is your overall personality, knowledge and experience that matter more than your physical personality, you will immediately overcome your negative feelings. You want to be a leader but you are very short in stature. Think of Napoleon, Mahatma Gandhi on and on, and your negative attitude will be eliminated.
- ◎ **Train your mind.** It is the mind that makes heaven of hell and hell of heaven. Practice positive thinking and the negative thoughts will wither away. Try to replace negative thoughts with positive attitudes.
- ◎ To ward off negative thoughts from your mind, try some yoga and meditation to concentrate on positive thoughts.
- ◎ When the mind is preoccupied with negative thoughts, read some books that encourage positive thinking and attitude, pray to God and have complete faith in Him.

In order to reduce or completely banish negative thinking, you need to develop a personality pattern that does not accommodate such a type of thinking. It is imperative to remain free from many negative personality traits such as feeling guilty, having doubts and suspicions, and harbouring hate, enmity, anger, selfishness and non-forgiving attitudes. It is instructive to note that **negative attitude of the mind and some negative personality traits are highly correlated.** People who are narrow-minded, crime-prone, greedy and not fully accomplished, do

often suffer from inferiority complex and easily develop a negative attitude towards life and society. Development of a proper self-image on the basis of personal achievements and accomplishments is immensely necessary to banish all negative thoughts and attitudes. A balanced mind with equanimity and tranquillity is essential to acquire true wisdom, and once it is obtained, negative thinking does not preoccupy any person. Such a person will have no fear, attachment, anger or unhappiness.

A person who is not perturbed by unhappiness and does not desire anything when happy, and has freed himself from attachment, fear and anger, he is indeed a sage of true wisdom.

SUMMARY

Positive thinking is a positive mental attitude that firmly believes that things will soon be better. With that belief, you can overcome any type of difficulty in your favour. Positive thinking (PT) is related to optimism and negative thinking is related to pessimism. It is said that “a pessimist sees the difficulty in every opportunity, whereas an optimist sees the opportunity in every difficulty.” It is instructive to note that PT is not just the absence of negative thinking, it is something beyond that. PT is the enculturation of a system of belief more or less in a permanent manner so that no negative thought enters the mind. It is embedded in the mental make-up and function of the human mind. Whatever events take place in our lives, we respond to that event by talking to ourselves about that event. This is called the *theory of propositional control* by psychologists. What we tell ourselves even subconsciously will determine the way we feel about the issue.

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PT has many benefits. It keeps a person calm, cool and composed and generates many creative motivations and is the basic cause of good health. If you have positive thinking, you will have the supply of a beneficial hormone that will keep you inspired, motivated and healthy. You will be able to enjoy good family relationship, peace of mind and creativity.

The study of positive mental attitude (PMA) and its importance is a development that became particularly important in the latter part of the twentieth century. However, the importance of PMA was recognized much earlier. Religious scriptures and discourses often place greater emphasis on positive thinking and attitudes. For instance, according to the Dalai Lama, a renowned Buddhist monk, everybody can be a Buddha if all negative emotions can be eliminated.

The development of positive attitude (PA) requires constant and consistent practice and endeavour. It is necessary to eliminate all negative thinking in order to develop positive thinking.

If one works with determination, it is not difficult to develop PA. It is necessary to concentrate on the strong personal factors and put more stress on those factors while minimizing the role of other factors. It is essential to have strong faith. Many experts, including Peale, advise people to use the technique of imaging (use of imagination) for developing PA. This imaging consists of imaging the picture that you want, and then visualizing that you have it. The next is prayer and actualization of the situation you want. The same advice is given in the *Bible*: pray for anything and visualize that you have got it; then really it will be yours. As you see yourself, so you are.

For the development of positive thinking, the mind must be completely disciplined, kept under control and made free from temptation. It is indeed very difficult to control the mind, but, as the *Gita* says, with constant practice and by surrendering oneself and the results of all actions to God, it is possible to develop positive thoughts and attitudes.

In the development of positive attitude, family and friends can be of immense use. Study of religious scriptures, cases of miracles and true stories of supernatural healings (power) are all very encouraging to develop PA. Make positive thinking a habit. It is necessary to develop confidence and commitment. Sometimes, it may so happen that in spite of positive thinking, undesirable things happen. This should not be a permanent deterrent to developing PA and thinking. Many things that appear in our physical body are the results of mind over matter. More diseases are created by the imaginary mind (hypochondria) than what the real ailment is.

KEY TERMS

- Positive thinking
- Will power
- Negative thinking
- Theory of propositional control
- Auto suggestions
- Technique of imaging

TEST YOUR KNOWLEDGE

1. What is positive attitude? How can one develop such an attitude?
2. Do religious scriptures support positive attitude? Explain with examples.
3. Explain fully the technique of imaging and its advantages.
4. How will you resolve a situation in which positive and negative attitudes clash?

5. What is negative thinking? What are its disadvantages? Explain with examples.
6. How will you drive negative thinking out from your mind?

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Chapter Five

Motivation

M. Hossein Motaghi Pisheh

“Management is nothing more than motivating other people.”

—Lee Iacocca

“A manager’s task is to make the strengths of people effective and their weakness irrelevant—and that applies fully as much to the manager’s boss as it applies to the manager’s subordinates.”

—Peter Drucker

Motivation has its historical roots in an organization. It is one of the most challenging aspects in a managerial job. As organizations continue to downsize and reorganize, the strategic responsibility of managers, including motivation of their work force, becomes more intense. Without a motivated work force, the efficiency, effectiveness and productivity of organizations suffer. To stay competitive, organizations must capitalize on motivating their work force as one of the resource strengths.

Therefore, motivation is one of the pivotal points of a micro-approach to resource strengths. Of course, as an important psychological construct to understanding and building on resource strengths, motivation is not the only element in understanding work force behaviour. In conjunction with several other factors, motivation interacts with mediating factors and the environment to determine organizational behaviour. Understanding motivation allows you to identify the basic concern of individuals for behaving in a certain way. This chapter clarifies the meaning of motivation as a psychological construct and emphasizes the content and process theories of motivation.



MEANING OF MOTIVATION

The main concern for managers is to get things done using other people. They are persistently in search of ways to improve the performance of their employees, and to raise efficiency and productivity. Thus, they must understand how to motivate their work force.

Motivation is a key concept in all dynamic theories of personality. It is a complex and sweeping concept in organizational behaviour. Motivation can be traced to the Latin root word *movere*, which means “to move” (Luthans, 2008). It energizes and gives direction to behaviour (Ferguson, 2003).

As a general rule, motivation can be expressed as the direction, intensity and continuation of behaviour. It is related to the “why” of actions. Motivation is concerned with selection from different possible purposes or goals and includes possible variation in terms of the level of effort set forth to accomplish the objective.

The main concern of motivation is why people prefer to act in a particular way in favour of others and why they continue to act as such despite encountering problems and difficulties (Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachey, 1962).

Motivation is an inner driving force, which compels individuals in a specific direction to achieve some goal and to fulfil some need. Motivation is something within the individual. Motivation is, therefore, not behaviour; it is rather a driving force within an individual. This inner force arouses and sustains action and points to the general direction of behaviour. It is the mainspring or gyroscope of behaviour. It can only be inferred from the behaviour or simply assumed to exist in order to explain the behaviour.

Motivation, therefore, is a state of cognitive arousal that results in a conscious decision to act, with a sustained intellectual and/or physical effort to achieve a previously set goal (William and Burden, 1997: 120). "It is the process of arousing, directing and maintaining behaviour toward a goal" (Greenberg, 2010: 162). In general, it can be considered that motivation stimulates, directs, and sustains behaviour. This definition implies that motivation has three distinctive components, which are arousing, directing and maintaining. Arousing is related to energy and drive, which originate from within the individual. It is an internal tension that the individual tries to reduce. For doing so, it is directed toward a goal (a choice of behaviour). This behaviour is sustained and does not stop until the goal is achieved. In other words, constancy and persistence is necessary to maintain motivation.



NEEDS AND MOTIVATION

In essence, the cornerstone of motivation as a process is motive. Motive is an internal drive that arouses, directs and integrates a person's behaviour. The basic motives of human behaviour are needs. Needs are also called motives because they move or motivate human beings to act (Drafke, 2009).

A need can be defined as an internal state of disequilibrium, which causes individuals to pursue certain courses of action in an effort to regain internal equilibrium (Steers and Porter, 1979: 22).

Needs are deficiencies that people experience at some point in time. These deficiencies (physiological, psychological and sociological) arouse and motivate behaviour to satisfy them (Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly, 1985: 100). When an individual's energy is triggered to satisfy a need, it becomes a drive, thus, needs are considered energizers of behavioural reactions (Ivancevich, Konopaske and Matteson, 2008) and are followed by drives. Drives initiate behaviour to satisfy the need.

Consequently, one's behaviour is motivated by certain needs and drives, which may be biological (for example, the primary needs of hunger, thirst and so on), psychological (for example, need for self-esteem or need for achievement) or sociological (for example, need for social interaction).

The construct of needs, drives and motivation have been integrated into theories to enlighten the roots of human behaviour. The implication is that when needs are present, an individual is more susceptible to a manager's motivational efforts (Ivancevich, Konopaske and Matteson, 2008, 111).



WORK-MOTIVATION APPROACHES

Obviously, different theories have attempted to define and explain the construct of motivation from different points of view. The complexity of this phenomenon has also caused it to be approached from

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different perspectives. Some attempted to explain it based on human needs and their relative strengths, whereas others tried to focus on the ‘how’ of motivation. Therefore, one must be aware of the major approaches to work motivation when deciding to apply the most effective one in a work situation.

It has been stated that the usual approach to the study of motivation is through an understanding of the internal cognitive process—that is, what people feel and how they think (Mullins, 2007, p. 256). Based on this, the theories of motivation can be classified as either content-based or process-based.



CONTENT THEORIES

The main focus of the content theories is factors that are internal to an individual. By this, these theories explain why people are motivated in different ways and by different work settings. According to Martin (2005, p. 433), “content theories emphasize particular aspects of an individual’s needs or the goals that they seek to achieve as the basis for motivated behaviour.” The most common example in this group of theories is the needs-based theories. Some of the major needs-based theories include: Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, Alderfer’s (ERG) modified need hierarchy model, Herzberg’s two factor theory and McClelland’s achievement theory.



MASLOW’S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS

American psychologist, Maslow, was one of the best-known contributors to the field of motivational research. He proposed the idea that a hierarchy of needs could explain purposeful behaviour (Maslow, 1987). The core of Maslow’s theory is that needs are positioned in a hierarchy (Maslow and Kaplan, 1998). Although some research has challenged the assumptions, essentially, he assumed that after a given level of need is satisfied, it no longer serves to motivate. The next higher level of need has to be triggered in order to motivate the individual (Luthans, 2008, p. 169). Maslow identified five levels of needs in a hierarchy, which may be shown as a series of steps but is usually displayed in the form of a pyramid (Mullins, 2007).

1. Physiological needs are at the first level in the hierarchy (such as thirst and hunger).
2. Security needs are at the next level (such as shelter and protection).
3. Social needs are at the third level (such as satisfactory and supportive relationships).
4. Self-esteem needs, which sometimes are referred to as ego needs, are at the next level (recognition and belief in oneself).
5. Self-actualization is the last step as the sequence progresses to the need of fulfilling oneself to realize one’s full potential. Only a small group of people achieves this level.

Maslow’s *needs hierarchy* is depicted in Figure 5.1.

However, Maslow did not suggest that his needs hierarchy be directly applied to work motivation. In fact, he did not explore the concept of motivating humans in organizations (Luthans, 2008), it was later tested in research with the working population (Quick and Nelson, 2009) and subsequently, work situation is where it received most exposure. Several investigations have endeavoured to test the need hierarchy theory. For example, the first study that tested a modified version of Maslow’s need hierarchy

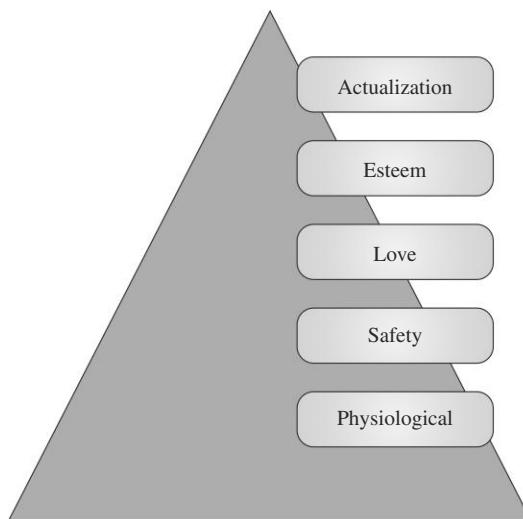


Fig. 5.1 Maslow's needs hierarchy

was carried out by Porter (1961). Porter believed that physiological needs were being adequately satisfied for managers, so he substituted a higher-order need called autonomy, defined as a person's satisfaction with the opportunities to make independent decisions, set goals and work without close supervision (Ivancevich, et al., 2008, p. 115).

However, Maslow's theory of human motivation has been very prominent for years in prioritizing elements of motivation for managers in their attempts to motivate employees. This approach has encouraged managers to examine motivation from the employee point of view and to search for their perception of the situation (Martin, 2005).



ALDERFER'S ERG THEORY

An extension of Maslow's need hierarchy is the work of Clayton Alderfer. He modified the need hierarchy model, but like Maslow, realized that there is a hierarchy of needs, which differentiates lower-order needs from higher-order needs. Alderfer integrated Maslow's five levels of needs into three levels based on the crux needs of existence, relatedness and growth (ERG) (Alderfer, 1972).

The *existence needs* are concerned with the survival and existence of human beings and cover physiological well-being. The *relatedness needs* include the social environment of human beings and are concerned with interpersonal and social relationships. The *growth needs* are related to the individual's potential for personal development (Luthans, 2008). Like Maslow, Alderfer implies that individual progress through the hierarchy from existence needs to relatedness needs to growth needs as the lower-level needs are gratified (Mullins, 2007).

Alderfer's three needs (ERG) are consistent with Maslow's in that the existence needs are comparable to Maslow's physiological and safety group, the relatedness needs are similar to the belongingness, social and love category, and the growth needs correspond to the esteem and self-actualization categories

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(Ivancevich, et al., 2008). Of course, it should be taken into consideration that the ERG theory suggests more of a continuum of needs than the hierarchical levels of needs.

In other words, Alderfer's research does not postulate that an individual climbs the hierarchy of needs in an order of progression, instead, all three levels might be significant at any given time (Drafke, 2009). He does not argue that a lower-level need ought to be fulfilled before a higher-level need becomes active or that deprivation is the only way to activate a need (Luthans, 2008, p. 174). However, when a need is satisfied, the individual progresses to a different level of needs as Maslow proposed and called it the satisfaction-progression process.

Actually, Alderfer contends that there may be multiple needs functioning at the same time, but if the individual is not able to satisfy a need, he or she may regress down the hierarchy as a result of the frustration-regression mechanism (Martin, 2005). That is, if an individual is constantly frustrated while trying to fulfil the relatedness needs, the growth needs resurface as a major motivating force, causing the individual to return to satisfying a lower-order need.

Although the ERG theory has not been applied to work motivation actively, it is less restrictive and limiting, and has become popular because of its consistency with the other theories of rational choice and individual freedom of choice (Ivancevich, et al., 2008).



HERZBERG'S TWO-FACTOR THEORY

Frederic Herzberg is a well-known management theorist, who came up with a model of motivation. Believing that an individual's relationship to work is basic and that his or her attitude towards work can very well determine his or her success or failure, Herzberg investigated the question "What do people want from their jobs" (Robbins and Judge, 2011, p. 241).

This model is best known as two-factor theory or the "motivation maintenance model" (Herzberg, 1966). Herzberg's original study involved interviewing 203 accountants and engineers in firms around Pittsburgh in the United States of America (Herzberg, 1974). He used the *critical incidents* approach to obtain data for analysis. The subjects were asked two questions: a) What made them feel exceptionally good about their jobs and b) What had made them feel particularly bad about their jobs (Martin, 2005). The answers were appealing and fairly consistent based on which Herzberg indicated that two sets of conditions influenced the behaviour of people in organizations. This research led to a content theory or a model of motivation that is known as the two-factor theory or the "motivation maintenance model" (Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman, 1959).

Based on these reported good and bad feelings, Herzberg suggested that job satisfiers are related to job content and job dissatisfiers are associated with job context. He considered the satisfiers motivators and dissatisfiers hygiene factors (Luthans, 2008). In fact, he believed in the dual nature of human beings in relation to the work environment. Therefore, the motivation factors related to job satisfaction were associated with the desire for psychological growth and the hygiene factors related to job dissatisfaction were associated with the avoidance of pain (Quick and Nelson, 2009).

Herzberg believed that when job satisfiers are present in the job, they provide a strong level of motivation, which may culminate in good job performance (Ivancevich, 2008). These satisfiers or motivators include recognition, advancement, achievement, responsibility, the possibility of growth and

the work itself (Luthans, 2008, p. 172). However, dissatisfiers or the hygiene factors are needed to maintain at least a level of “no dissatisfaction.” They include salary, working condition, status, company procedures, quality of technical supervision, job security, and quality of interpersonal relations among peers, superiors and subordinates (Ivancevich, et al., 2008, p. 116).

Although, Herzberg’s two-factor theory oversimplifies the complexity of work motivation, one interesting aspect of it is the work-oriented terminology. However, this theory is a source of frequent debate and has been criticized. Some studies’ findings supported the theory. These studies used the same research methodology. But some studies did not provide support for this theory, which, of course, used different research methodology (Martin, 2005). It is suggested that the *critical incident* method and the description of events, which were related to good or bad feelings, affected the results of Herzberg’s research (Mullins, 2007). When researchers deviated from this method, they did not get the same two factors as Herzberg’s two factors.

Furthermore, individual differences were absent in the research, which culminated in the two-factor theory. Specifically, individual differences, such as age, gender, education, organizational level and status, may affect the classification of factors (Quick and Nelson, 2009). Finally, in an organizational context, the application of this theory is restricted to unskilled and manual workers. Whereas, the original research subjects were accountants and engineers. It is often claimed that manual work force adopts an instrumental approach, concentrating on pay and security rather than the intrinsic aspect of the work (Martin, 2005, p. 443).

Despite obvious limitations, Herzberg at least attempted an empirical approach to the study of motivation at work (Luthans, 2008). In addition, the impact of theory on practitioners should not be underestimated. The job design technique of job enrichment emerged from Herzberg’s work. It has important implications for the design of jobs. Herzberg’s recommendations were used to develop the job characteristics model by adding motivators to a job and minimizing the dissatisfiers or hygiene factors (Slocum and Hellriegel, 2009).



MCCELLAND'S ACQUIRED NEEDS THEORY

McClelland (1961) developed a different set of needs as the basis of motivation. He believed that many needs are acquired by the individual through culture (McClelland, and Burnham, 2003). The McClelland (1988) idea was developed from an investigation into the relationships between hunger needs and the extent to which the imagery of food had a prevailing influence on thought processes. Based on this, he identified three particularly important learned or acquired needs, called manifest needs. These were the needs for achievement, for power and for affiliation. McClelland suggested that these needs are present in all people to some extent even though there is a propensity for only one of them to be overriding at any point in time. Thus, different needs have different levels of intensity in different people (Quick and Nelson, 2009, p. 158).

Need for Achievement

Issues of excellence, persistence, competition, challenging goals and overcoming difficulties are in the domain of the need for achievement (McClelland, 1965). McClelland found that people with a high need

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for achievement seek excellence in performance and are competitive at work, whereas, those with a moderate or low need for achievement are passive and act with mediocrity (Quick and Nelson, 2009).

It is interesting to note that McClelland (as cited in Ivancevich, et al., 2008), over years of empirical research, identified a descriptive set of factors, which are associated with the strong need for achievement. These are:

1. The person prefers moderate task difficulty.
2. The person prefers to take personal responsibility for solving problems.
3. The person desires clear and unambiguous feedback on how well he or she performs.

McClelland's research (1962) proposed that achievement needs are not hereditary. They result from environmental conditions, therefore, it is possible to train individuals to develop achievement needs.

The need for achievement is defined as the behaviour towards competition with a standard of excellence (Slocum and Hellriegel, 2009).

Need for Affiliation

The need for affiliation is associated with creating and sustaining warm, close and intimate relationships with others (Schachter, 1959). Those who have a high need for affiliation have a tendency to express their emotions and feelings to others, and in return, expect others to do the same. These individuals desire to have a close, personal and intimate relationship with others (Quick and Nelson, 2009). Therefore, it can be envisaged that in work settings, priority is given to social relationships rather than task accomplishment by individuals with a high need for affiliation.

The need for affiliation is defined as the longing to be liked and to stay on good terms with other people (Slocum and Hellriegel, 2009).

Need for Power

The need for power is associated with concentration on obtaining and exercising power and authority. It "is concerned with the desire to make an impact on others, influence others, change people or events, and make a difference in life" (Quick and Nelson, 2009, p. 159). Thus, it is defined as a desire to influence people and events. McClelland suggested that there are two different kinds of power: a) Power that is directed towards the organization (institutional power) and b) Power that is directed toward the self (personal power) (Slocum and Hellriegel, 2009).

The most important premise in McClelland's theory is that these needs are learned through acculturation of an individual. Therefore, reinforcement of the learned behaviour causes it to occur at a higher rate of recurrence. Supervisors whose achievement behaviour is rewarded learn to take moderate risks to ensure accomplishment of goals. Correspondingly, a high need for affiliation or power can be traced back to a history of rewards for behaviour that is related to these needs (Ivancevich, et al., 2008).

Of course, there are some criticisms of McClelland's theory as well. One of the major problems is that McClelland, in his research, used Thematic Apperception Test (TAT). This method allows researchers to interpret the subject's story. However, interpreting a story is more of an art than a science. As a result, the reliability of this method is questionable. Henceforth, most of the research that culminated in this

theory was done by McClelland or his associates which calls for concern (Ivancevich, et al., 2008). Further, the permanency of this model has also been questioned, thus, the validity of the model needs more investigation (Collins, Hanges, and Locke, 2004).



PROCESS THEORIES

The process theories of motivation emphasize the differences in people's needs and focus on the cognitive processes that generate these differences. Their attempts are focused on determining the relationship between the dynamic variables that provide the motivation to influence behaviour. The major process theories are expectancy-based model, equity theory, goal theory and attribution theory.

Expectancy-Based Model

After criticizing Herzberg's theory as merely a theory of job satisfaction, Vroom was the first person to develop an expectancy theory that focussed on work motivation (Vroom, 1964). Numerous studies have supported this theory in predicting work force behaviour (Lynd-Stevenson, 1999, Murphy, Dacin, and Ford, 2004).

The cornerstone of the expectancy theory is that people are rational beings and influenced by the expected results of their actions. They are motivated to work when they believe that they can achieve things they want from their jobs (Slocum and Hellriegel, 2009).

The expectancy model that was first developed by Vroom (1964) identified three key variables that play an interactive role in motivation. These variables are *valence*, *instrumentality* and *expectancy*.

Valence is the degree to which an individual values a particular reward. The more a person values the reward that he or she will receive for his or her effort, the more motivated he or she will be to receive the reward. Therefore, valence is the attractiveness of, or preference for, a particular outcome to the individual. It is the anticipated satisfaction from an outcome (Mullins, 2008, p. 266). Nevertheless, different individuals assess certain rewards differently. In other words, the value and importance of certain activity or object is partially dependent on the state of the needs of an individual at a given time (Lewin, 1951, p. 273).

Valence can be either negative or positive. Negative valence refers to something that is undesirable and the person would wish to avoid, whereas, positive valence is something that is desired and the individual wants to achieve it. A valence of zero refers to an outcome towards which an individual is indifferent (Luthans, 2008).

Certain outcomes may have a valence of their own right—first-level outcomes—but more often they are derived from the other outcomes to which they are expected to lead—second-level outcomes (Mullins, 2008).

Therefore, when an individual performs a job, some outcomes are associated with this performance, such as productivity, effectiveness and efficiency. This is considered as first-level outcomes. Second-level outcomes are somehow related to the first-level ones, such as rewards or punishments, which are the result of the first-level outcomes.

Instrumentality refers to a person's expectations that the rewards that he or she will receive are closely related to his or her level of performance. It is the belief that performance is related to rewards,

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therefore, an individual with a high level of performance expects to get a high level of reward. Otherwise, the individual's motivation may suffer if the performance is not properly rewarded (Greenberg, 2010). In other words, it refers to the perception of a person that first-level outcomes are related to second-level outcomes (Ivancevich, et al., 2008).

Expectancy concerns an individual's perception that effort is positively correlated with the level of performance. It can take values ranging from zero, indicating that the outcome will not occur after the action or behaviour, to plus one (+1), indicating that a specific outcome will follow a particular action or behaviour (Slocum and Hellriegel, 2009). Sometimes, people do not expect their effort as having much effect on the outcomes that they attain. However, in other cases, individuals believe that their effort is related to what they will acquire. At first glance, the expectancy concept may appear the same as instrumentality, but it is different. Expectancy is the probability (ranging from 0 to 1) that a specific behaviour will lead to a particular first-level outcome. Whereas, instrumentality refers to the degree to which a first-level outcome will lead to a desired second-level outcome (Luthans, 2008, p. 176).

The expectancy theory, as a process theory of motivation, proposes that both situational and individual variables are important in motivating human behaviour. This approach does not offer any solution to motivating people at work; however, it clarifies some of the elements involved in the process of motivation. This clarification of motivational elements helps managers to realize the complexities involved in the process of motivation at work. Thus, the focal point of the expectancy theory is the rationality of human beings and their perception of reality, which is not always accurate (Greenberg, 2010). This is more of an idealistic assumption.

Equity Theory

The equity theory suggests that people evaluate their input-outcome equity by comparing it with their perception of what others receive at a similar level. This theory is associated with the work of Adams and focuses on individuals' feelings related to the fairness of their treatment in comparison with others (Mullins, 2008).

This theory contends that individuals, in their social interactions, see a situation as a financial transaction. They are, somehow, making an investment and are expecting an equitable return (Martin, 2005). Equity exists when individuals perceive that the ratio of their inputs to their outcomes is equivalent to the ratio of others. Inequity exists when these ratios are not equivalent, whether the ratio is greater or lesser (Adams, 1963).

Adams (1965, p. 280) believes that "inequity exists for a person whenever he perceives that the ratio of his outcomes to inputs and the ratio of other's outcomes to other's inputs are unequal. This may happen either (a) when he and the others are in a direct exchange relationship or (b) when both are in an exchange relationship with a third party and the person compares himself to the other. The values of outcomes and inputs are, of course, as perceived by the person." Age, gender, seniority, skills and qualifications, education, longer hours of work and the level of performance are examples of perceived input variables, whereas, outcomes are factors such as wage, promotion, financial raise, working conditions and so on.

Based on this, the presence of inequity will motivate a person to achieve equity or to reduce inequity, and the strength of the motivation to do so will vary directly with the magnitude of the inequity experienced. From these propositions and from the theory of cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957,

Brehm and Cohen, 1962), the equity theory (Adams, 1956) suggests some alternative methods to restore a sense of equity or to avoid feelings of inequity. These methods, depending on whether the inequity is advantageous or disadvantageous, vary as follows:

- The individual may decide to alter his or her input, either increasing or decreasing them.
- The individual may decide to alter his or her outcomes, either increasing or decreasing them.
- The individual may decide to distort his or her inputs and outcomes cognitively. Because most people are deeply affected by reality, far-reaching distortion is usually difficult. In other words, it is not easy to alter one's cognition about the fact. However, because it has been claimed that the experience of inequity is the counterpart of the experience of dissonance, it is sensible to believe that cognitive distortion may be adopted as a means of reducing inequity.
- The individual may decide to leave the field. This may take a variety of approaches such as transferring to a different job, quitting the existing job or absenteeism.
- The individual may act on the other person. The individual may try to modify or cognitively distort the other's inputs and outcomes, or try to make the other leave the organization. Theoretically, it might be possible to make the other person leave the organization, however, forcing the other to leave the organization is probably difficult to realize.
- The individual may decide to change the object of his or her comparison. To confront the inequity by changing the comparison object is certainly difficult to accomplish, especially if individual has been comparing himself or herself to the other person for some time.

Which of these methods are utilized by the individual to cope with inequity depends on the situation and the availability of the method.

Goal-Setting Theory

Locke (1968) proposes the theory of goal-setting as a means of motivation. He proposes that the intention towards a hard goal is a major source of work motivation. Locke mainly accepts the purposefulness of behaviour, which comes from Tolman's pioneering cognitive theorizing, and the importance of values, or valence, and consequences (Luthans, 2008, p. 359). He recognizes the importance of perceived value, as pointed out in the expectancy theories of motivation, and recommends that these values give rise to the experience of emotions and desires.

People make every effort to attain goals in order to satisfy their emotions and desires (Mullins, 2008).

Locke proposed that one of the most important forces that operate on individuals in organizations is the process of goal setting (Locke and Latham, 2009). The main idea of this theory is that an individual's goals or objectives play an important part in shaping behaviour. Of course, Locke (1975) consequently indicated that goal-setting is more of a motivational technique rather than a formal theory of motivation.

When people think that they cannot achieve a goal, they feel dissatisfied. As a result of dissatisfaction, they work harder to achieve the goal as long as they believe that it is achievable. When the goal is accomplished, they feel competent and successful (Mento, Locke, and Klein, 1992). Having a goal boosts performance largely because it makes unambiguous the kind of performance that is required. Research found that having a specific goal leads to higher performance than trying to achieve a vague

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goal such as “do your best” (Ivancevich, et al. 2008). Furthermore, having a clear goal makes people commit to the goal and invest themselves in achieving it (Wright, O’leary-Kelly, Cortinak, Klein, and Hollenbeck, 1994).

Subsequently three functions are assumed for goal-setting. First, it helps to boost work motivation and job performance (Locke, 1968). Second, it decreases the ambiguity that sometimes accompanies the role and creates confusion and conflicting expectations, thus, it reduces job stress (Quick, 1979). Third, it assists the improvement of accuracy and validity of the performance appraisal (McGregor, 1957).

Attribution Theory

One of the more recent approaches to the study of motivation is the attribution theory. According to this theory, individuals tend to perceive others and attribute some characteristics to them. Thus, one is trying to make sense of the other’s behaviour.

The judgement that one makes about other individuals is based on what one is able to observe of their behaviour (Greenberg, 2010).

Individuals are curious and want to know why people behave as they do. Individuals want to know the cause of their own and others’ behaviour (Heider, 1958). This judgment, which is made based on individuals’ observations, is known as ‘correspondent inferences’ (Greenberg and Baron, 2008).

Attribution or inferred causes is a way of making sense of others’ behaviour. Of course, it is the perceived cause and not the actual cause that influences individual’s behaviour (Swim, and Sanna, 1996). Luthans (2008, p. 185) believes that the “attribution theory contributes a great deal to the better understanding of motivation and organizational behaviour.”

Although, individuals make attributions, unconsciously, most of the time, it is not, consciously, made all the time (Speer, 2005). However, it is suggested that behaviour is determined by a combination of perceived internal forces (something within the individual’s control) and external forces (something beyond the individual’s control) (Heider, 1958). “That determination, however, depends largely on three factors: (1) distinctiveness, (2) consensus, and (3) consistency” (Robbins and Judge, 2011, p. 204).

However, before explaining these factors, it is essential to realize whether internal forces or external forces were the causing factors of the noticed behaviour. If the explanation of the perceived cause is related to the individual, the forces that caused the behaviour are internal, however, if the explanation is related to the condition of work or situation, the caused force is external (Greenberg, 2010).

Now each of the three determining elements can be discussed. According to Ivancevich et al. (2008), *distinctiveness* refers to the degree to which an individual behaves similarly in different occasions. *Consistency* is the extent to which an individual engages in the same behaviour in different occasions. *Consensus* is the degree to which other people are engaging in the same behaviour. These three basic criteria assist in making attributions and in determining whether an internal or external attribution was chosen by the individual (Kelley, 1973).

As was mentioned, the attribution theory does not provide the actual cause of behaviour, it only identifies the perception of the cause by the individual. In this regard, there is a tendency to explain others’ behaviour in terms of internal causes rather than external causes (Greenberg and Baron, 2008). This lays the ground for what is known as the fundamental attribution error (Forgas, 1998). “This phenomenon stems from the fact that it is far easier to explain someone’s actions in terms of his or her traits than to recognize the complex pattern of situational factors that may have affected his or her actions” (Greenberg, 2010, pp.84).

Fundamental attribution error implies that supervisors tend to ascribe employee's behaviour to their personal characteristics rather than the circumstances at the time. Subordinates also tend to ascribe their success to internal elements such as experience, ability, efforts and skills, and to put the blame for failure on external factors such as working conditions (Robbins and Judge, 2011). This implies that people tend to present themselves favourably and take credit for their accomplishments. They make internal attributions for their success and external ones for their failure (Miller and Ross, 1975). This leads to another frequent error, which is known as the self-serving bias.

Therefore, attributions for actions lead supervisors and subordinates to interpret the original cause and consequently to react upon it. It is, therefore, important for supervisors to understand the attributions that subordinates make, while comprehending that their attribution may be different from those of their subordinates.

SUMMARY

Motivation is an individual-level response, which, at first glance, seems straightforward and simple. However, managers deal with individuals in groups and individuals behave differently in groups when compared to behaving in their individual lives. This makes the process of motivation more complicated and challenging. Part of this complication is also caused by the inferred nature of motivation. It is not always directly observable. Motivation refers to the cause of behaviour. Therefore, managers ought to look for the why of behaviour before making any attempts to motivate.

Therefore, managers ought to be cautious of the fact that each individual is unique and would react uniquely to any situation. Consequently, they must scrutinize individuals and situations in order to craft a strategy for work force motivation.

KEY TERMS

- Motivation • Needs • Motives • Content theories • Process theories
- Work motivation • Valence • Instrumentality • Expectancy

TEST YOUR KNOWLEDGE

1. Explain the meaning of motivation as completely as you know.
2. Explain how motives and needs are related.
3. Why is motivation so important in soft skill development?
4. Motivating the work force is a strategic responsibility of managers. Do you agree? Give reasons for your answer.
5. Herzberg believed in the dual nature of human beings regarding the work environment. Explain it as completely as you know.
6. Explain instrumentality in the expectancy-based model as fully as you know.

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Chapter Six

Interpersonal Relations and Communications

Hena Shibu

“To effectively communicate, we must realize that we are all different in the way we perceive the world and use this understanding as a guide to our communication with others.”

—Anthony Robbins (American Advisor to Leaders)

Imagine that on a fine morning when you open your eyes, you find a strange person standing close to your bed. He is holding your hands and trying to wake you up. He is taking you to the bathroom by holding your hands and trying to assist you in bathing. You are feeling embarrassed by his behaviour. You are shouting at him, and yelling at him that you do not like him but, he is not listening at all. He looks as if he hasn't understood what you said. He speaks a different language and you also cannot understand what he is saying.

The taste of water can be enjoyed only when you are thirsty. Similarly, the importance of communication skills is realized only when you need it desperately. Of all the soft skills that a person possesses, communication is the most important. Most of your life is centred on interpersonal relationships; friendships, romantic relationships and family relationships. Consequently, every human being needs to be well-resourced with the tools to communicate effectively, whether it is in personal life or professional life.

Every institution has recognized the importance of communication among its members, whether in the family or at workplace—for example, the conversation between parents and children, a general practitioner and his clients, a project manager and his subordinates, and so on. The Medical School Objectives Project of the Association of American Medical Colleges (AAMC) recommended faculties to teach interpersonal and communication skills to the medical professionals. In management, being a good communicator means that you won half the battle. Thus, communication process is an indispensable component of productive living. This chapter focuses on the experiences that assist a person in facing the challenges of the professional world, in helping the individual to understand and learn new adaptive ways of dealing with the challenges and in developing an internal prototype of productive living. It also enables you to identify qualities that are adaptive and resourceful.



INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS

Whereas communication skills are the core competencies to deal effectively with people and to perform some specific responsibilities and behaviours of an individual, interpersonal relations are inherently relational and process oriented. Interpersonal skills focus on the effect of communication on another person (Duffy et. al, 2004). It can be defined as communication between two or more people and involves the transfer of information from one person to another. It is the ability to respond to people's needs positively and to foster a non-discriminatory environment where individuals can develop their complete personal potential.

Communication and interpersonal skills depend on the personality traits, attitudes, beliefs, values, and cognitive capabilities such as perception, intelligence, memory, and learning capacity of both individuals. Interpersonal skills build on basic communication skills, which alone are insufficient to create and sustain a relationship. Proficient interpersonal communication skills include self-disclosure, owned feelings and thoughts, and descriptiveness and support.



ELEMENTS OF INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS

Interpersonal communication is absolutely everything in today's world. The quality of an individual's relationships determines his or her success in life. In any relationship, the key elements in developing and maintaining interpersonal relationships are communication, trust and mutual respect. You can have a good relationship with family, friends, clients and colleagues if you possess good communication skills.

People establish their interpersonal relationships in stages, through a series of steps. Each person pursues a relationship for unique reasons. However, the first step in developing interpersonal relationships involves self-disclosure. It includes meeting a person, presenting oneself, and communicating the desire to get involved in the relationship. Effective self-disclosure requires the skill to communicate effectively. To enter into a relationship gradually and gracefully, to maintain the relationship intact and to satisfy it, it is important to be skilled in communicating effectively and intelligently.



COMMUNICATION SKILLS

The word 'communication' comes from the Latin word 'comunicare,' meaning 'to transmit'. Different dictionaries describe communication in different ways. Generally speaking, communication is the transmission of a message, gesture, meaning or signal from one place to another (Reber, A.S, Reber E.S, 2001, p. 135). It is the process of transferring information from one entity to another. Human communication is commonly defined as the imparting or interchange of thoughts, opinions or information by speech, writing or signs. Communication skills comprise the set of skills that enables a person to convey information so that it is received and understood properly. Communication occurs when one or more individuals send or receive messages that are distorted by noise, occur within a context, have some effect and provide some opportunity for feedback (DeVito J, 2006). Communication skills refer to the repertoire of behaviours that serve to convey information for the individual.



FUNCTIONS OF COMMUNICATION

Communication serves a variety of functions in interpersonal relationships. The major function of communication in any organization can be listed as follows:

- **Transfer of thoughts, ideas or information:** This is one of the most important functions of human communication. Human beings are equipped with the five senses of touch, taste, smell, sight and hearing. People perceive things through the interaction of these senses with the environment. The amount of information retained in the communication process depends on many factors, including the ability of one's sense organs and the pattern of one's perceptions.
- **Expression of feelings:** Every individual has interpersonal needs that include the feeling of being loved and cared for by another individual. Communication has an effect on the individual's sensitivity to his or her own feelings and to others' feelings. It is a tool to convey personal feelings.
- **Directing or controlling behaviour:** As a person's position in the organizational echelon grows, the efforts required to direct and control the behaviour of employees also increase. Numerous studies have confirmed the impact of effective communication on organizational productivity, efficiency and effectiveness.
- **Inspiring and motivating individuals:** Good communication is necessary in organizations as it is necessary elsewhere. Communication helps elucidate the job and usually fosters the performance of employees. Effective management, therefore, is a function of effective communication.



TYPES OF COMMUNICATION

Human communication is vast and ranges from talking to oneself, talking with one person or a small group, speaking in public to an audience comprising hundreds, to mass communication in which an individual gets an opportunity to talk to millions. The rationale behind human communication may be conscious or unconscious, identifiable or unrecognizable. Further, the technologies for communication are rapidly changing as people communicate through emails, SMS and so on. But the purpose of communication, essentially, is likely to remain the same irrespective of the evolutions and revolutions in this field. A comparatively uncomplicated way of understanding human communication is to look at the various types of communication that all individuals practice. Human communication can be classified as follows:

- Communication based on the communication channel
- Communication based on the style and purpose of communication

Figure 6.1 tells you how the communication process is categorized.

Communication Based on Communication Channel

Based on the channels used for communicating, there can be two broad categories of communication. For example, in face-to-face interactions, people speak and listen, and they also gesture and receive signals

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visually. In other instances, people may type and read words and use various symbols and abbreviations to communicate the emotional tone of the message.

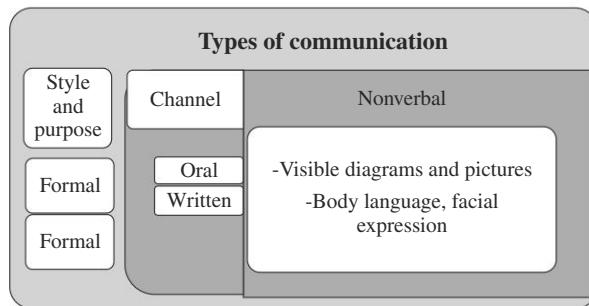


Fig. 6.1 Types of communication

Verbal Communication

Verbal communication depicts the transmission of information using words. People communicate verbally through spoken words, letters, emails, SMS and so on. The verbal communication process can be broadly classified into two: written communication and oral communication.

- (i) **Written communication:** Written communication can be either through letters, emails or SMS. The effectiveness of written communication depends on the style of writing, vocabulary used, grammar, clarity and precision of language.
- (ii) **Oral (vocal) communication:** Oral communication refers to the spoken words in the communication process.

Non-Verbal Communication

Non-verbal communication or body language is a vital form of communication. Good communication is the foundation of successful relationships, both personally and professionally. But people communicate with much more than words. Body language includes bodily gestures, postures, facial expressions and even the tone of voice using which a person communicates non-verbally with others (Soukhanov 1992 p. 211). In fact, research shows that a majority of individual communication is non-verbal. Non-verbal communication can also be in the form of pictorial representations, signboards or photographs, sketches and paintings.

Gestures: Gestures are woven into the fabric of daily lives. People wave, point and beckon, and use their hands when they argue or speak animatedly—expressing oneself with gestures often without thinking. However, gestures can mean different things across cultures and regions, so it is important to be careful and to avoid misinterpretation.

Postures: The posture of the individual who is communicating plays a role in the communication efforts. A slumped posture indicates that one has low spirits, is fatigued or is feeling inferior; an erect posture, on the other hand, shows high spirits and confidence. If one leans forward, it implies that one is open and interested. Leaning away shows disinterest or a defensive attitude. A rigid posture is interpreted to be

defensive behaviour, whereas a relaxed posture translates to being open. Crossed arms and legs indicate a defensive and proactive position, whereas uncrossed arms and legs indicate a willingness to listen.

Facial Expressions: Facial expressions usually communicate emotions. The expressions can tell the attitude of the communicator. Researchers have discovered that certain facial areas reveal emotional state better than the others. For example, the eyes tend to reveal happiness or sadness, and even surprise. The lower face also can reveal happiness or surprise; the smile, for example, can communicate friendliness and cooperation. The lower face, brows and the forehead can reveal anger. It is said that verbal cues provide 7 percent of the meaning of the message; vocal cues, 38 percent; and facial expressions, 55 percent. This means that, as the receiver of a message, you can rely heavily on the facial expressions of the sender because these expressions are a better indicator of the meaning of the message than the words.

Eye Contact: Eye contact is a direct and powerful form of non-verbal communication. Because the visual sense is dominant for most people, eye contact is an especially important type of non-verbal communication. The way people look at someone can communicate many things, including interest, affection, hostility or attraction. Eye contact is also important in maintaining the flow of conversation and for gauging the other person's response. The superior in the organization generally maintains eye contact longer than the subordinate. The direct stare of the sender of the message conveys candour and openness. It elicits a feeling of trust. Downward glances are generally associated with modesty. Eyes rolled upward are associated with fatigue.

Gaze Behaviour: Gaze behaviour is a complicated series of eye movements. The eyes can provide clues to a person's non-verbal deliberations. Gaze behaviour can be read when people talk face-to-face. The gazes of people when they communicate can be categorized into four, according to the sender's focus of the gaze.

- **Business Gaze:** To convince someone about strong, serious decisions and also when having strong arguments with regard to the idea of an individual, the gaze should focus on the upper triangular area of the face, which means that the looks must be in the eyes or above the eyes. This type of gaze is particularly important in business communications.
- **Social Gaze:** During social encounters, the gaze probably concentrates on the lower triangular area of the face, which covers both the eyes and the lips.
- **Intimate Gaze:** The intimate gaze occurs in close encounters. The gaze concentrates between the eyes and the chest. And if either of the individual takes the gaze up to the crotch, it shows genuine interest or it indicates courtship behaviour.
- **Sidewise Gaze:** People can communicate either hostility or interest through sidewise gazes. If the sidewise gaze is combined with slightly raised eyebrows and a smile, it conveys interest or is a courtship signal. If the sidewise gaze is combined with downturned eyebrows and the corners of the mouth are downturned, it signals a suspicious, hostile or critical attitude.

Volume and Tone of Voice: The volume and tone of one's voice communicates other than the language that one uses. Without changing the words or the word sequence, one can convey different meanings by changing the tone of one's voice.

Paralinguistics: Paralinguistics is the term used to describe all the vocal features that accompany words, including the rise and fall in the tone of voices, emphasis or intonation—the way people use their voices

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to stress particular words and convey different meanings; the ‘filters’ that people use to cover hesitations when they are searching for the right word or thinking about what to say next (sounds such as ‘er’ or ‘um,’ grunts or simply silent pauses); and the way people change the pace or speed of their speech under different conditions.

Individual’s Zone: Individual’s Zone is an individual’s own territory, the space between an individual and others. It is the accepted boundaries of an individual. This invisible boundary becomes apparent only when someone else bumps or tries to enter it. The use of space between people who are communicating has been studied extensively. If a person attempts to invade the Individual’s Zone of the other without permission, the later experiences a psychological aloofness with those who invaded. This psychological frustration is termed as ‘**personal allergy**’. Figure 6.2 represents the individual’s zone.

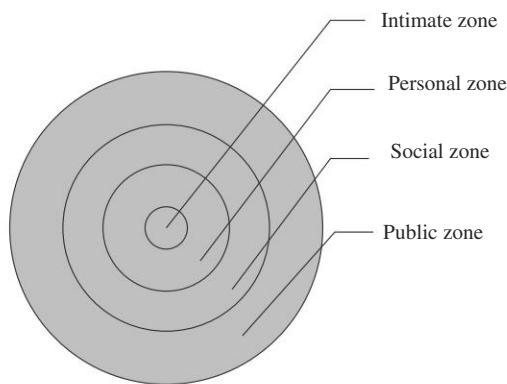


Fig. 6.2 Individual’s zone

Intimate Zone: Ranges to one foot and involves a high probability of touching, as in whispering or embracing. People set aside intimate space for those who are very near such as parents, children, spouse, and close friends.

Private Zone: Ranges from two to four feet and is used among friends and family members

Social Zone: Ranges from four to 12 feet around a person and is used for communication among business associates, as well as all strangers in public

Public Zone: Ranges from 12-25 feet and is the distance maintained between an audience and a speaker, such as the vice president of an organization and the employees during an official conference

There are three basic principles that summarize the use of Individual’s Zone in an organization. If one’s position (status) is higher in the organization:

- ◎ One will have more and better space
- ◎ One’s territory will be better protected
- ◎ It is easier to invade the territory of lower-status personnel

The impact of the use of space on the communication process is related directly to the environment in which the space is maintained.

Communication Based on Style and Purpose

The communication channel is the medium through which the message passes. Based on this, the communication can be broadly classified into two:

Formal Communication

Formal communication includes instances where communication has to occur in a formal setting. This communication has prime importance in organizational communication. The style of communication used is very formal and official. Formal communication is used in official conferences, meetings and to communicate important corporate rules and regulations. Because business personnel are busy people and have no time to read or write long, rambling and confused communication, the language used in formal communication should be terse, official and always to the point. Corporate letters and memos are examples of formal communication.

Informal Communication

Informal communication refers to free, unrestrained communication between people who share a casual rapport with each other. Communication with relations and intimate friends follows an easy, conversational style. There are no rigid rules and guidelines to communicate. In addition, informal communication requires no boundaries of time, place or even subjects for that matter. It can use colloquial expressions, which would be quite out of place in a formal communication setting.



COMMUNICATION MODELS

A convenient means to understand how people communicate is to check the communication models. Communication models are clear diagrams, which describe and explain the process of communication and avoid the need for lengthy verbal explanations. A communication model seeks to capture all the essential features of a real situation in a simplified form, which allows it to be described and understood more easily. Also, communication models allow manipulation of some of the aspects of a situation in order to predict what might happen if these aspects were changed. Finally, one can use the information provided by the model to test theories.

Following are some of the classical models of communication and discussions of different theories of communication, which they represent.

Sadharanikaran Model of Communication and Conflict Resolution

The *sadharanikaran* model of communication and conflict resolution has been drawn from the classical Hindu poetries. The term *sadharanikaran* is derived from the Sanskrit word *sadharan*, and has been translated into English as “generalized presentation.” The term has been extensively used in Sanskrit and in allied literary circles for explaining poetries, aesthetics and drama. It is rooted in *Natyashastra* (Science of dance) of *Bharata*. There have been attempts to extend its history up to the Vedic period but scholars widely believe that Bhattacharya introduced the concept of *sadharanikaran* (Adhikary, 2007a,

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p. 108). Bhattacharya is credited with the use of the term in his commentary on *Natyashastra* to explain the concept of *rasa* (Nirmala, Mani Adhikary, 2010). The model is described in Figure 6.3.

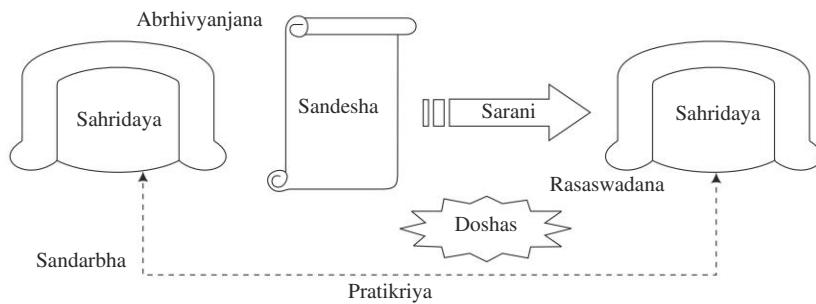


Fig. 6.3 *Sadharanikaran* model of communication and conflict resolution

The *sadharanikaran* model consists of the following basic elements:

- ◎ ***Sahridayas* (Preshaka, that is, sender, and *Prapaka*, that is receiver):** *Sahridayata* (commonness or oneness) is the core concept on which the meaning of *sadharanikaran* is based. The word *Sahridaya* refers to people with a capacity to send and receive messages. It is the state of common orientation, commonality or oneness. Senders and receivers become *sahridayas* with the completion of the process of *sadharanikaran*.
- ◎ ***Abhivyanjana* (expression or encoding):** *Abhivyanjana* refers to the activities that a source goes to translate *bhavas* (moods or emotions) into a form that may be perceived by the senses. It can be understood as expression or encoding in English.
- ◎ ***Sandesha* (message or information):** It is the information that the sender wants to pass on to the receiver. It is the actual physical product that the source encodes and that the receiver's sensory organs can detect.
- ◎ ***Sarani* (channel):** The transmission of *sandesha* needs *sarani* (channel or medium), which is the means through which *sandesha* travels across space.
- ◎ ***Rasaswadana*:** Firstly receiving, decoding and interpreting the message, and finally achieving the *rasa*. *Rasaswadana* is said to be successful if the receiver understands the message as intended by the sender.
- ◎ ***Dosha* (noise):** *Dosha* or noise tends to distort the message and lead to miscommunication.
- ◎ ***Sandarbha* (context):** *Sandarbha* is referred to as the communication environment. The effectiveness of any message depends on the communication environment. The same message may have different meanings in different contexts.
- ◎ ***Pratikriya* (process of feedback):** *Pratikriya* refers to the responses of the receiver after receiving the message. It is the process of feedback, which allows the receiver to have an active role in the communication process.

Communication, as conceived in the *Sadharanikaran* model, is the process of attaining *sahridayata*, that is, mutual understanding, commonality or oneness. It is only when the communicating parties attain *sahridayata* and the communicating parties identify each other as *sahridaya* that the communication process qualifies to be considered as *sadharanikaran*.

Communication Process Model by David Berlo (1960)

The simplest and most influential message-centred model of communication came from David Berlo in 1960. This model is essentially an adaptation of the Shannon-Weaver model of the communication process. In Berlo's model, a source encodes a message through a channel to a receiver who decodes the message. David Berlo's model of communication consists of the following elements as shown in Fig. 6.4.

- **Source:** Source refers to the starting point of the information or the initiator of the communication. The source communicates ideas, thoughts, needs, intentions and so on.
- **Encoding:** Encoding is the process that takes place within the human mind or brain that encodes the ideas to be conveyed into a series of symbols or gestures or some other format of expression.
- **The Message:** The message is the physical form of the thought that can be experienced or understood by one or more senses of the receiver. It can be in such form that requires hearing, reading or other form of physical actions.
- **Channel of communication:** The channel is a medium carrier, which bridges the gap between the sender and the receiver. It may be face-to-face conversation, telephonic conversation, in written form or through physical gestures.
- **Receiver:** This is the person who receives the message.
- **Decoding:** The receiver decodes the message and interprets the message to understand its meaning. The effectiveness of the communication process depends on the process of decoding, if the decoded message matches the sender's intended message.



Fig. 6.4 David Berlo's S-M-C-R model of communication

In Berlo's S-M-C-R model of communication, the idea of 'source' was flexible enough to include oral, written, electronic or any other kind of 'symbolic' generator of messages. 'Message' is the essential part, stressing the transmission of ideas. The model recognized that receivers were important for communication, because they were the targets. The notions of 'encoding' and 'decoding' emphasized the problems in translating thoughts into words or other symbols and in deciphering the words or symbols of other people in terms that one can understand.

This model tends to emphasize the manipulation of the message—the encoding and decoding processes. It implies that human communication is like machine communication, similar to signal transmission in telephone, television, and computer and radar systems. It even appears to state that

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many problems in human communication can be solved by technical accuracy—by choosing the ‘right’ symbols, preventing interference and sending efficient messages. But even with the ‘right’ symbols, people misunderstand each other. The problems in ‘meaning’ or ‘meaningfulness’ are often not a matter of comprehension, but of reaction, agreement, shared concepts, beliefs, attitudes and values. To put the come back into communication, it is necessary to have a meaning-centred theory of communication.

Shannon and Weaver Communication Transmission Model, 1948

The era of modern communication theories began with the communication process model of Claude Shannon and Weaver in 1948. They were two electronic engineers working for the Bell Telephone Company. Most of the terminology used in this model has been borrowed from the electronic communication systems theory .This model assumes that communication is a linear process in which a message is sent directly and intentionally from a source (S) via a transmitter (T) to a receiver (R) and is picked up and understood by the recipient (Rt) of the message. The model can be represented in its most basic form as shown in Figure 6.5.

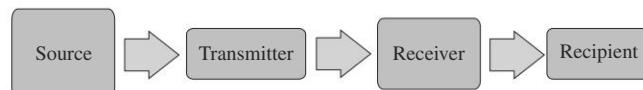


Fig. 6.5 Basic form of Shannon and Weaver communication transmission model

This model is often referred to as the transmission or process model. Many subsequent theorists have accepted that the transmission process is one of the most vital elements in communication. This has given rise to a whole school of thought in communication; which starts with the basic premise that if information does not get through accurately and with minimum distortion from the transmitter to the receiver, little communication can take place.

In this model, the terms transmitter and receiver refer to the instruments used in the process of transmission. In human communication, the human voice is the transmitter and the ear is the receiver. Shannon and Weaver explained that a message does not have much of a chance of being picked up by the receiver and reaching its intended destination, unless both receiver and transmitter use compatible channels of communication and the same method of encoding and decoding the message. The channel of communication is the physical method by which information is transmitted and received. Encoding or decoding means putting the message to be sent in a form that is compatible with the channel of communication used. For example, if a message is transmitted by means of an email, internet is the channel of communication and the encoding method is typed words.

In this model of communication, the assumptions are that communication flows directly from the source to the target. The second assumption is that there is no blockage or distortions to stop the message from getting through; the message received at its target will be the same as the message that was sent. Shannon and Weaver were aware from their experience in electronics that static electricity or ‘noise’ could interfere with the electrical transmission process, resulting in a distortion of the message, which is transmitted. Therefore, they incorporated the concept of ‘noise’ into their model of communication in order to represent anything that could interfere with the process of communication. This ‘noise’ is a barrier to effective communication.

However, Shannon's model is not really a model of communication. It is, instead, a model of the flow of information through a medium, and an incomplete and biased model that is more applicable to the system it maps—a telephone or telegraph—than it is to most other media of communication.

Gerbner's Model of Communication, 1930

Gerbner's General Model emphasizes the dynamic nature of human communication. From 1930 onwards, the question of meaning in communication has been studied primarily by philosophers and linguists. They start with a different premise from the Shannon and Weaver model of communication. They regard 'meaning' not 'transmission' as the most important aspect of communication. A message may be transmitted and received accurately but the content of the message may not be understood in the

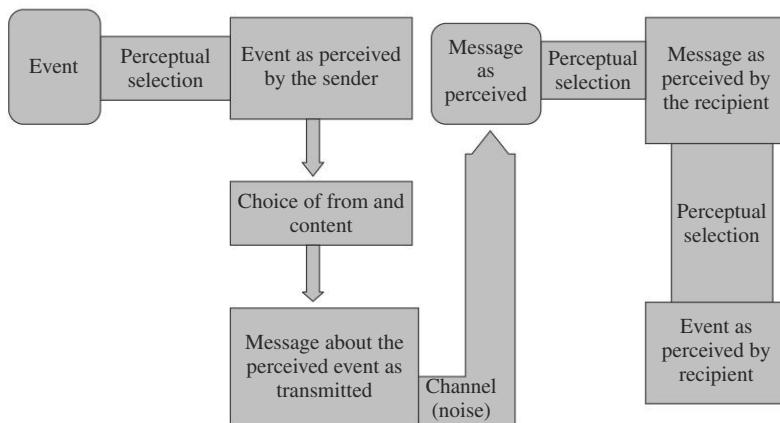


Fig. 6.6 Gerbner's model of communication

same way by the sender and the recipient. The important reason for these differences in understanding is the perceptual and attitudinal differences in the individuals involved in the communication process. Also, the context in which the information is received may affect the meaning that the recipient reads into it. Figure 6.6 illustrates Gerbner's model of communication.

Unlike Shannon and Weaver, Gerbner did not believe that there is a correct meaning for any message. He believed that the meaning of any message is determined by the person who is interpreting the message at the time. He believed that the meaning is not contained in the message but exists only as an interpretation in the mind of the person who is decoding the message.



TOOLS OF COMMUNICATION

If an individual possesses basic communication tools such as listening skills, reading skills, writing skills and speaking skills, there is no scope for any puzzlement in relationships.

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Listening is an art that the receiver uses to decode the message. Effective listening requires conscious effort on the part of the receiver. Effective listening skills include the following:

- ◎ Not talking and putting the speaker at ease
- ◎ Conveying interest
- ◎ Removing distractions
- ◎ Empathizing with the speaker
- ◎ Being patient and holding temper
- ◎ Going easy on criticism and argument
- ◎ Asking relevant questions

Asking questions to clarify the message that an individual receives is an integral part of being both a good listener and an effective speaker. In speaking and writing, using gender-neutral language will make your communication skills better. Look out for the ‘he’ or ‘she’ trap in your communication. Use gender neutral language, such as ‘police officer’ for ‘police man,’ person or individual instead of ‘man’ and so on.

While communicating, it is important to use simple language and to elaborate the acronyms used in the communication. Above all, it is important to communicate facts clearly and honestly. This will help gain the respect of the receiver and the individual can maintain a reputation for integrity.



TEAM COMMUNICATION AND INTERPERSONAL COMPETENCY

Most of the corporate bodies have come to rely on team-based arrangements to increase productivity, customer service, and quality and job satisfaction among their employees. Yet teams behave differently. The biggest challenge is the diversity in individual behaviour. The need for thoughtful, effective communication at the workplace is paramount. Interacting with your immediate client or boss is only one aspect of communication and interpersonal skills. Competence in team communication includes the skill to speak up against an authority gradient, clarity in communicating and courtesy towards the roles and responsibilities as a team member. One important outcome of successful interpersonal skills is the development of better interpersonal relationship, described as the emergence of shared thoughts and feelings regarding the nature of a problem, the goals and the relationship as such. Therefore, it is significant to be aware of the dynamics of group behaviour.

Commercial organizations, large or small, always listen to the language of money. When communicating, the sender should always know what the other person wants to hear. This is the primary principle of the communication process in an organization. In the preceding story, the final requisition mainly talked the language of money, which a financial officer in the purchase department habitually listens to. The story also illustrates how miscommunication can hinder a genuine requirement. That brings you to the aspect of organizational communication.

Directions of Communication in Organizations

Messages in organizations flow in three directions, namely, upward, downward and lateral.

Organizational Communication

“Everyone has a story of slip-ups at the beginning of their careers, so here is Dr. Heather’s, who joined a well-known company as an occupational health physician. In her company, the employees reported chest pain frequently. And because the company did not possess an ECG device at the health centre, she had to refer all the cases of chest pain to the nearest cardiac care hospital. In several such cases, the chest pain was diagnosed to be of non-cardiac origin at the referral hospital. If she had had an ECG at her unit, she could have screened and avoided the referral of a majority of the non-cardiac cases. So she decided to procure one. However, many of her successive

attempts were futile. The purchase department turned down her request on count of financial constraints. She once happened to talk with the Personal Manager, who had joined the company recently. At some stage during their talk, she expressed her inability to convince the purchase department. The Personal Manager had then advised her to make the requisition in a different form and he assured success this time. Her next requisition included statistics about the total number of cases referred unnecessarily and also the total expenses that would have been avoided by screening the cases. Soon, the reply came along with the sanction to purchase an ECG device. A query was also there: “Why this was not put up earlier?”

Upward Communication: Upward communication is the flow of information from lower levels to higher levels. Without upward communication, management cannot obtain ideas for innovation and improvement from people at lower levels of organizational hierarchy.

Downward Communication: The information that is sent from higher levels of organizational hierarchy to lower levels is termed as downward communication. Management carries out the basic functions of an organization, namely, planning, organizing, controlling and directing, through downward communication.

Lateral Communication: Communication among employees at the same level in the organizational hierarchy is called lateral communication. Lateral communication is important to resolve conflict between co-workers and to improve the work environment.

The directions of communication in an organization are described as in Fig. 6.7.

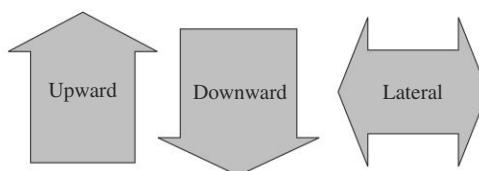


Fig. 6.7 Directions of communication

Formal Networks in Organizational Communication

Organizational networks may include thousands of people and half a dozen or more hierarchical levels. The communication process in an organization connects superiors, subordinates, colleagues and the public. The three important networks that show organizational communication patterns are as follows:

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- ◎ **Chain network:** Information flows only up or down in a hierarchical chain.
- ◎ **Wheel network:** This represents a superior at the centre with subordinates around. The subordinates do not communicate with each other.
- ◎ **Closed Circle network:** This permits all the group members to actively communicate with each other.

Electronic Communication

Communication in organizations is enhanced and enriched by technologies such as electronic mails or emails, SMS, telephone, mobile phones and so on. The growth of messaging technologies has been spectacular, which has tremendously reduced the time taken for communication. It can be quickly written, edited and stored or sent.

No group can exist without communication. An idea, no matter how great, is useless until it is transmitted through the organizational network and understood by the members of the organization.

Researching Communication Skills and Interpersonal Relations

Communication and interpersonal skills can be quantified using different methods. Individual skills can be scrutinized by using three methods: checklists of observed behaviours, surveys, and examination using questionnaires.

Checklists of Observed Behaviours

Checklists are used to assess basic interpersonal and communication skills. They are the most frequently used assessment method during training. Checklists involve an individual's self-assessment or an observer's rating of an individual's performance of several communication behaviours, using a numeric scale of rating for low to high performance. Some checklists include anchoring statements that are written descriptions of poor and ideal behaviour.

Surveys

In many organizations, surveys are conducted particularly for interpersonal skills assessment. Because the objective of organizational communication is to create a positive effect on individual performance, employees are the best judges of the effectiveness of the employer's interpersonal skill. The experience regarding the interaction of the boss can be measured when employees are personally involved in the communication. Surveys are conducted using questionnaires.

Examinations

Although of limited use in performance assessment, oral examination, essay or multiple choice questions provide an effective means of testing knowledge about the process and content of the communication tasks and the conceptual basis of interpersonal relationships. Psychological testing differentiates attitude and personality traits that may be helpful in predicting individual behaviour. A summative evaluation of communication and interpersonal skills using standardized assessment tools is possible.



BARRIERS TO EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

Effective communication results in shared meaning and a common understanding between both the sender and the receiver. To bridge the communication gap between the sender and the receiver, one must be aware of two key aspects. Above all, one should improve the encoding process of communication and then improve the understanding of how other people decode the message. Some of the most common barriers to effective communication are as follows:

Professionals spend at least 80% of their time in communicating; therefore, effective professionals need to sharpen their communication skills.

- **Selective Perception:** A recurrent cause of communication problems is the different perception that senders and receivers have of the same message. In the process of communication, receivers' needs, emotions, experience, attitude and other personality traits are of prime importance. Because receivers project their interests and expectations into the communication when they decode them. If receivers make adequate efforts to interpret the messages logically, this communication barrier can be resolved to some extent.
- **Sieving of the message:** Sieving of the message occurs when senders purposefully manipulate information to resemble the intended message of receivers. To overcome such communication barriers, people should be aware of overt non-verbal communication.
- **Transmission alterations:** When a message passes through several levels, it undergoes changes. If the difference between the people involved—with respect to various factors such as cultural difference, social class, educational level and so on—is greater, the alteration is also likely to be more. To reduce these transmission alterations, a conscious effort on the part of the receiver is a must.
- **Sensory constraints:** The sensory constraints of both the sender and the receiver affect the process of communication. It restricts perceptual clarity.
- **In-group language (use of jargons):** The special language that is used in occupational groups is an important barrier to effective communication. The special language or jargon helps members of the group communicate effectively among themselves, but it can cause problems for outsiders.
- **Information overload:** This problem describes a condition in which any individual or department becomes bogged down with too much information.
- **Semantic differences:** Semantics is related to the meaning of words or language. The spelling or sound of a word may be the same, but the meaning can be different. To know the meaning, one must see the word in context.
- **Disfluencies or verbal viruses:** Disfluencies or verbal viruses are meaningless fillers that spoil good communication, take the focus away from the message and annoy listeners to some extent. The most common verbal viruses are “uhh,” “umm,” “ahh,” “like,” “you know,” “well,” “okay” and so on.
- **Status difference:** Significant differences in status can influence the communication process in an organization.

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- ◎ **Time pressure:** People in positions of authority and responsibility may not have enough time to communicate with all members of the organization. In addition, time constraints may not allow senders to receive feedback on whether the receivers decoded the intended meaning.



DEVELOPING INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS THROUGH EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

Every individual must learn to deal with and avoid obstacles to effective communication and relationship building that exists in their professional lives. Always approach people with a level of respect that you would expect if you were a listener yourself. Make sure that your communication sounds as professional as possible. Some tips to communicate effectively are as follows:

- ◎ Be a good listener first.
- ◎ Dress appropriately according to the situation.
- ◎ Maintain an erect, open and confident posture.
- ◎ Smile still works: Be pleasant and enliven others with your presence.
- ◎ Maintain eye contact while communicating.
- ◎ Be aware that your non-verbal clues will betray you; reinforce words with action.
- ◎ In written communication, keep your writing simple, positive and precise.
- ◎ Expel mannerisms and verbal viruses.
- ◎ Appreciate people. Communicate honestly.
- ◎ Get feedback: Interpret the non-verbal messages of the receiver.

While communicating, every individual must know the receiver. This is the key element in the communication process. By knowing the audience, one must streamline their own style of communication.

"When I get ready to talk to people, I spend two-thirds of the time thinking about what they want to hear and one-third thinking about what I want to say."

—Abraham Lincoln

SUMMARY

Developing communication and interpersonal skills are an integral part of individual development. This chapter explored the functions and models of communication, and the importance of communication skills and interpersonal relationships in humanizing personal and professional effectiveness. The important points that were discussed in this chapter include the following:

- ◎ Communication is the process of transferring information from one entity to another whereas communication skills are the set of skills that enables a person to convey information so that it is received and understood.
- ◎ Interpersonal skills focus on the effect of communication on another person. It is the ability to respond to people's needs positively and fostering a non-discriminatory environment where both individuals can develop to their complete personal potentials.

- ⦿ The functions of communication include transfer of thoughts, ideas or information; expression of feelings; directing or controlling behaviour; and inspiring individuals.
- ⦿ Human communication can be classified into two: based on the communication channel, and the style and purpose of communication. Communication based on communication channel includes verbal and non-verbal communication.
- ⦿ The different models of communication include the Shannon and Weaver communication transmission model, Gerbner's model of communication, David Berlo's model of communication and Sadharanikaran model of communication and conflict resolution and the tools for communication include active listening, reading and writing skills.
- ⦿ Communication and interpersonal skills can be measured using the survey method, checklists and questionnaires.
- ⦿ Barriers to communication include transmission alterations, sieving of information, information overload, status difference, time pressure and so on.

KEY TERMS

- | | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| • Communication skills | • Interpersonal relations | • Verbal communication |
| • Oral communication | • Written communication | • Non-verbal communication |
| • Facial expressions | • Gaze behaviour | • Gestures |
| • Postures | • Individual's zone | • Personal allergy |
| • Formal communication | • Informal communication | • Paralinguistics |
| • Tools of communication | • Organizational communication | • Communication models |
| • Checklists | • Team communication | • Surveys |
| | | • Barriers to effective communication |

TEST YOUR KNOWLEDGE

1. What are communication and interpersonal skills? Why do people differ in these skills?
2. What are the functions of communication?
3. What are the different types of communication? Explain them.
4. Differentiate between verbal and non-verbal communication.
5. What is personal zone and personal allergy?
6. What are the important communication models? Describe them.
7. Discuss the directions and formal networks of organizational communication.
8. What are the barriers to effective communication?
9. Are you an effective communicator? What are the factors that contribute to effective communication?

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Chapter Seven

Public Speaking

M. Nejati and A. Shafaei

“There are three things to aim at in public speaking: first, to get into your subject, then to get your subject into yourself, and lastly, to get your subject into the heart of your audience.”

—Alexander Gregg

“Speech is power: speech is to persuade, to convert, to compel.”

—Ralph Waldo Emerson

It is a known fact that a majority of people ignore the importance of public-speaking skills. Therefore, when they are asked to present in public, they often feel uncomfortable and get tongue-tied, even on a topic they know inside out. Public-speaking skills help people sell their ideas and get across their message in a more confident and systematic manner, thus enabling greater attention from the audience.

This chapter discusses the importance of public speaking. It investigates the challenges faced by a majority of people when they speak in public and introduces approaches to encounter these challenges. It also provides a step-by-step guide to improving one's public-speaking skills and to developing a successful public-speaking strategy.

The remaining chapter is as follows. First, it discusses effective communication followed by effective presentation skills. Then the challenges faced during public speaking are listed and the ways of handling them are briefly mentioned. Later, the strategies for an effective presentation are explained in detail followed by public-speaking tips and essentials. Finally, a checklist of public-speaking dos and don'ts is provided.



COMMUNICATION

Communication is a **process** through which meaning is conveyed and aims to create a **shared understanding**. Communication is categorized into two: verbal and non-verbal. Verbal communication consists of oral, written and email communication, whereas non-verbal communication consists of expression, expressive behaviour and body language. Communication also has another important aspect, which comprises one's inner voice, level of self-confidence, attitude, values and perceptions.

Though all modes of communication are critical and helpful in different contexts, **speaking** is argued to be one of the most important and effective methods of communication. It can be used to share

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knowledge and express ideas. Successful public speaking is also essential for communicating effectively in personal, academic and professional life.



EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

Confidence is a prerequisite for effective communication. Confidence is defined as the belief in oneself and one's powers or abilities. It comes from various sources such as within yourself, others and your achievements. The way you see yourself is highly related to the confidence levels you have. You need to stop underestimating your own abilities and act more confidently. You can also look for a role model (a person you recognize as a very confident person) and try to learn from that person.

All of us have seen people (for example, in conferences, seminars, TV and public speech) who are very confident when speaking. Regardless of the topic, it is interesting to note that people tend to listen more carefully to confident speakers and the message is conveyed more effectively in such contexts. But what are the characteristics of confident speakers? As a rule of thumb, most confident communicators:

- Are **aware of their potentials** and **weak points**
- Have a **high level of self-esteem**
- Have **good competency** with regard to their subject matter
- Are **energetic** and **passionate** about their subject matter
- Have a **clear voice**
- Follow an **organized flow** during speech
- Use words that are **easy to understand** by the audience
- Have **good body language**
- Are **willing to answer** questions responsibly
- **Respect** the audience and make them feel valued
- Have good **understanding of the audience** and can connect with them

Successful Communication

For any communication to be successful, you need to:

- Understand the purpose of the communication

- Analyze the audience
- Communicate with words, as well as with body language



EFFECTIVE PRESENTATION SKILLS

Public speaking is a technique that takes time and effort to gain competency. Although a presentation can be evaluated from different perspectives, there are several characteristics for a good and effective presentation, which are commonly considered. Overall, a good presentation:

- Enables the presenter to communicate ideas effectively

- Is organized and interesting
- Creates interest in the audience
- Improves the confidence levels of the presenter
- Is informative and insightful
- Is well timed

Challenges Faced During Public Speaking

Some of the major challenges that people face during public speaking include:

- Anxiety and fear
- Lack of self-confidence
- Lack of competence on the topic
- Poor time management
- Poor eye contact
- Poor communication skills

Controlling Anxiety

In order to control your anxiety for a public speaking session, you need to practice well and get ready well ahead of time. The following steps help you manage this goal:

- Take a deep breath.
- Relax and do some physical exercise.
- Prepare yourself mentally by imagining a successful speech from start to end.
- Have a good and sufficient night's sleep.
- Watch your diet and eat healthy food.
- Practice your presentation well in advance.
- Get familiar with your materials.
- Rehearse in front of family and friends.
- Be optimistic about your speech performance.
- Read materials on public speaking skills to help you develop the skill.

Concealing Fear

Even though many novice speakers have symptoms of nervousness while making a public speech, there are a few tricks that can help you hide this fear (Atkins-Sayre *et al.*; 2007):

- **Do not let the audience see your shaking hands:**

If you are reading from a written note, it is a good idea to rest the paper on a podium. When your hands are shaking, it is recommended that you do not hold the paper in your hands because this will magnify your fear and make it more visible to the audience.

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- **Avoid voice cracks and trembles:**

To minimize voice cracks and hide nervousness from the audience, you can take deeper breaths and speak at a louder volume. By taking deeper breaths, which provides you with more air, and by speaking at a slightly louder volume, you can decrease the risk of having voice cracks and trembles.



STRATEGIES FOR AN EFFECTIVE PRESENTATION

Are you among those who get nervous when asked to give a presentation? Many people are afraid of public speaking. The fear increases as they imagine the number of eyes that will look at them while

they are presenting. This is a common problem among many people all around the globe. However, this does not mean that it cannot be solved. In fact, if you approach the public speaking fear systematically and effectively, you will achieve a good level of presentation skills and a higher level of self-confidence, which will boost your morale. As suggested by Rowson (2007), to help overcome nervousness, especially at the beginning of a presentation when it is worse, the trick is to divert eyes from you. There are two helpful ways to do this:

1. **Showing a visual** (for example, chart, short video, and so on) and asking the audience to look at it. This helps to take the attention of the audience away from you and to the visual. It also provides you with an opportunity to get used to the environment and discuss the visual while the audience are not looking at you.
2. **Raising a question about the topic** and getting the audience involved. This can be a general question about the topic. It can help you get a better idea of the audience background knowledge on the topic and create a better connection with them through interaction.

You will see more helpful strategies and plans to ensure effective public speaking in the following paragraphs:

Before Presentation

Performing certain steps before the presentation can guarantee your success during the speech. These steps are shown in Figure 7.1. Each step is then explained more in detail.

I. Gain Competence on the Topic

The more knowledgeable you are about your presentation topic, the less stressed you will be during your presentation. There are, of course, other factors that may impact the presenter, such as the audience's knowledge level. As shown by Hilmert et al. (2002), when the audience has no expertise in public speaking, it does not matter whether one has high or low confidence in one's speaking ability, because expecting to succeed or fail is not important in front of an audience that will not know the difference. However, it is believed that a speaker experiences more anxiety when speaking to experts.

Regardless of other factors, you should improve your knowledge on the topic that you are presenting. This can be achieved through reading related resources and through the experiences gained over time.

2. Do Planning

Plan your presentation in advance. Make sure that you know your topic in and out, and are prepared for any possible questions on it. It is always a good idea to **prepare a list of possible questions** that may be asked during the presentation. Try to have a plan on how to present your topic.

Try to anticipate some of the key and challenging questions that may be raised and prepare an answer for them. This will help you maintain your confidence during the presentation.

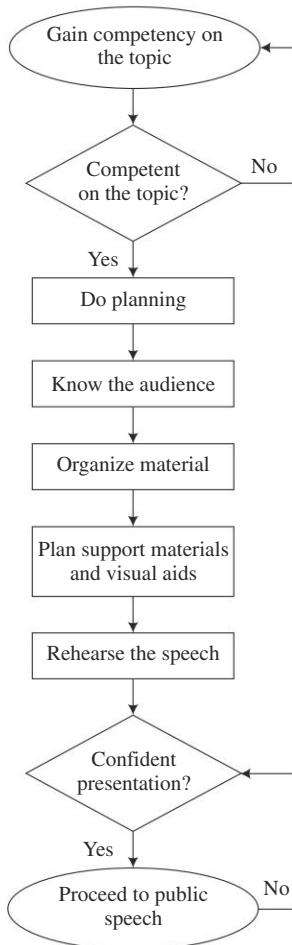


Fig. 7.1 Steps to be taken before a presentation

If you are using PowerPoint, decide on the number of slides that are to be prepared, considering the time allocated to you. As a rule of thumb, you should allocate at least one minute for each slide. Practice

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your slides several times to gain mastery over them. Do not put all the materials to be discussed in your PowerPoint file. Share only the essence of the issues to be discussed in the slides. This will help you to discuss over your slides rather than simply reading through.

You also need to **prepare yourself mentally** for the speech by imagining that you are giving a successful speech from start to end. This leads to reducing your anxiety.

3. Know the Audience

Try to understand your audience and **know their needs and expectations**. This will act as a roadmap and help you to prepare your material in a language that they can understand. For example, if you have a general audience that comprises members from a variety of disciplines and knowledge background, it is strongly recommended that you prepare your material in simple language and **avoid jargons** related to the topic as much as possible.

4. Organize Your Material

Before your public speech, you should organize your material and the resources that you will use during your presentation. You should start with writing an outline of your presentation. An outline refers to a summary of the topics that you will cover during your presentation. It includes the titles of the different issues that you will be talking about during your presentation. As a rule of thumb, an outline should include, but is not limited to, three main parts: **introduction, body and conclusion**. These three sections can be divided into more subsections depending on your topic and audience. In the introduction, you should provide a general idea of your topic, its importance, the significance of your speech, and perhaps a list of what the audience will gain by the end of your speech. The body section covers the essence of your speech. This is where you discuss your topic in detail and convey the message, concepts and/or issues with the audience. Finally, the conclusion will summarize your speech and wrap up your presentation.

5. Plan Support Materials and Visual Aids

After you have prepared the outline of your public speech, the next step is to plan and organize your supporting resources for the speech. In academic and professional environments (such as business contexts), it is a good idea to prepare some supporting visuals for your presentation. This can be transparencies, handouts, video, and/or PowerPoint slides, depending on your preferences and the presentation facilities available. Further, it makes the material more understandable to the audience and can be used effectively to support your arguments.

6. Rehearse Your Speech

It is believed that practice makes perfect. By rehearsing your speech, you **develop competency** over your presentation and get used to hearing your own voice. Try to time your rehearsal and present it aloud so that you can **work on your pitch**. You should also **time your presentation** to ensure successful time management. Besides, try to **practice eye contact** during your rehearsals and pay attention to your

posture, movement and body language. By rehearsing before the actual speech, you can identify and improve your weak points and gain more confidence. It is a good idea to rehearse your speech in front of friends or family to practice eye contact in a situation that is similar to the presentation day.

During Presentation

I. Control Your Anxiety

When you are to deliver a presentation before a group of people, it is common to develop a **feeling of anxiety**. This feeling can be due to reasons such as fear of the stage, fear of public speaking, performance anxiety and so on. The level of anxiety can differ based on the size of the audience and the familiarity of the speaker with the audience.

Stage fear can be reduced by getting used to public speaking. It is also recommended that you do the following during your presentation, especially at the beginning, which is the most critical time with regard to anxiety, to control and decrease your anxiety:

- Breathe deeply.
- Remember that the audience is not aware of your weakness (for example, anxiety).
- Speak slowly and confidently.

You should look for opportunities to speak as often as possible, on as many occasions as possible, and in as many different venues as possible.

You should also know how to operate the computer or overhead projector and how the microphone works. Identify the place where you are supposed to stand and know the first thing that you must say. This will decrease your anxiety to a great extent.

To overcome the **fear of public speaking**, as suggested during the ‘plan stage’ before the speech, you are recommended to study your audience and get an idea about them. This helps to decrease your anxiety levels. In addition, rehearsing your speech several times before the actual speech helps to build good confidence and competency levels.

Performance fear usually strikes when one is not confident of one’s competence on the subject matter. Although there is nothing you can do for this during the presentation, the best strategy to avoid such a feeling is to rehearse, practice, practice and practice.

2. Present Effectively

During your presentation, make use of the supporting materials that you have, efficiently. Also remember to:

- Avoid standing in front of the screen
- Point at the slide, not the computer screen
- Maintain eye contact with the audience
- Give the audience time to read the slide
- Use large fonts for the text to make it readable
- Use text that is written in a colour that has contrast with the background

3. Answer Questions Smartly

Always listen carefully to the questions raised. Let the audience complete the question and then start answering. When the question is being asked, you can think of possible answers to the question. If you do not know the answer to a question, be honest and avoid beating around the bush.

Public Speaking Tips and Essentials

- ◎ **Handle questions carefully and smartly:** Do not spend too much time on a question. If you do not know the answer, be honest.
- ◎ **Use appropriate language:** Try to use clear language. Use familiar words and avoid jargons as far as possible.
- ◎ **Note your delivery pace and style:** Do not speak too fast or too slow, or be loud or low. Try to use inflections and avoid monotone. Applying pauses in your speech, in the form of momentary breaks in vocal delivery, helps the audience to follow you more easily.
- ◎ **Pay attention to non-verbal communication:** Watch your appearance, sitting or standing posture, gesture, facial expression and eye contact.

Public Speaking Checklist

Before any public-speaking session, you are recommended to ask yourself the following questions:

- ◎ Have I printed out the outline of the presentation?
- ◎ Have I studied the audience and their needs or demands from the presentation?
- ◎ Have I practiced my presentation with my friends or family to develop competency over my presentation?
- ◎ Have I prepared myself to answer the common questions that may be asked?
- ◎ Have I ensured to be on time for my presentation?
- ◎ Have I dressed smart for my presentation?
- ◎ Have I prepared and brought all the necessary materials and supporting documents?
- ◎ Am I maintaining sufficient eye contact with the audience?
- ◎ Am I moving sufficiently to keep the audience interested?
- ◎ Am I listening carefully to the questions before answering them?

Three Ts of Successful Public Speaking

As highlighted by Ferguson (2009), the 3 Ts of successful public speaking include:

- ◎ Telling the audience what you are going to say at the beginning of the talk
- ◎ Telling the audience what you are going to say in the body of the talk
- ◎ Telling the audience what you told them, in the conclusion

Dos and Don'ts

Clothing and body decoration

Dos

- ◎ Dress comfortably but show respect.

- ◎ Dress for the audience.
- ◎ Wear appropriate clothing.

Don'ts

- ◎ Do not wear too much jewellery.
- ◎ Do not wear distracting colours and patterns.
- ◎ Do not wear jeans.

Rhythm

Dos

- ◎ Vary your pace.
- ◎ Use a rhythm to make your points.
- ◎ Speak slowly.

Don'ts

- ◎ Do not speak too fast.
- ◎ Do not speak in a monotonous tone.
- ◎ Do not rush.

Movement

Dos

- ◎ Move about the space appropriately.
- ◎ Stand in different places throughout your talk.
- ◎ Be visible at all times.
- ◎ Move at a reasonable pace.

Don'ts

- ◎ Do not remain motionless throughout the entire talk.
- ◎ Do not wander aimlessly or because of nervousness.
- ◎ Do not move too quickly.

Vocal

Dos

- ◎ Speak loudly and clearly.
- ◎ Speak smoothly and naturally.
- ◎ Use appropriate intonation.
- ◎ Speak according to the size of the room.

Don'ts

- ◎ Do not speak in monotone.
- ◎ Do not speak at a very high pitch or too loudly.
- ◎ Do not mumble.

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Facial

Dos

- ◎ Smile naturally.
- ◎ Keep eye contact with people for about 5-8 seconds.
- ◎ Maintain pleasant facial expressions.

Don'ts

- ◎ Do not keep your eyes closed for too long.
- ◎ Do not frown too much.
- ◎ Do not look too serious.

Gestures

Dos

- ◎ Use hands naturally.
- ◎ Make simple gestures that match your speech.

Don'ts

- ◎ Do not make distracting gestures.
- ◎ Do not remain motionless.
- ◎ Do not use your hands too much.
- ◎ Do not put your hands in your pockets.

Posture

Dos

- ◎ Stand tall with your head up.
- ◎ Stand naturally.
- ◎ Stand firmly, with confidence and energy.

Don'ts

- ◎ Do not stand perfectly straight.
- ◎ Do not cross your legs or feet.
- ◎ Do not hunch.

S U M M A R Y

Communication is a crucial part of one's daily routine. Nearly 70 percent of the people experience some sort of speech anxiety (or speech fright) before a public speech.

This chapter studies ways of making communication effective. Because communication involves establishing a shared understanding, it requires a platform where meaning and the essence of the speech can be conveyed from the speaker to the audience. As a prerequisite for effective communication, the chapter defines confidence as the belief in oneself and in one's powers or abilities, and highlights the characteristics of confident communicators. Even though public speaking is challenged by anxiety, fear, lack of self-confidence, lack of competence on the topic, poor time management, poor eye contact and poor communication skills,

sufficient rehearsal and following best practice can help overcome these challenges. This has also been discussed in the current chapter.

To ensure effective presentation, there are a number of techniques and strategies that can be followed. By using the strategies introduced in this chapter, readers can overcome the challenges faced before and during public speaking, and ensure a good and effective speech.

The chapter also listed several tips and essentials for public speaking and provided a checklist of questions that one should ask oneself before making a presentation.

KEY TERMS

- Effective communication
- Public speaking
- Presentation skills
- Self-confidence

TEST YOUR KNOWLEDGE

1. What is effective communication? What are the characteristics of a confident communicator?
2. What approaches can help overcome nervousness at the beginning of a presentation?
3. What are the strategies that you can follow before a speech to ensure an effective presentation?
4. How can you control your anxiety while making a public speech?
5. How can you conceal your fear while making a public speech?

FURTHER READINGS

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Rowson, P. (2007), *Communicating with More Confidence*, Rowmark Limited, Hampshire

Chapter Eight

Group Discussion: Honing the Decision-Making Skill

Sumana Shome

“Discussion is just a tool. You have to aim; the final goal must be a decision.”

—Harri Holkeri

“Discussion is an exchange of knowledge; an argument an exchange of ignorance.”

—Robert Quillen

Group discussion involves the exploration, as well as the discovery, of truth through mutual effort and understanding. Much can be gained from the method of group discussion because the interplay of several minds often throws light on what may have been a difficult subject for one individual. Also, the sharing of ideas provides an enriching experience. This is a method for exploring valuable pathways and concepts of thought together, in their relation to living situations and an exercise of cooperative thinking. Group discussions help to summarize the ideas and opinions that a group of informants may come to hold as a group. If approached with the right attitude and bent of mind, the result is a fusion of ideas, where differences are harmonized and collective thoughts get crystallized. The general idea is that each participant has the ability to stimulate ideas in the other members present in the group and that by the process of discussion, the collective opinions become greater than the sum of individual ideas. Group discussions help in problem identification, in clarifying the issues relevant to a particular topic and in the evaluation of thoughts. Participation in group discussion is important in every field. Colleges and universities embark on group discussions to aid students to enhance their interpersonal communication skills, as well as to develop their overall personality.



IMPORTANCE OF GROUP DISCUSSIONS

In today's competitive world, you must develop a brand of your own—a Unique Selling Proposition (USP) that would help you gain advantage over others. To this end, the personality development classes

that are held in colleges help students in identifying their shortcomings and in turn in overcoming them to become industry-ready.

The reasons why group discussion is important are as follows:

- To exchange information and explore newer ideas – Every speaker has an opinion that may throw a different light on the discussion topic.
- To clarify one's knowledge and to expand one's horizon – The brainstorming discussions help to gather more and more information.
- To enhance the listening capacity of an individual, which is one of the most important aspects of group discussions – However, merely listening to what others speak definitely does not help in exploring the discussion topic further.
- To gather the perceptions of other speakers – Knowing what other people think about a particular situation helps to understand the attitude of the participants and the gravity of the situation.
- To change one's perception and ideas about a particular situation.
- To enhance one's confidence with respect to communication (which is the basic feature of group discussion) and to build self-confidence using the very essence of participation—The flow of communication must be such that the points raised by the speaker instantly triggers a response from the members participating in the group discussion process (Fig. 8.1).

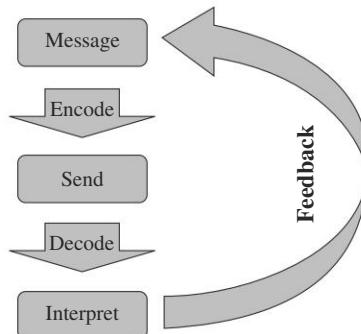


Fig. 8.1 Communication process

- To test one's knowledge and depth of understanding about a particular topic – The depth of knowledge gets reflected while you discuss a topic.
- To not throw ideas without thinking – These sessions help to think critically as well as logically.
- To come to a conclusion (which is a very important feature) – The summarizing of what the others have said about a particular topic helps to arrive at an objective view rather a subjective view.
- To improve the language skills of students – Mock group discussion sessions equip students before they face an interviewer.

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Speaking of the importance of group discussions, one can very well relate to the Johari Window, which was developed by the American psychologists Harry Ingham and Joseph Luft in the 1950s (Fig. 8.2). The model is an important tool to understand self-awareness, personality development, group dynamics and relationships, co-operation and interpersonal development. It gives an insight into the skills, experience, attitudes within or about a person in a given situation.

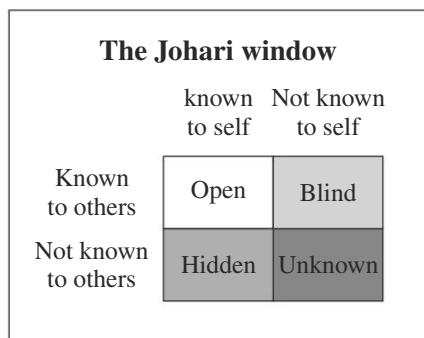


Fig. 8.2 *The Johari window model, developed by American psychologists, Harry Ingham and Joseph Luft (1950s)*

Each of the quadrants points to the area within oneself. You will find how the Johari Window helps in analyzing oneself with respect to group discussion. Each quadrant or ‘pane’ can be adjusted in size to reflect the change in one’s personality in a given situation.

- **The First Quadrant (Known as the Open Area or the Free Area):** The area that is known to others, as well as to the person himself or herself. In a new group discussion session, the Open area tends to be relatively small because the group is new and there is less awareness about it. As the discussion continues, the open or free area tends to expand. This area can be expanded into the Hidden area quadrant following a person’s disclosure of information. With this process of observation and mutual discussion, the Unknown area also shrinks in size. It is that area where communication tends to flow freely due to very less or no conflict of opinions.
- **The Second Quadrant (The Blind Area):** The area where a person does not know about himself or herself, neither do the others know about him or her. It can be referred to as ignorance of one’s own qualities. Non-judgemental feedback and group discussions expand the first quadrant and reduce the size of the blind area. Brainstorming sessions bring out the skills of an individual because sensitive group discussions aid in self-discovery and experience.
- **The Third Quadrant (The Hidden Area or the Avoided Area):** The area where individuals know of their qualities or experiences but hide them from others; therefore, it is not revealed before others. Group discussion sessions can act as an exposure process where individuals experience self-disclosure through the exchange of ideas and opinions about a particular topic or situation. Individuals cannot be forced to express themselves. This is at their discretion. But the open area can always be expanded vertically by free communication and feedback and this can help to reduce the hidden area.

- ◎ **The Fourth Quadrant (The Unknown Area):** The area within one's personality that is neither known to the individual self nor to the others. This area needs to be discovered and explored by mutual and interpersonal communication for which group discussions provide a platform.



PLANNING A GROUP DISCUSSION

Institutions require to plan in advance before conducting a group discussion. The number of members in a group may range from six to ten. It is of prime importance that the atmosphere is congenial before the session begins. The room where the group discussion needs to take place should be well ventilated and lit because the way in which a group begins its discussions makes a huge difference. The individual presiding over the group discussion session must create a friendly atmosphere in which participants feel free to exchange their views. Destructive behaviour should be stopped at the very outset. It must also be ensured that all participants get an equal opportunity to contribute to the group discussion and that no one individual tries to dominate the other group members. The ideas and ideologies of the participants must be respected. The environment should be free from bias and a sense of equanimity must be pervasive during the discussion process. Free flow of communication must be encouraged among every participant so that each member gets involved in the group discussion process.

The rules of the discussion process must be enforced before the session proceeds.



THE GROUP

The group that needs to be formed varies significantly, depending on the subject matter of the group discussion and the specific area that requires to be understood. Considering the preceding issue, there can be two types of groups that can be formed. They are:

- ◎ **Homogeneous Group** A group where the participants discussing a particular topic come from similar backgrounds
- ◎ **Heterogeneous Group** A group where the participants discussing a particular topic come from different backgrounds. This type can be seen in colleges and universities where the group discussion technique is used at a crucial screening level.

The group mainly comprises six to ten members, without a leader. For academic purposes, the group may be given a case study and asked to come out with a solution to the given problem or it may be given a particular topic to be discussed. The group must be seated in a way that every member present can see one another freely.

The group discussion session is usually of 15 to 20 minutes duration. At times, two to three minutes are given for jotting down your thoughts on a piece of paper.

It may seem trivial or rather out of the way, but organizing a group and selecting a group discussion topic requires a considerable amount of time and effort. Because the success of a group discussion depends partly on the participant's feeling of well-being and confidence in the overall process. Therefore, to ensure balance in the overall group discussion event, the moderator has to perform the following tasks:

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- ◎ The first thing that needs to be taken into account is the creation of a congenial atmosphere where the participants can communicate with ease.
- ◎ The participants must be informed of the guidelines for a group discussion much before the session starts.
- ◎ It must be remembered that students may be participating in a group discussion for the first time, and therefore, they must be guided whenever necessary.
- ◎ Because the discussion may involve arguments, the moderator must try to prevent destructive behaviour on the part of some participants.
- ◎ The opinions, ideas and ideologies of each participant must be respected.
- ◎ At any point, the moderator must never suggest solutions to a topic that is being discussed.
- ◎ The moderator must be unbiased while conducting the group discussion.
- ◎ Care must be taken that all the participants in the group discussion get an equal opportunity to express their views on the topic being discussed.
- ◎ Lastly, it must be kept in mind that the group discussion proceedings are not dominated by any one person.



BODY LANGUAGE

It is not difficult to understand how body language and body posture helps in creating an aura of the self and in reflecting the positive attitude of an individual participating in a group discussion process. Creating a first impression goes a long way in enhancing one's self-confidence in any given situation. Positive body language is a signature of positive attitude and security. It conveys emotions, feelings and messages that words may fail to convey. Most importantly, correct body language helps to manage and resolve conflict and aggression, which may arise during a group discussion. Needless to say, one's body language reflects how energetic one is while participating in a group discussion. Let us start with a small parable that elaborates on confidence:

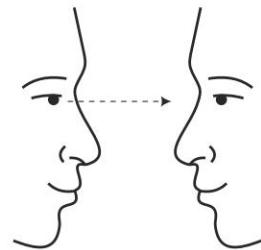
Once upon a time, there was a vendor who sold hydrogen balloons by the sea. He had balloons of various colours—red, blue, green, yellow, and many more. A child once came up to the vendor and asked, "Which balloon will go up as high as the sky? Will the red balloon go up as high as the green balloon?" The vendor answered, "It is not

the colour of the balloon that makes it go high, rather, it is what is inside it that determines which one will go up."

Moral of the story: It is attitude that speaks. Let us not confuse it with pride. More specifically, it is the knowledge within that gets reflected in a screening process such as a group discussion.

It is knowledge that gives one the power to speak with confidence and maintain the right attitude. It must be remembered that actions speak more than words. Our expressions reflect our mind and our eyes are the reflections of our soul. Some tips on managing your body language during a group discussion are as follows:

- ◎ Eye contact is the most important among all body languages. Confusion, lying, not understanding, anger, negative emotions, and so on, get reflected in your eyes. Maintaining eye contact and looking at every participant while speaking is a sure sign of positive attitude and self-confidence. This inevitably creates a positive impression among the other speakers, and creates a feeling of comfort as well. Further, the eye brows need to be relaxed throughout the session. Also, looking around desperately indicates that one is hunting for cues and help.
- ◎ Mastering the perfect body posture is the next important aspect. It would not be right to cross the arms or legs. Fidgeting with a pen and poking the cheeks is instantly noticeable by other speakers. Drooping shoulders indicate low self-esteem, confusion and insecurity about the overall situation. Knocking the hand rest on the chair clearly reflects that the participant is utterly disgusted and is restive during the session.
- ◎ Positioning the head in the correct fashion may sound out of place. But it surely indicates how receptive or commanding one is. To show that one is receptive and accepting what the other speaker is saying, one may need to tilt the head a little once or twice. On the other hand, if one wants to be taken seriously and be authoritative, it would require holding the head in a straight position and keeping the chin perpendicular to the table.
- ◎ The hands must be kept in a proper position. Finger movements indicate how open and receptive one is or how assertive and aggressive one can be. Keeping the arms out on the side of the body indicates fearlessness and that one can confront whatever comes their way. It is said that the more outgoing individuals tend to use vigorous hand movements, whereas the quieter ones use fewer hand movements. However, it would be best if one strikes a balance between the two. A tight fist inevitably creates a negative impression. A gesture made with a downward palm indicates aggressiveness, dominance and command. Openness and friendliness can be shown by making a gesture with an upward palm.
- ◎ Our legs are the farthest from our brains, and, therefore, the most difficult to control. When one is stressed, trying to be deceptive or nervous, the legs tend to move more than under normal circumstances. Shaking the legs also reflects nervousness. Tapping the toes or crossing the toes is also sure to create a negative impression during a group discussion.



Look straight into the eyes of the other while entering into a dialogue



SKILLS ASSESSED DURING A GROUP DISCUSSION

The main purpose of the group discussion technique is to evaluate a person on certain aspects:

- ◎ **Leadership Qualities** The ability to lead a group and inspire the team along to help it achieve the ultimate objective is the primary focus of evaluators. Resolving contradictions and synthesizing arguments is the crux in being a leader. The ability to build consensus reflects the ability to work in a team and the ability to adjust oneself in new surroundings. Also the initiative to motivate others in a group discussion showcases one's leadership qualities. Opening the discussion is not the only way to gain recognition; one must add valuable insight to the topic of discussion. In fact, every member must use every chance to speak, attempting to provide

By initiating a group discussion, one does make an impression because of the ability to grab the opportunity first, because the first person who initiates the discussion is responsible for taking the discussion in the right direction.

meaningful contribution. When there is chaos, the member who restores order is given credit points. Also, when the group loses direction and flounders, the member who puts the group back on track or brings in fresh direction, is also given credit points.

⦿ **Communication Skills** One of the most important aspects of a group discussion is to assess one's interactive and communication skills. Appropriate language, clarity of thought and expression and voice modulation are very important in any group discussion. Using flowery words and jargons (without knowing their meaning) may

not be the ultimate weapon. Instead, the key to effectively communicating with the other person is to listen to that person first, which indicates the willingness to accommodate the ideas and opinions of others. Being assertive is one of the positive points, but shouting and being aggressive surely calls for negative marks. To be able to convey one's opinion in simple language, which would enable others to understand the speaker, requires homework. Else, the very purpose of participating in a group discussion would become futile.

- ⦿ **Interpersonal Skills** The ability to interact with the other members in a group shows one's interactive skills, as well as the willingness to communicate with the other members in the group, in a brief situation. Members must be more people-centric rather than self-centric or egoistic. The ability to listen to others and accommodate and respect the ideas of other people is one of the yardsticks. Emotional balance and maturity and the ability to empathize with the other members in the group promotes good interpersonal relationships. Maintaining calm composure during vehement arguments and remaining objective in providing opinions is one of the basic characteristics of being a good team player.
- ⦿ **Persuasive Skills** It is one of the skills of a people-centric leader to be able to persuade others and get things done from the right perspective. Persuading the group members to objectively view a certain situation or problem using different perspectives and without hurting the sentiments of others calls for practice. It is through persuasion that you can take people in your stride. For this, one needs to be confident and assertive.
- ⦿ **Problem-Solving Skills** Strategically solving a problem shows one's analytical skills at work. The ability to come out with diverse solutions, backed with proper logic and reasoning is indeed important.
- ⦿ **Conceptualizing Skills** The ability to understand the situation quickly, be it day-to-day affairs, and applying it to the management perspective showcases one's conceptualizing skills. It also shows that the person thinks first, and then speaks. This gets reflected when one summarizes the overall discussion proceedings by taking into account the opinions of one and all in a crystallized manner.



DISCUSSION AS AN 'ARGUMENT'

In common day parlance, argument means confrontation or an aggressive conflict with one's adversaries, where the ultimate motive that drives the argument is to win. In an academic context, to argue means to present an opinion or outlook with regard to a situation, through the process of logical reasoning

and supported by real life evidence. It seeks to persuade the other through critical and rational judgement. Argument would mean to hold a certain viewpoint that is supported by rational and critical evidence. The argumentative process in a group discussion technique ultimately leads to the development of ideas, clarification of one's own accumulated knowledge (sharing views and opinions on a particular situation provides a larger perspective) and learning to think critically (group discussions provide for a great learning experience where participants may be inclined to approach a given situation quite differently from what he or she has been viewing earlier).

When participating in a group discussion, you should have:

- ◎ An opinion that is valid.
- ◎ A reason why the given opinion is relevant or valid in the context of discussion.
- ◎ An evidence to support the viewpoint—It could be current statistics or expert opinions, which can further support and strengthen your opinion.

The ultimate motive of an academic argument is to delve deep and explore a question, an area of knowledge or a proposition achieved through mutual understanding amongst the group members. Who 'wins' is not the matter of concern; rather what matters most is the quality and depth of the argument as a whole.



EFFECTIVELY DISAGREEING WITH OTHERS' POINT OF VIEW

Each person who takes part in a discussion speaks with a strong belief about the truth of the statement; therefore, disagreeing with others' viewpoint may be problematic. The situation needs to be tackled strategically so as to avoid vehement repercussions. Some ways are suggested to disprove another speaker's point effectively, but politely, so as not harm the interests of the others:

- ◎ The first step would be to acknowledge the other speaker's point of view by stating, "That is indeed a good point, but"
- ◎ The next step would be to explain why you are disagreeing, by probably stating: "This idea of yours is not supported by... (give statistics or evidence to support your cause)" or "That is not always the case because... (give real life evidence or situations or hard facts that have strengthened your belief)".
- ◎ The opinion that you offer must be complete with rational and logical reasoning such as, "The statistics seem to indicate that ... (interpretation of the real life statistics must be completely yours)".

Disproving someone's point is a direct invitation for a session of counter-arguments. It must be remembered that in group discussions, confidence, sound knowledge (both domain knowledge and awareness about current affairs) and critical communication skills are of utmost importance.



TECHNIQUES FOR INITIATING A GROUP DISCUSSION AND MAKING THE FIRST IMPRESSION

- ◎ **Using a Quotation** Starting the group discussion by using a famous quotation or aphorism is perhaps the best possible strategy. For instance, a topic on the 'The role of Customers in

Managing a Business' can be started with a quotation by Sam Walton (founder of Wal-Mart), "There is only one boss: the customer. He can fire everybody in the company—from the chairman on down, simply by spending his money somewhere else."

- ◎ **Facts, Figures and Statistics** Using real life facts, figures, as well as current statistics, is an important way of initiating a group discussion, but they must be accurate. For macro level figures, one can state an approximate number, but micro level figures must be accurate. Stating wrong facts proves disadvantageous for the member. Facts and figures must be stated only when one is very confident about the statistics. These can also be used in the form of shocking statements, providing a glaring insight into core of the topic—for a topic such as 'Impact of the Indian Population on the Indian Economy,' one can very well start by stating the facts that "Our population clock indicates 33 births every minute, leading to 2000 an hour, which in turn goes on to 48,000 births a day, and it cumulates to 12 million every year, which is approximately the size of the continent named Australia!"
- ◎ **Asking a Question** This does not mean asking a question to any one of the members participating in a group discussion. These questions are meant to promote the flow of ideas. For instance, for a topic such as 'Must countries declare wars in the peace process?' one can start with a question similar to: "We have had four wars with our neighbouring country, but the pertinent question remains as to what we have achieved thus far?" This question can instantly trigger responses from the members participating in the group discussion.
- ◎ **General Statement** Using a generalized statement gives a lot of space for the free flow of ideas. For instance, in a topic such as 'Should Rahul Gandhi become the Prime Minister of India?' one can initiate the discussion by saying: "Instead of jumping to a yes he should or no he should not, let us find out what qualities are primarily required in a person for him or her to become a prime minister, and then we can compare these qualities with Rahul Gandhi's qualities, which would help us reach a conclusion effectively."
- ◎ **Short Story** A short story, a parable or a fable can be effective enough to initiate a group discussion. The most famous ones are the Aesop's Fables, which are relevant even in the modern day world.
- ◎ **Definition** Defining an important word in a topic could also an effective way to initiate a group discussion. For example, in a topic such as 'Ethical Issues In the World of Advertisement,' one can start with the definition of advertisement as provided by the American Association.



SUMMARIZING A DISCUSSION

Summarizing a group discussion is done at the end of the overall process. It is a test of how well one has listened during the discussion and how well one has accommodated the opinions of others about the topic at hand. The following points must be kept in mind while summarizing a group discussion:

- ◎ At the end, it is wise not to raise a new point from a new perspective altogether.
- ◎ The summarization must touch upon the viewpoints of all the members who have participated in the group discussion. It is best to avoid stating only the points that one raised.

- The summary must be very brief and concise. It is a portrayal of one's effective listening and communication skills.
- All the important points that got reflected in the group discussion process must be incorporated within the summary, without hurting the sentiments of the group members.
- It is best to avoid dwelling on only one aspect of the group discussion. It must touch upon all the critical points.
- When the panel asks to summarize the group discussion, it means that the discussion process has come to an end and that all the points need to be summed up briefly and precisely.



UNDERSTANDING YOUR OBJECTIVE IN A GROUP DISCUSSION SESSION

The critical part for a member participating in a group discussion lies in how much he or she understands the objective and mission of the discussion. The first aspect is crucial with respect to one's performance in a group discussion. One must have been noticed by the panel to have contributed meaningfully, logically and reasonably in the session, towards the team's decision and towards building a consensus. The implications of these are as follows:

- One must be audible to the group. If the group hears you, so will the panel or the evaluator. However, this does not mean that one needs to shout or be loud and get noticed for the wrong reasons.
- One must be assertive enough to make one's points clear to the other participants in the group. In this case, it must be remembered that knowledge creates a base in being logical and rational, and provides the power to speak and be receptive to the views of the other group members. The quality of what is being said carries more weight than the quantity.
- The opportunity to speak must be created. One must not wait for a chance to speak; rather, one's views must be given proper outlet at the proper time.
- Speaking the right things at the right place at the right time is an art. Group discussion sessions provide a platform to hone this very art. Right choice of language and speaking eloquently is a critical management skill.



CONCLUDING THOUGHTS

Group discussion is one of the key tools by which your ability to work in a team and to reach a concrete decision that would ultimately help an organisation holistically realize its long term objectives is estimated. The objective of holding group discussions is to hone the skills required to engage every other member in the group, build a consensus, create a receptive environment and resolve the conflicts that are inherent in any group activity. The idea is to create group cohesiveness even when critical differences exist in the individuals participating in a group discussion, owing to diverse cultural backgrounds and perceptual barriers.

The essence of participating in a group discussion is summarized as follows.

- ◎ **Being yourself:** It is often better not to try to be someone else. Being natural carries a long way in creating a first impression in the group.
- ◎ **Being vocal and assertive:** This does not mean that you should shout and be aggressive. It just means making your rational ideas audible to the evaluator. Dominance and bossing surely create a negative impression.
- ◎ **Being an organizer:** Words once spoken cannot be taken back. It is always wise to first organize your thoughts, and then speak.
- ◎ **Being an analyzer:** Speaking without proper analysis and understanding of the topic of discussion can be hazardous. Prioritization of the thought process can lead to better results.
- ◎ **Making an entry:** This can be done in two easy ways – Either the speaker can initiate the group discussion, or the speaker can agree to someone else's point, and then move on to express his or her own views. Valuable insights and correct statistics and alertness and presence of mind about the topic that is being discussed create a strong foothold.
- ◎ **Body language and language skills:** Actions speak more than words, and speaking the right words at the right time is a skill in itself. One must try and create a balance between the eloquent execution of words and the overall body language.
- ◎ **Being polite and remaining cool:** It must be remembered that every group member is conditioned by his or her past experiences and cultural background. The ideas reflect their state of mind. Therefore, it is of tremendous importance to be receptive to others' views and to remain cool. Conflicts will arise but tackling them effectively and efficiently is again an art. The key is to remain objective and not to take the group discussion personally.
- ◎ **Being a motivator and a leader:** The speaker must try and motivate his or her fellow group members to come up with ideas, which is a sure reflection of being a team player and a good leader simultaneously. It is also important to be subtle and accommodative.

S U M M A R Y

Group discussion involves the exploration, as well as the discovery, of truth through mutual effort and understanding. Much can be gained from the method of group discussion as the interplay of several minds often throws light on what may have been a difficult subject for one individual. The main purpose of the group discussion technique is to evaluate a person on the following grounds:

- Leadership qualities
- Communication skills
- Interpersonal skills
- Persuasive skills
- Problem-solving skills
- Conceptualizing skills

In common day parlance, argument means confrontation or an aggressive conflict with one's adversaries, where the ultimate motive that drives the argument is to win. In an academic context, to argue would mean to present an opinion or outlook about a situation, through the process of logical reasoning and supported by real life evidence. It seeks to persuade the other individuals through critical and rational judgement. Argument would mean to hold a certain viewpoint, which is supported by rational and critical evidence. The objective of group discussions is to hone the skills required to engage every other member in the group, build a consensus, create a receptive environment and resolve conflicts that are inherent in any group activity. The idea is to create group cohesiveness even when critical differences exist in the individuals participating in the group discussion, owing to the cultural backgrounds and perceptual barriers.

KEY TERMS

-
- Discussion
 - Argument
 - Communication
 - Planning
 - Listening

TEST YOUR KNOWLEDGE

1. Is it rational to take a strong standpoint, either for or against the topic at the beginning of the group discussion?
2. If you have a lot to say about the topic, would you speak the whole of it or remain contextual and speak as the situation demands?
3. Being analytical and logical or being someone that you are not and give false facts and figures—which one would you choose and why?
4. Are you a troubleshooter or an escapist? Consider situations when you were involved in some group work.
5. How defiant or casual are you in your approach while working in a team?

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Chapter Nine

Body Language

Ambeesh Mon

“Communication is an exchange of information, opinion and emotion by two or more individuals.”

— George Terry

“Communication is not only the essence of being human, but also a vital property of life.”

— John A Piece

Communication has a vital role in building and maintaining human relations. But can one communicate effectively using only words? Definitely, the answer is no. Verbal communication alone is not enough to provide the desired results in the exchange of ideas, information or opinion.

Every part of the human body conveys a message either voluntarily or involuntarily while communicating. Thus the verbal form of communication is complemented with non-verbal elements such as eye contact, facial expressions, head movements, gestures, postures and the like. All the preceding elements constitute body language. It is also important to note that the various elements of body language may be voluntary or involuntary. Movements, gestures and postures made with intention are voluntary body language. Involuntary body language consists of unintentional communication, mainly facial expressions and eye contact.

Assume that you meet a college mate, who was very close to you, after a long time at a beach. What are the ways in which to start the interaction? Some of the possible ways are:

- ◎ He simply says ‘Good Evening’ with his eyes wandering somewhere.
- ◎ He says ‘Good Evening’ with a gentle look into your eyes.
- ◎ He says ‘Good Evening’ with a gentle look into your eyes and smiles.
- ◎ He says ‘Good Evening’ with a gentle look into your eyes, smiles, offers a warm hand shake and hugs you.

Which situation would bring back fond memories of a warm friendship in a flash and why? All the above situations involve the same verbal elements. But the fourth one carried the same two words along with some powerful non-verbal elements of body language. What if he had greeted you in a tone that was truly reflective of his excitement and love?

Importance of Body Language

Body language is an essential element in communication.

Words alone are not enough to communicate effectively. Studies reveal that only 7 percent of the message is communicated verbally whereas the non-verbal elements, body language and tone, carry 55 percent and 38 percent of the message respectively. Therefore, in communication, body language conveys a major chunk of the message.

“Communication is not only the essence of being human, but also a vital property of life.”

— John A. Piece

Body language is communication using body movements in addition to or instead of verbal language.

Body language makes communication more effective.

If one had a better understanding of the meaning of various bodily movements, one would read others well. Also it would help to read oneself well. Proper use and interpretation of body language will help one to influence the listener. Similarly, assimilation and expression of the various elements of body language is a key to intelligent and effective listening. Any undesirable and unfitting element of body language, made unintentionally by the sender or the receiver of the communication, can adversely affect the exchange process. Therefore, a proper understanding of undesirable body movements helps to gain better control over the communication process.

The salient features of modern day life, such as speed, accuracy, timeliness, teamwork, competition and so on, put more demand on the individual to be an effective communicator in personal as well as professional life. So blending the relevant aspects of body language with appropriate verbal elements is crucial to making your presence felt. Now take some of your favourite celebrities and analyse their body language. Also consider some individuals who impress you consistently in the professional and personal circles. You can recognize the power of body language in communication therein.

Problematics of Body Language

Cultural Relativism

The influence of culture on the use and interpretation of body language is interesting and intriguing. Some movements are universal, i.e. these movements convey the same meaning worldwide. For example waving an uplifted hand means ‘good bye’ and clapping indicates appreciation around the globe. However, because of cultural relativism, the body language of a person of one country may be misunderstood by a person of another country.

Consequently, knowledge of the cultural context is also important in the proper usage of body language. This becomes more imperative in the current era, which is typically characterized by transnational and multinational workmanship.

Nodding the head up or down has different meanings in different countries. For instance, in Albania, it means ‘No’, but in the United States of America, it means ‘Yes’. Some gestures that symbolize positive messages in one part of the world convey the opposite or even an obscene

message in other countries. For example, ‘holding the index and middle fingers up’ means victory in many parts of the world. But the same gesture with the palm facing the self conveys an obscene message in some countries.

Ambiguity

Non-verbal communication is not as precise and clear as the verbal one. Therefore, body language cannot be a perfect substitute for verbal language. This brings in some inherent limitations in the use of body language. Apart from cultural context, the physical and social contexts of the action have a bearing on the body language and the way it is interpreted.



ELEMENTS OF BODY LANGUAGE

The various elements of body language are:

- ◎ Eye contact
- ◎ Facial expressions
- ◎ Head movements
- ◎ Gestures
- ◎ Postures
- ◎ Proxemics
- ◎ Haptics

Each one of these is discussed in detail below.

Eye Contact

The eyes play a crucial role in face-to-face communication. Maintaining ‘eye-to-eye contact’ imparts ease and effectiveness in the exchange of ideas, emotion and information. In general, eye contact serves a variety of purposes:

- ◎ Invite attention
- ◎ Facilitate interaction
- ◎ Provide instant feedback
- ◎ Reflect the amount of interest
- ◎ Reveal states of mind

In oral communication, eye contact is the key for the speaker to grab the attention of the listener. Also it indicates the level of understanding and acceptance, thus facilitating fruitful interaction. Feedback is the key to quality communication and the same is provided instantly by eye contact.

In addition, the amount of interest in the speaker, the subject and the way in which the message is conveyed are also reflected silently, but meaningfully, through eye contact. Quite often, the eyes reflect the different states of mind, such as happiness, sadness, anger, love, excitement, arrogance and so on.

Interpretation of common eye contact

- ◎ Too much eye contact is considered an expression of dominance or superiority, lack of respect, threat to or humiliation of the other party.
- ◎ Too little eye contact indicates less attention, dishonesty, insincerity or shyness.

Effective use of eye contact

When you speak or listen, your eyes function as facilitators of communication. It is a powerful device to assure the listener's attention and concentration. Also, you can encourage, appreciate and motivate a speaker with the positive use of eyes.

Facial Expressions

Expressions on the face are second to those of the eyes in communication. Generally facial expressions convey various states of mind and attitudes such as pleasure, sadness, interest, boredom, anger, aggression and such. The first five minutes in any personal interaction are crucial in forming impressions about one another and the face accounts for the most of it. This does not necessarily mean that the initial impressions are not reversed as the communication progresses. A proper understanding of the variety and the use of facial expression is handy in quality communication.

Variety of Facial Expressions

- **Happiness:** A smile generally indicates pleasure and happiness. It is used as a gesture of greeting too, with dilated eyes. Sometimes, a smile indicates sarcasm and aggression as well. In a normal smile, the lips are closed. In a broad smile, the teeth may be visible.
- **Sadness:** Usually, lack of expression is an indication of sadness. Downward looks, lips curled upwards and contracted eyes are typically associated with sadness. Tears and trembling of the lips indicate extreme sorrow.
- **Anger:** A steady, sharp gaze at the offender and gritting are normal exhibitions of anger.
- **Fear:** Open mouth, curved eyelids and trembling indicate fear.
- **Interest:** An inclined head, dilated eyes and slightly open mouth are indicative of interest.

Head Movements

The position of the head and the gestures made with it also convey a great deal of the message in communication. Head movements facilitate both talking and listening. It can be used for various purposes such as expressing attitude and supporting oral communication. Sometimes, it can even replace words. For instance, turning the head quickly away from a person is apt to indicate aversion. So, it is worthwhile to know more about head movements.

Head Positions

- **Heads up position:** It reflects positive and neutral attitude. But an upheld head that is tilted slightly backwards generally indicates aggression.
- **Heads down position:** It indicates a negative or suspicious state of mind. A slightly lowered head indicates humility in many cultures. An individual with a completely lowered head position is showing signs of submission or depression.
- **Tilted head:** It is a sign of interest. A tilted head with a lean forward clearly indicates attraction and involvement. Tilting of the head with nodding indicates active listening.

Head Gestures

- ◎ **Nod:** This is widely accepted as a sign of affirmation or ‘yes’.
- ◎ **Shake:** Contrary to the preceding gesture, this means ‘no’.
- ◎ **Rubbing and slapping:** This signals confusion, forgetfulness and even frustration or anger.

The facial expression that is used with the head movements makes the message clearer.

Gestures

Movements on one’s face, of one’s head, legs and other parts of the body do convey important messages during an interaction. The series of movements of body parts is called gesturing. This particular aspect of body language has been a topic of in-depth research for many decades. A series of extensive studies undertaken by Ray Birdwhistell, an American researcher, is the most prominent among them. This resulted in a new branch of knowledge named Kinesics. This term, coined by Birdwhistell, means the scientific study of gestures (Verma, 2008).

Paul Eckman and Wallen Freisen, two famous researchers on kinesics, have broadly classified the various gestures into five categories (Verma, 2008):

- ◎ *Emblems* consist of movements that are substitute for words. For instance, ‘thumbs up’ means appreciation.
- ◎ *Illustrators* are movements that accompany speech. For example, a speaker pointing the index finger is emphasizing the matter further.
- ◎ *Regulators* include the aspects that signal a change in speech or listening. For instance, in a class room, a teacher pauses for a while before delivering a key point.
- ◎ *Adaptors* include movements that reflect a person’s emotional state. For example, rubbing the hands indicates eagerness, in general.
- ◎ *Affect displays* are movements that clearly reveal emotion. For example, fisted hands indicate aggression.

It is important to note that physiological, psychological and cultural factors have a major say in the use and interpretation of gestures. Psychological aspects such as attitude, personality, perception, motivation and so on, have a greater bearing on the use of body movements when communicating. The case of cultural influences is similar. Whereas some gestures have a universal meaning—for example,

It is relatively easy to notice the influence of body shape and size on the movement of body parts.

‘clapping’ means appreciation throughout the world—some gestures are confined to certain ethnic groups. For instance, in India, ‘putting a hand over another person’s head’ means ‘benediction’. Some common gestures, along with their general interpretations, are summarized in Table 9.1.

Table 9.1 Common Gestures and Meanings

S.No.	Gesture	Meaning
1.	Shaking hands	Greeting
2.	Raising a hand, waving with an open palm	Farewell
3.	Thumbs up	Appreciation

4.	Holding up the index and middle fingers in 'V' shape	Victory
5.	Rubbing of hands together	Eagerness
6.	Yawning	Boredom
7.	Cupping the ear	"I cannot hear you."
8.	Folded fists	Aggression
9.	Raising both the hands with a steady head	Achievement
10.	Raising both the hands with a bowed head	Surrender
11.	Clapping	Appreciation
12.	Hand holding	Affection
13.	Patting the shoulder	Encouragement, support
14.	Stroking the chin	Evaluation
15.	Hands on the cheek	Contemplation
16.	Spitting	Rude, insult
17.	Shoulder shrug	"I do not know."
18.	Scratching the neck	Doubt
19.	Biting the finger or nails	Pressure
20.	Head in hands	Boredom
21.	Hands before the mouth	Insincerity
22.	Rubbing the neck	Frustration
23.	Standing with the hands on the hips	Aggression
24.	Thumbs down	Disagree
25.	Patting the stomach	Hunger

Postures

Posture means the way in which an individual stands, sits or lies down. Gestures and postures are closely related. Researchers say that individuals tend to have a preferred posture and that it is indicative of character (Alex, 2010). Appropriate postures can add to the effectiveness of communication. Also researchers proved that there is a natural tendency to 'mirror' the posture of the other person in an intimate communication. This imparts relaxation to the parties involved in the process and thus ensures more involvement and interest on either side. The concept of mirroring is based on the human trait called 'liking the like'. That is, people generally like others who appear to be similar to them (Peterson 2007).

Posture may be 'open or closed'. An open posture indicates confidence. It is characterized by free arms, open palms and slight forward lean of the body. When one is not confident in the interaction, one is confined to a closed posture, typically indicated by crossed legs and arms.

Some interpretations of common postures are as follows:

- Erect body posture while standing and sitting indicates confidence or dominance.
- Standing or sitting in a sagging posture means depression or lack of confidence.
- Standing or sitting with hands folded on the chest signifies submissiveness.
- Leaning forward in a seated conversation reflects interest in other party.
- Leaning backward in a seated conversation signals a negative or hostile attitude.
- In a seated conversation, a slight sideways lean indicates friendliness.

- ◎ A slump in the seat says that the person is tired.
- ◎ An extremely relaxed position with asymmetrical arm and leg positions means lack of interest or rejection.
- ◎ A moderately upright position reflects enthusiasm and friendliness.
- ◎ Echoing or mirroring indicates smooth interaction.

Tips to improve your posture:

1. Standing

- ◎ Have an upright posture. Both too erect a posture or too much sagging is awkward.
- ◎ Keep the feet about shoulder width.
- ◎ Keep the shoulders upright.
- ◎ Let the arms hang down naturally.
- ◎ Keep the head straight; it should neither be protruding forward nor should it be pulled backwards.

2. Sitting

- ◎ Have a moderately upright posture with the spine aligned with the back of the chair.
- ◎ Align the arms with the shoulder. Do not spread the arms beyond the shoulder.
- ◎ Let the head slightly supported by the headrest.
- ◎ Put the feet flat on floor.
- ◎ Keep the arms and legs symmetrical.
- ◎ Do not slump in the chair.

The preceding steps may be practised in front of a mirror. Evaluating the photographs and/or videos of different postures may be handy for self-assessment. In addition, doing regular exercises to relax and strengthen the muscles of the body is useful to improve posture.

Proxemics

The use of space and distance in interpersonal communication is another important element of body language. An in-depth study on this aspect was undertaken by E.T. Hall, an American anthropologist, in 1963. He coined the term ‘proxemics’, which is the study of man’s appreciation and use of personal space in communication.

The space that one guards during interaction is indicative of the relation with the other person. Also, the way one uses ‘own space’ says something about oneself. Generally, the situational factors, personality, level of familiarity, nature of relationship and cultural and social norms have a say on the use of space and distance.

An appropriate distance between the parties involved in communication makes the process more productive. For instance, if someone comes too close to you than you expect or are used to,

you perceive it as ‘invasion’ and become uneasy. Police officers use this as an effective technique during interrogations to put more pressure on the accused.

According to Edward Hall, interpersonal space can be classified into four zones (Hall 1999):

- ◎ **Intimate zone (0–45cm):** In this zone, people touch each other. All types of romance take place here. Normally, one does not like anyone to enter the intimate zone without permission. Any invasion into this is treated as a threat or irritant.
- ◎ **Personal zone (45–120 cm):** This is the most appropriate distance for one-to-one communication. This distance facilitates earnest interaction. The consultation with a physician or lawyer is an example.
- ◎ **Social zone (120–360 cm):** Here people are generally at an audible distance from each other. This normally comes in group communication.
- ◎ **Public zone (360–750 cm or more):** Here people are at a reasonable distance and the speaker has to be a bit louder—for example, during a lecture in a classroom.

Tips for better use of space:

- ◎ Ensure that there is appropriate distance from the other party when you begin to interact.
- ◎ As the communication progresses, make the required adjustments in distance.
- ◎ Maintain control over the territorial boundaries.
- ◎ Never invade into the personal zone of the other party.

Haptics

Haptics means touch behaviour. Touch is the very first sense that any creature experiences right from the foetal stage. All other senses develop only later. An infant experiences the love and care of its mother through touch. It can effectively express a variety of mental states such as love, affection, compassion, encouragement, sympathy and support. Not surprisingly, the touch factor in communication is a preferred topic of research for behavioural scientists. Rechard Hedin, a prominent contributor to haptics, has classified various touch elements into five categories:

As we grow up, the touch behaviour acquires a wider range of meanings.

- ◎ **Functional or Professional Touch:** This is noticed in professional relations—for instance, a teacher patting the shoulders of a student to signal appreciation.
- ◎ **Social Touch:** Social interactions are facilitated by a variety of gesticulations of politeness, intimacy and mutual trust. A common example is a hand shake.
- ◎ **Genial Touch:** This is noticed in friendship and close relations. Embracing, arm linking and pinching are examples.
- ◎ **Sexual Touch:** All types of sexual arousals fall in this category.

S U M M A R Y

Communication is an exchange of information, opinion and emotion by two or more individuals. It has a vital role in building and maintaining human relations. Words alone are not enough to communicate effectively. The verbal form of communication is complemented with non-verbal elements such as eye contact, facial

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expressions, head movements, gestures and postures and such. All these elements constitute body language. Studies reveal that only 7 percent of the message is communicated verbally, whereas the non-verbal elements, body language and tone convey 55 percent and 38 percent of the message, respectively. So in communication, body language conveys a major chunk of the message. Therefore, if one has a better understanding of the meaning of various bodily movements, one can read others well. It also helps to read oneself well. The proper use and interpretation of body language can help one to influence the listener. Similarly, assimilation and expression of the various elements of body language are keys to intelligent and effective listening. The influence of culture on the use and interpretation of body language is interesting and intriguing. Apart from the cultural context, the physical and social contexts of the action have a bearing on body language and the way it is interpreted.

Eyes play a crucial role in face-to-face communication. Maintaining ‘eye-to-eye contact’ imparts ease and effectiveness in the exchange of ideas, emotion and information. Facial expression is second to that of the eyes in communication. Generally facial expressions convey various states of mind and attitudes such as pleasure, sadness, interest, boredom, anger, aggression and such.

The position of the head and the gestures made using the head also convey a large chunk of the message in communication. Head movements facilitate both talking and listening. Movements on one’s face, of one’s head, legs, feet and other parts of the body also send enormous messages in an interaction. The series of movements of body parts is called gestures. This particular aspect of body language has been a topic of in-depth research for many decades and has resulted in a new branch of knowledge called Kinesics.

Posture means the way in which an individual stands, sits or lies down. An appropriate posture can add to the effectiveness of communication. The use of space and distance in interpersonal communication is another important element of body language.

Proxemics is the study of man’s appreciation and use of personal space in communication. The space that one guards during an interaction is indicative of the relation with the other person. Also, the way one uses ‘own space’ says something about oneself. An appropriate distance between the parties involved in communication makes the process more productive. Haptics means touch behaviour. Touch is the very first sense that any creature experiences right from the foetal stage. It can effectively express a variety of mental states such as love, affection, compassion, encouragement, sympathy and support. All the elements of body language presented in this chapter can be handy in improving your interpersonal skills.

K E Y T E R M S

- Body language
- Gestures
- Haptics
- Kinesics
- Postures
- Proxemics
- Communication
- Personal zone
- Public zone
- Social zone
- Postures
- Gestures
- Facial expressions
- Elements of body language
- Cultural relativism

T E S T Y O U R K N O W L E D G E

1. Discuss the relevance of body language in the context of social communication.
2. Describe the various elements of body language.

3. Write notes on:
 - (a) Haptics
 - (b) Kinesics
 - (c) Proxemics
 - (d) Gestures
4. Present the classification of interpersonal space with examples.
5. Give examples for gestures that are indicative of positive and negative attitudes.
6. What is cultural relativism? Given examples of cultural relativism in which a particular body language has different meanings.
7. Compare and contrast body language with verbal language.

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Chapter Ten

Teamwork and Leadership Quality

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“You cannot be buried in obscurity: you are exposed upon a grand theater to the view of the world. If your actions are upright and benevolent, be assured they will augment your power and happiness.”

— Cyrus the Great (c. 600–529 BC)

People continually are told about the importance of teamwork. From primary school to higher levels of education and professional training, teachers, lecturers, coaches, and consultants admire team structures and teamwork processes as the best solution for challenges to coordination and constraints on cooperation (LeFasto & Larson, 2001; MacMillan, 2001). Yet potential and actual team members often flinch from teamwork responsibility (Bacon & Blyton, 2005), which they associate with inefficient, lengthy and emotionally draining experiences that they endure with fake smiles and hope to escape without offending others (Keyton & Frey, 2002).

It is believed that there is a lack of alignment between what is taught about teamwork and what is happening within teams. Grey (2004) explored two dynamics of this thought. First, conventional management and business communication pedagogy tends to view teamwork within the constraining lenses of its traditions, methodologies and theories (Grey, 2004). The limiting scope of each lens restricts what can be viewed and imposes accepted practices. Second, because conventional management and business communication pedagogy reifies its own traditions, it may overlook or derogate aspects of teamwork phenomena that do not align well with its perspectives (Grey, 2004). The consequences of these two dynamics are that conventional pedagogy misconstrues or massages what is taught and/or neglects some elements that may prove to be relevant to the investigation or instruction. In either case, should learning about teamwork remain primarily within the boundaries of that tradition, the chasm between education and real workplace contexts and dynamics will indeed be deep (Grey, 2004).



CONCEPT OF TEAM AND TEAMWORK

Katzenbach and Smith described teams as specific types of formal groups of individuals who are members of an organization or its immediate environment (for example, partner, stakeholder or supply chain

organizations) and who possess complementary characteristics; share a common goal; and are mutually accountable for their performance (Katzenbach and Smith, 1993). Teams tend to persist over time and over multiple tasks, and, therefore, members develop shared history (Arrow, McGrath, and Berndahl, 2000). Although educators find value in teaching these defining attributes of teams for purposes of comparison with other organizational structures (Devine, Clayton, Philips, Dunford, and Melner, 1999), they do little to highlight the processes of teamwork, to enable members to develop it, or especially to evaluate whether and how they wish to do so.

Researchers have defined some of the critical points that can be considered as teamwork in a team and that must be done by members: (a) share and can articulate a team vision; (b) have defined and valued role expectations that they accept; (c) enjoy considerable role-related autonomy; (d) set high standards for themselves and are self-disciplined; (e) develop a structure that is responsive to environmental demands, yet appropriate for the organization and its environment; (f) conduct significant types and portions of decision-making within the team; (g) share leadership to some extent and/or have a formal team leader who empowers members and works to secure the resources that the team needs to excel; (h) freely share information and interpretations with each other; (i) acknowledge and reinforce others members' contributions and support; and (j) convey and display mutual respect and trust with one another (Hackman, 1990; Seibold, 2005; Seibold, Kang, Gailliard, & Jahn, 2009).



TEAMWORK

Today, teamwork is getting more and more important in organizations. Teamwork is introduced in companies for multiple reasons. Therefore, the targets are building of loyalty, answer to innovative and flexible tasks and efficiency aspects. The interdependent effects of teamwork are felt at the organizational level, group level and individual level. Marosi and Bencsik (2009) explained that the result of teamwork are as follow; quality assurance, accelerate of processes, innovation, more efficient behavioural control, expanded work, development of personality, development of social sensibility, etc. Balancing of teamwork is an assumption or foundation of successful organization work (Marosi & Bencsik, 2009).

Teamwork is a combination of individuals, behaviours, and attitudes that are used to achieve a mutual goal.

However, some progress has been made in recent years to understand what constitutes teamwork. In a sense, teams think, act and feel as they perform their interdependent tasks. These cognitions, behaviours, and attitudes reflect the competencies (that is, knowledge, skills, and abilities and other characteristics) that team members need to have in order to function effectively as a team and to achieve performance that is greater than the total effort of individual team members.

Indeed, the impact of individual skills at best appears diluted if it is without teamwork and at worst appears useless. Alternatively, a strong and effective team can compensate for the lack of skills and experience in certain individuals, as long as they are recognized. Members who have the skills and experience can be role models and 'mentor' those colleagues who are with a less experienced team, and also set the team tasks to maintain appropriate manners and ethics. Good teamwork takes time to build; similarly, it requires continual input of time for it to be maintained. Teamwork should also be tracked regularly to keep up the required standards.

Several researchers have advanced typologies or taxonomies of key teamwork competencies (Stevens & Campion, 1994; Cannon-Bowers, Tannenbaum, Salas, and Volpe, 1995). There is evidence that some of these are essential for team performance (Salas, Sims and Burke 2004), but there is no clear and consistent picture of the core elements of teamwork. There is too much fragmentation and a lack of clarity on the core constructs. However, a close look at the evidence of what facilitates or stalls the development of teamwork may help to point to a more prudent set of core elements. Salas et al. (2004) suggested five critical teamwork components: (a) Mutual performance monitoring, (b) back-up behaviours, (c) adaptability, (d) active leadership, and (e) team orientation.

Mutual Performance Monitoring

“Mutual performance monitoring can be defined as team members’ ability to keep track of fellow team members’ work while carrying out their own. . .to ensure that everything is running as expected and to ensure that they are following procedures correctly” (McIntyre & Salas, 1995, p.23). Cannon-Bowers, Salas, and Converse (1993) suggested that effective teams are composed of members who are aware of team functioning. They do this by monitoring fellow members’ work such that they catch mistakes, slips, or lapses before or shortly after they have occurred. This awareness requires a shared understanding of the task, and team equipment roles and requirements.

Back-Up Behaviour

Back-up behaviour relates to supportive actions on the part of team members. It is a way to monitor one’s own performance, as well as that of other team members. Thus, mutual performance monitoring allows for back-up behaviour to occur. According to Porter et al., (2003): “It has been defined as the discretionary provision resource and task related to another member of one’s team that is intended to help that team member obtain the goals as defined by his or her role. . . (and) often result from a recognition by potential back up providers that there is a workload distribution problem in their team” (pp. 391–392). In other words, mutual performance monitoring enables team members to detect deficiencies or overloads while they are monitoring their teammates and seek assistance when needed. As a result, team members can shift work responsibilities to others when it becomes necessary.

Adaptability

Adaptability comes when mutual performance monitoring and back-up behaviour is optimal among team members. Adaptability is defined as a team’s ability to recognize deviation from expected actions and the ability to readjust its strategies as the task demands (Cannon-Bowers et al., 1995; Salas et al., 2004). In an organization if teams allocate resources, self-correct and redistribute workloads as they progress in response to the changing organizational and external environmental demands, their adaptability makes them invaluable.

Adaptability refers to the ability to recognize deviations from expected actions and the ability to readjust actions accordingly.

Leadership

Team leaders can make or break a team, and are extremely influential in terms of the degree of teamwork that is present in the team. They create, foster, promote and maintain shared understanding to enable effective teamwork. Thus, an effective team leader creates an environment that encourages mutual performance monitoring, supportive behaviour and adaptability. Alternatively, leaders can offer valuable inputs to team processes. Effective team leaders shape the development of shared mental models in their teams by systematically seeking, evaluating and organizing information about team functioning and limitations (Zaccaro, Rittman, and Marks 2001). Leaders in a team can create a mental framework that promotes common understanding and action by interpreting and communicating key information. Thus, effective leaders can help develop team-level leadership that can be drawn from the team in subsequent performance cycles.

Team Orientation

The orientation of the team towards the individual or the collective is the final dimension that is considered to be an essential aspect of teamwork. Whereas the previous dimensions are behavioural in nature, team orientation is attitudinal. Moreover, several researchers have found that those people with an arrogant orientation prefer to work independently; and in a team setting, relative to the situation, they tend to perform poorly and work alone. Consequently, if team members are willing to be collectively oriented and develop a shared social perspective, team performance will be significantly enhanced. Other researchers have recently elaborated on how team leaders can shape or develop collective identities in a team (Lord & Brown, 2004).

Team or collective orientation is the impetus to enhance individual performance through the coordination, evaluation and use of task inputs from other group members in an interdependent manner in performing a group task (Driskell & Salas, 1992).



WHY MOVE TO TEAMWORK?

Nowadays, teamwork is one of the essential methods of effective functioning in an organization that can help the organization to achieve competitiveness by improving productivity, enhancing quality, taking advantage of the technological advances and developing employee motivation and commitment. If an organization wants to remain competitive and at the top, it needs to use a higher range of facilities and people. Research carried out by ACAS (2005) in conjunction with the Tavistock Institute has suggested the following areas that can be enhanced with teamwork in an organization:

- Productivity
- Quality
- New Technology
- Motivation

Improving Productivity

Teamwork can make more effective and efficient use of labour, and can improve productivity by:

- ◎ Maximizing the different strengths and skills of team members so that a greater variety of tasks may be tackled
- ◎ Delegating the order and allocation of tasks to the group, thus avoiding day-to-day problems such as bottlenecks
- ◎ Devolving some managerial control to the work group or the team leader and thus reducing the number of levels of management
- ◎ Encouraging employees to undertake a wider range of tasks
- ◎ Making team members more directly accountable to customers—whether external or internal

Improving Quality and Encouraging Product Innovation

The major driving force behind many teamwork initiatives has been the need to establish quality and customer satisfaction, which is at the top of the agenda of most organizations. The temptation to regard quality as a management-only issue or worse, as a quality manager-only issue, still continues in many organizations; this means that many opportunities to improve quality are lost.

The evidence of self-managed teams and the involvement and empowerment of employees and their representatives suggests that team working can make a major contribution to improved quality.

A survey by the Institute of Personnel Management (IPM) found that about two-thirds of organizations in the UK that were well advanced in the introduction of total quality management (TQM) programs had identified various kinds of teamwork as vital tools for its implementation. The fact that it is TQM means, of course, that everyone is involved and this does tend towards a need for greater and greater teamwork, much of it based in and around problems for the organization.

Increased autonomy, together with training in diagnostic and problem-solving techniques, such as statistical process control, allows teams to take more responsibility for quality. This can lead to reductions in waste, a move towards continuous improvement and product or process innovations. Where teams develop their own recommendations for improvement or solutions to problems, they are much more likely to implement them successfully, because they were invented in-house.

Increased knowledge of the process or service that goes hand in hand with successful teamwork seems to inevitably encourage teams to take a broader perspective. This can help teams to appreciate the wider implications of any ideas they may have for change or improvement.

Technological Advances

Advances in technology in all fields have opened up new possibilities for increasing the range of services. New technology enables the production of solutions that are tailored to individual customer requirements; or at least, the emphasis on customer focus requires an educated workforce and for workers to be more flexible and adaptable and able to co-operate with other workers, supervisors and managers throughout the organization, in addition to improving their ability to operate sophisticated technology. Further, the sheer complexity of operations in most organizations today and the multi-disciplinary nature of many services or products place them beyond the expertise and control of any one individual.

Today, some form of teamwork or joint work is not just desirable but essential and inevitable.

Motivation

Many organizations have traditionally been characterized by monotony and boredom with jobs that are often structured in ways that do not always make the most of an individual's full range of skills. This tends to minimize job satisfaction with a consequent reduction in motivation. In such situations, alternative means of production, for example, robotics or outsourcing to lower-cost organizations or countries occurs at the expense of the traditional workforce.

As a reaction to this, many organizations have required workers to become multi-skilled and more flexible in the way they operate. It implies that workers need to be better trained but also increasingly able to make many of their own decisions. To this end, workers need to be motivated by the desire to do a good job and to be recognized for their contributions to a successful organization. This has led to new emphasis on redesigning jobs to provide greater job satisfaction and improved quality of working life. Organization of work into teams provides an opportunity to fulfill many of the principles of good job design.

These include:

- Variety of tasks – Requiring the use of several skills
- Autonomy – Of the individual in deciding the order or pace of work
- Identity – The task that forms the entire job or a larger part of the entire job
- Responsibility – Individuals accountable to each other for what is produced
- Feedback – Constant communication about how the individual is performing
- Social contact – Constant opportunity for interaction with colleagues
- Balanced workload – Team members helping each other to even out peaks and troughs in their work
- Minimal role ambiguity or conflict – Team having the opportunity to deal swiftly with any problem of 'who does what'.

Introducing Teamwork

So how do you go about introducing teamwork and by extension, use teamwork to increase competitiveness? There are a number of key points to consider:

- Study what is involved in teamwork by researching and visiting organizations that operate in teams.
- Be sure that senior managers know how teamwork will contribute to the business strategy, and are fully committed to teamwork.
- Adopt a participative style of management in partnership with the employees and their representatives.
- Seek to improve employee motivation and commitment.
- Respond positively to any fear among managers and the workforce that is caused by devolving decision-making and having fewer levels of management.
- Plan teamwork as a continuous process where plans are regularly adjusted, as changes are introduced, and subsequently evaluated.

- ◎ Give high priority to good communication and consultation when introducing, and subsequently when maintaining, teamwork.
- ◎ Identify and meet training needs.
- ◎ Concentrate the appraisal process on employee development.
- ◎ Consider whether to make the reward system compatible with teamwork.



HOW TO BUILD EFFECTIVE TEAMWORK?

After understanding the importance of teamwork, the following steps detail the development of effective teamwork, as adapted from the Mike Woodcock: Team Development Manual (1979).

Clear Objectives and Agreed Goals

People need to know what they are to achieve. Further, if they need to be committed to achieving objectives, they generally need to feel some ownership of the objectives. Therefore, to build an effective team, it is essential to set the objectives and goals, which must be discussed and agreed to by all team members. Additionally, if members can be involved in the decision-making process, they will be more helpful and more responsible about their objectives. This will help to develop an action plan that includes what is to be done, when, by whom, and also include a date when the plan will be reviewed.

Openness and Confrontation

Being open and honest is necessary to make teamwork effective. If there is a culture where difficult issues are avoided and not addressed; and if people either say nothing or are destructively critical about others behind their backs, rather than being constructively critical on their face, the quality of teamwork will suffer, or indeed be totally absent. When dealing with difficult issues, team members need to develop a culture that encourages open and honest communication and skills in the constructive use of conflict, active listening, and giving and receiving feedback.

Support and Trust

When there is a high level of trust within a team, people will feel that they are working in a supportive environment, which enhances mutual learning and the achievement of team goals and objectives. However, it is a long way to building trust in a team. If team members are open and honest, a sense of trust is developed that allows members to sustain the team over a period of time. The quality of work that members achieve individually and the union of all team members are of paramount importance.

Co-operation and Conflict

The members of a team need to work together to achieve the identified objectives. All the information and skills are shared mutually. Higher morality will come from trust and openness. The beauty of working in

co-operation is that team members will be able to deal with issues that create conflict more efficiently. The outcome can be productive if proper problem-solving methods are used to deal with differences of opinion, with each party gaining greater understanding and learning something useful in the process.

Sound Procedures and Decision-Making

In modern organizational culture, a decision has to be made or agreed to by the team to achieve a goal. If sufficient information is collected by team members regarding the task at hand, the quality of decision-making is sure to improve. However, members must be able to collect reliable information quickly and openly discuss alternative courses of action. Flexible and explicit working procedures should be in place that is understood by all team members. The decision-making process and the acceptance process must be clear to all team members. Teams should review all procedures regularly and adapt them following experience.

Appropriate Leadership

Individuals who are effective leaders of their team generally have the ability to get the best from all members of the team, and have a leadership style that is flexible and appropriate. A leader is one who is truthful, and clearly explains what the team has to achieve. Leaders must be receptive to other people's points of view, encourage the development of others, and be a positive role model. The most crucial role for external managers and the wider organization is supporting and ensuring strong leadership.

A good team leader will know when and how to delegate the task, provide the appropriate training opportunities and support the team to achieve effective outcomes.

Regular Review

The work of the team and its members and the team's decision in the organization must be reviewed regularly. This will allow team members to learn from their experience and share with other members, and consciously improve performance. The team can be assessed either by asking someone outside the team to observe what members do and how they do, or by completing self-assessment to get feedback.

Individual Development

Another point in having effective teams is to pay attention to individual development. The knowledge, skills and qualities of each individual member are as important as the member itself and also the member's contribution to the whole. It is essential that individuals are involved in new challenges, in taking care of others, seeking greater self-knowledge, attempting to be open and honest, understanding their own feelings, and also in setting high standards for themselves and their team. Leaders can also take interest in team members and help them gain relevant skills and experiences.

Sound Intergroup Relations

The final step to having effective teams is to maintain good relationship with other individuals and groups. The linkage among team members and individuals must be strong; otherwise organizational life

can be affected. Smooth flow of information and collaborative problem-solving can reduce anxiety and can help members achieve a good work-life balance.

Effective and Ineffective Team

Malcolm McGreevy (2006) has identified effective and ineffective teams, which are shown in Table 10.1.

Table 10.1 Effective and Ineffective Teams, McGreevy (2006)

<i>Effective Team</i>	<i>Ineffective Team</i>
People trust each other and seek to co-operate.	The organization consists of warring cliques with low levels of trust.
People are open to constructive criticism and suggestions. Decisions are generally made by consensus.	People feel the need to defend themselves constantly. The leader tends to dominate decision-making and be domineering.
Commitment is high. Participation by members is uneven. People work to shared objectives and process issues are agreed upon. Conflict is worked through conflict is not confronted with differences smoothed over rather than being surfaced and dealt with. Communications are restricted with management by e-mail or memo and the grapevine is overactive.	People work in rigid ways within imposed procedures that may not prove workable or helpful. Communications are good upwards and downwards and side to side. People listen to each other. Peoples' views are overlooked or dismissed.



TEAMWORK AND LEADERSHIP

The importance of leadership in teamwork has been discussed earlier. Zaccaro and Klimoski (2002) explained that effective team performance is derived from several fundamental characteristics. First, team members need to successfully integrate their individual actions. Second, teams are increasingly required to perform in complex and dynamic environments. Team leadership represents a third characteristic of effective team performance (Zaccaro & Klimoski, 2002). Nygren & Levine (1996) mentioned that the conduct of leadership roles in such teams varies considerably from similar roles in more traditional teams. However, the success of the leader in defining team directions and organizing the team to maximize progress along such directions contributes significantly to team effectiveness.

In this regard, much of the research on team leadership has focused on the contribution made by a single leader. However, leadership can also be provided by one or more individuals who are either formally appointed to the role or emerge from within the team. Leadership is important even in self-managed teams, affecting both organizational factors—such as acquiring resources for the team—and team member behaviour—such as encouraging the team to take control of its own activities (Nygren & Levine, 1996). Indeed, the research on self-managed, cross-functional project teams shows that teams are less likely to be successful if they do not have a leader (Cohen & Bailey, 1997).

Leadership Role in Teamwork

The key task for team leaders is to ensure that they build and maintain teams to develop effective integration processes. Thus, the team leader has a key role in ensuring that team members are clear about their shared objectives and are provided with feedback on the achievement of these objectives, and that processes are in place within the team to ensure that team members can share information and ideas and contribute to decision-making.

The leader must ensure that the team emphasizes excellence so that team members can challenge and debate each other's ideas. Conflict over leadership can severely undermine integrated working, because team members are likely to be distracted by conflict and to be unclear about objectives due to the differences in aims among those in conflict. Moreover, team members may not feel safe to learn and participate because of team conflict (Edmondson, 1999).

If leadership is not clear to the team, no matter how skilled or qualified the person is who has this role, his or her efforts would be blocked or not recognized by team members.

Perspective of leadership as an input to a team was the main focus of the traditional view of leadership. In the reviews of the article on team leadership, Zaccaro et al., (2001) focused on the importance of functional leadership in teams. From this perspective, effective team leaders care about the individual's task. So, a leader's primary responsibility is to handle those functions that are missing and are not working well. Although a brief mention has been made of possible team influences on the leader's effectiveness, the focus has been primarily on the influence of the leader on the team's effectiveness. Thus, it can be seen how the common or traditional perspective on team leadership emphasizes the contributions of an individual leader on team processes and outcomes.

Zaccaro & Klimoski, (2002) also defined the term interface that refers to the various ways in which leadership and team processes become intertwined so as to influence collective performance (p. 6). At the basic level, this can refer to how leadership processes influence team performance or how team processes influence leader effectiveness. At a higher level, however, leadership and team processes can affect one another and be affected by prior team performance. At an even more complex level of analysis, leadership and team processes can be inextricably integrated such that the boundaries of each set of processes become fairly indistinct (p. 6).

Team leaders must ensure that the following essential keys are in place in a team:

- Everyone is clear about the purpose of the team and how that purpose is to be achieved.
- People are encouraged and empowered or enabled to communicate openly and honestly with each other, through supervision, support, team meetings and personal example.
- An ethos of support and mutual trust is achieved.
- Individuals acquire the confidence and skills to deal with conflict and differences of opinion in ways that are constructive rather than damaging.
- Each person has the opportunity to have their specific development needs recognized and met.
- There are times scheduled for review and evaluation of progress being made by the team.
- Attention is paid to relationships with individuals, groups and teams in other parts of the organization, and from other agencies, so that good working relationships exist within the wider context, and that team members understand, value and respect the roles of others.
- Their own development needs are recognized and met, and they receive appropriate support.

Leadership and Team Motivation

Leaders can improve a team's motivation either directly by using a number of motivational strategies or indirectly through their planning, coordinating, personnel development and feedback behaviours. Collective team efficacy can be improved by team leaders as a central responsibility (Kane, Zaccaro, Tremble, & Masuda, 2002). Believes of the team members who handle their work and their capability to achieve the goal will make them successful to choose to engage the task (Zaccaro 1996; Zaccaro, Blair, Peterson, and Zazanis, 1995). Bandura (1982) suggested that efficacy beliefs emerge in three parts from (a) a history of successful achievement, (b) observations of modelled behaviour that leads to successful performance, and (c) persuasion and social influence processes.

Effective leaders are likely to use these strategies to build task confidence in the teams (Kozlowski, Gully, Salas, and Cannon-Bowers, 1996). This is a proper model for newly developed teams or new team members to allow them to acquire collective task competencies. These leaders also consider how team members should work together. A leader's actions can establish the interaction patterns, which can be accepted by the team. Team efficacy also originates from leaders who advise their members to work hard and do well.

Furthermore, in the leadership functions listed in Table 10.2, team efficacy can be derived from the leader's effective accomplishment, which can enhance the likelihood that the leaders and their teams will build a history of successful accomplishment and increase their sense of competence. Kane et al. (2002) reported evidence for this association. In their research, they examined the leader's efficacy in completing leadership functions, in the strategies they establish for the team and in their display of

Table 10.2 Leader Behaviour Dimensions, Fleishman et al. (1991)

1. Information Search and Structuring
 - Acquiring information
 - Organizing and evaluating information
 - Feedback and control
 2. Information Use in Problem-Solving
 - Identifying needs and requirements
 - Planning and coordinating
 - Communicating information
 3. Managing Personnel Resources
 - Obtaining and allocating personnel resources
 - Developing personnel resources
 - Motivating personnel resources
 - Utilizing and monitoring personnel resources
 4. Managing Material Resources
 - Obtaining and allocating material resources
 - Maintaining material resources
 - Utilizing and monitoring material resources
-

leadership functions, collective, efficacy the goals and their team's cohesion, and performance on a simulated manufacturing game. Kane et al. (2002) found that the leaders' understanding of efficacy, strategies, and the goals designed by them are effected how they dealt with the team. Their goals and subsequent team-directed actions, in turn, influenced the team's collective efficacy.

Another study by Pescosolido (2001) demonstrated significant linkage between team efficacy leadership behaviour and team performance. He found that even a team with informal leaders, when compared with a non-leaders team, had greater influence over the development of team efficacy. He noted that this initial influence was a task of the leader's own efficacy regarding the team and the leader's behaviour that contributes to clarifying the concept of the team's ownership. Chase, Lirgg, and Feltz (1997) argued that the leader's efficacy expectations affect the leader's synchronization with the team, the goals of the team and the varieties of performance skills that are focused on team achievement.

Dealing with a Project

Interestingly, if you look at any Master of Business Applications class in any business school, you will find that most students are team workers. This is good news, because this bodes well for the future management of the companies that these students will work for. There are many skills and techniques that can help a group understand the concept of teamwork and leadership quality. The following suggestions outline a sample that a student can practice before a collaborative project.

- **Focus attention on the purpose of the project:** In small groups, ask students to brainstorm methods of refocusing a group discussion. Ask students to role-play reactions to statements and list the methods in order of effectiveness.
- **Encourage participation and positive collaboration:** Use active listening, questioning and restating techniques to ensure that students participate and provide

input during group discussions. Encourage students to engage in positive collaboration and referee any unconstructive feedback or personality conflicts.

- **Establish a timeline:** Demonstrate how to create a timeline by working backwards from a deadline. Discuss delegation and prioritization techniques to ensure a balanced, yet productive, group experience.
- **Keep the project on track:** Although individual team members may work on separate tasks, students should be coached to schedule team meetings throughout the project to discuss progress, encourage group feedback and share ideas. They should also be coached to accept new ideas and revisions to the plan that enhance the project.
- **Negotiate conflicts:** Ask students to role-play the differences between affective and cognitive conflicts and practice impartial methods to resolve any problems.

SUMMARY

This chapter has explored the concept of teamwork and how to create a valuable team that gives high quality. Teamwork is a combination of individuals, behaviours and attitudes that are used to achieve a mutual goal. The targets are building loyalty, achieving innovation and flexibility in tasks and achieving efficiency. There are five critical components in teamwork, such as (a) mutual performance monitoring, (b) back-up behaviours,

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(c) adaptability, (d) active leadership, and (e) team orientation. Each of these components helps to build better teamwork. Moving towards teamwork is one of the essential methods to increase competitiveness in an organization by improving productivity, enhancing quality, taking advantage of the technological advances and developing employee motivation and commitment.

After the concept of teamwork and the need for it were discussed, the steps to develop effective teamwork were listed. Having a clear goal is essential for effective teamwork. Members of the team must know about the objectives and goals. Building a culture of honesty and open discussion is another aspect of effective teamwork. Members must learn the culture of the team, which encourages open and honest communication; develop skills in the constructive use of conflict, active listening, and giving and receiving feedback. Support and trust is the next step. Having the different opinion which is conflict and also cooperation with other members is another way to have an effective team. Effective teams should review all the procedures regularly and collect relevant information for better decision-making.

Effective teamwork also requires appropriate leadership, which is the next step. A good leader will know when and how to delegate tasks, provide appropriate training opportunities and also support the team to achieve effective outcomes. Further, each task should have an assessment step, which can help to enhance the quality of teamwork. A team can be assessed either by someone outside the team or through self-assessment and feedback.

Individuals are key components of a team and therefore, it is important to pay attention to individual development towards achieving a good team. The knowledge, skills and qualities of each individual are important as the member itself and the member's contribution to the whole. The final step to achieving an effective team is to have good intergroup relations, which would enable smooth flow of information, collaborative problem-solving and reduced anxiety.

For this to happen, the team leader must ensure that the team members are clear about their shared objectives and are provided with feedback on the achievement of these objectives; and that processes are in place within the team to ensure that the team members can share information and ideas and contribute to decision-making. If leadership is not clear to the team, no matter how skilled or qualified the person is, who has this role, his or her efforts would be blocked or not recognized by the team members. Leaders can improve team motivation either directly by using a number of motivational strategies or indirectly through planning, coordinating, personnel development and feedback behaviour.

K E Y T E R M S

- | | | | | |
|----------------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------|
| • Team | • Teamwork | • Team orientation | • Adaptability | • Support and trust |
| • Openness and confrontation | | • Clear objectives and agreed goals | | |
| • Cooperation and conflict | | • Regular review | • Individual development | |
| • Decision-making | • Sound intergroup relations | | • Effective and ineffective teams | |
| • Appropriate leadership | | • Leadership role in teamwork | | |
| • Leadership and team motivation | | | | |

TEST YOUR KNOWLEDGE

1. Explain the concept of team and teamwork.
2. How would you select members so that the team is capable of carrying out the full range of tasks?
3. How would you introduce, maintain and develop teams in an organization?
4. How would you extend teamwork in an organization in order to realize its full potential?
5. Did you participate in the implementation of a timeline? Did you meet deadlines (as a team member)?
6. Did you communicate your ideas even if they were in conflict with another person's ideas?
7. How can a leader motivate the members in a team?
8. How much information, analysis and interpretation did you provide to the team (as a team leader)?
9. How does an effective leader influence team performance?

FURTHER READINGS

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Chapter Eleven

Towards an Effective Interview: Getting the Best of both Worlds

Khairiah Salwa Mokhtar and Mahmud Sabri Haron

“Righteousness is good morality, and wrongdoing is that which wavers in your soul and which you dislike people finding out about.”

— Hadith narrated by Muslim

“The ugliness of lying is the cause of bringing about all other forms of ugliness. With the abandonment of lying, ugliness is abandoned too.”

— Al Munawi

“Only someone who is sincere recognizes what showing off is.”

— Imam al-Shafi'i

“Hiring a new employee is like a box of chocolates: you never know what you are going to get” (USA Today, 1996: 10). This statement simplifies the uncertainty faced by employers in admitting new staff into the organization. Will the new employee stand up to the organization's expectations? Is the employee be capable enough to do the job as required? Is the employee equipped with all that it takes to carry the name of the organization? In sum, is this employee the right person for the job?

On the other side of the coin, imagine a situation wherein an individual is going to attend a job interview. Having prepared for it by reading books that offer tips for a successful interview and visiting the organization to get a good idea of the type of environment that he or she would possibly be working in, the individual is still taunted by the feeling of ‘having butterflies in the stomach’. Have I prepared enough? What questions will they ask? Will I perform well in the interview? Will I get the job? These are common questions that constantly arise in any interviewees' mind before the interview.

This chapter aims to address the preceding questions and provide an explanation for both sides of the coin, the interviewer and the interviewee. Much of the literature deals with helping job seekers play the interview game and win (Barner 2006, Campion 1997, Hill 1996, Hill 1995). Similarly, numerous literatures are concerned with improving the effort in getting the right person for the job (Sandico and Kleiner 1999, Frankenfield and Kleiner 2000, Barnett 2003, Moy and Lam 2004).

Thus, this chapter provides a unique perspective with the presentation of an easy-to-understand write-up on interviews from both the worlds: that of the interviewer and the interviewee. The chapter begins with the definition of the main concept, which is interview. A good understanding of the concept would assist the readers in grasping the complete meaning of interviews. The chapter continues with a discussion on interviews from an interviewer's perspective. This includes things to do before, during and after an interview is conducted. The same framework is subsequently used from an interviewee's perspective. A number of tables are used to illustrate the key points in an attempt to simplify and summarize the whole discussion.



INTERVIEW:A CONCEPT

Basically, interview is the process of acquiring information. It is an interaction between at least two parties in which one party (the interviewer) gains and receives information about something in particular, whereas the other party (the interviewee) provides it. The perception of an interview, which is often associated with getting a job, is not appropriate. Abundant literature on different aspects of interviews has emerged in the early years of the 20th century (Buckley, Norris and Wiese, 2000). The aim of yielding information is not only for securing a new job but also for several other purposes, including research, guidance, counselling or treatment.

Despite much debate on the accuracy and precision of an interview towards effectively achieving its intended objectives, interview has been found for decades as the most commonly used strategy in personnel selection and collection of organizational information (Muchinsky, 2003, Rynes et al., 2000, Smith and Hoy, 1992). The interview is by far the most frequently utilized and most highly weighted employee selection method (Gatewood and Feild, 1998, Kinicki, Lockwood, Hom, and Griffeth, 1990). In addition, research indicates that structured interviews are valid predictors of important criteria, such as future job performance (Campion, Campion, and Hudson, 1994, Campion, Palmer, and Campion, 1997, Pulakos and Schmitt, 1995). It further indicates that structured interviews increase objectivity and validity towards attaining goals.

Interviews can be in two settings: formal and informal. A formal setting refers to an interaction between the interviewer and interviewee at a specific venue with procedures to follow. The venue, date and time of the interview is predetermined. This form of interview includes the job interview and research interview (elite). In fact, this section focuses on these two cases with an elaboration of the dos and don'ts of an interview of this form.



ONE SIDE OF THE WORLD:THE INTERVIEWER

In a job interview, the interviewer (employer) is in control of the situation and aims to gain a better understanding of the potential employee's background, qualifications and skills. The main aim is to make sure that the selected person is suitable for the job. According to Oxford Dictionary Online (2010), an interview is a meeting of people face-to-face, especially for consultation, as well as an oral examination of an applicant for a job

The term 'effective' means being able to produce expected results or to achieve desired goals.

or college place. It is a conversation between two or more people (the interviewer and the interviewee) where questions are asked by the interviewer to obtain information from the interviewee (Wikipedia 2010).

Research interviews are conducted to get information directly from the source about a specific issue, which is the underlying foundation of the research. The source is the individual who is directly involved in the research process. These individuals are elites who are normally top-ranked government officials, policy makers and top management members of a company or organization. Thus, this form of interview is also called elite interview and is conducted in a formal setting.

In the context of an effective interview, the interviewer has to take into account five main criteria: preparation, which includes before, during and after interview, personality, appearance, punctuality and technical support.

Preparing for an Interview

Preparation is crucial towards an effective interview. Because interviews are all about acquiring information about specific issues, good preparation would definitely help an interviewer to extract as much information needed for the desired purpose. For a job interview, the employer interviews a number of candidates who are potentially the organization's new recruits. Based on the curriculum vitae, the candidates are shortlisted and called for an interview. It is normal for organizations to receive impressive curriculum vitae from applicants, which covers aspects such as education background, work experience (if any) and relevant skills. Interview, therefore, becomes the platform for the interviewer to confirm and validate the information in the curriculum vitae. In addition, interviewers would be able to examine the candidates' soft skills, in terms of behaviour and personality, which cannot be accurately gauged based on the submitted curriculum vitae. Soft skills can often be the determining criteria in selecting potential employees, given a list of applicants with equal qualifications.

Before

Employees are one of the most important assets to an organization (Barnett 2008). Since the recent downsizing exercise, many companies have started placing greater emphasis on finding and keeping the best people. The time and money spent in reviewing resumes and applications, interviewing, training and advertising will all be a waste if the new employee does not work as expected or does not stay.

The staff has a direct impact on the way the organization performs. Hardworking and dedicated staff would definitely perform well and yield high profit for the organization, whereas lazy and non-committed employees tend to show bad performance, which means low or no profit for the organization. Thus, the job recruitment strategy should identify specific areas, expertise, job responsibilities and personalities that the organization needs. It should complement the human resources that the organization has and tally with the organization's vision. The job advertisement should also contain the particulars mentioned so that the organization receives relevant applications.

Job Interview

After the job offer is advertised, the organization receives numerous applications. A filtering exercise should follow to proceed with the right applications for the interview appointment and to reject non-compliant applications. According to Frankenfield and Kleiner (2000), a screening exercise is very

important to be able to get a shortlist of candidates with impressive and relevant qualifications as required by the organization. The shortlisted candidates are then called for an interview. Wheatley (1996) even suggests that an effective employment screening process involves collection of the following: an application form with substance, interviews, aptitude and/or honesty tests, reference checks, drug tests and background checks. In sum, he simplifies the whole process into the following points:

1. Drive the recruitment process from the top. Do not leave it to the human resource (HR) professionals: if people are a business's greatest asset, get personally involved.
2. Target particular institutions and sources of new recruits, make clear the sort of business you are and the sort of culture you have, so people of the right calibre put themselves forward, thus improving the hit rate of the recruitment process.
3. Recruit for the long term: hire bright people with the potential to grow. Learn from those who leave why they chose to go.
4. Be cautious about over-reliance on psychometric tests as a substitute for tough interviews with potential peers and superiors. The best people to judge new recruits are those already out there doing the job.
5. Case interviews and behavioural event interviews can tell a lot: it is not the correct answer so much as the right thought processes, which count.
6. Think of the impression that your recruitment process makes on the rejected candidates and regard them as potential ambassadors for the business [19, p.64].

The date, time and venue of the interview should be determined based on the availability of the organization's individuals who will conduct the interview. Normally it is conducted during any of the weekdays and office hours between 8 AM and 5 PM. This is another important matter to consider, because the right persons as interviewers are crucial to make sure that the right applicants are interviewed and secured for the job. Some important things that an interviewer should do before a job interview are given below:

- Know exactly the skill requirement and job specification for the job.
- Filter the applications.
- Shortlist relevant candidates.
- Call them for an interview.
- Determine the suitable date, time and location of the proposed interview.
- Set the layout arrangement of the interview accordingly.
- Study the background and credentials of the candidate.

Research Interview

A person who is going to conduct a research interview has a list of things to do before the event. It starts with information gathering about the individuals who are called the respondents and are directly involved in the process, including gathering the full name with the right title (if any), current address (work or home), contact number, such as fax number, and email. An official interview would include elites such as government ministers and top-ranked officials. Use the contact number to confirm the information and at the same time, make an initial contact for a potential interview with the elite's office.

The correspondence is often between the researcher and the elite's assistant. In many cases, additional information can be gathered from the assistant. An official letter to the elite should follow with an attachment of a list of potential questions that will be asked during the interview. This is very important because it provides the elite sufficient time to prepare, or at least, to think about the questions. Being high-profiled elites who are always in control of a situation, they would be able to provide enough information as required with prior arrangement. Confirm the interview date, time and location again a day before the interview is scheduled.

What should an interviewer do for an elite interview?

- Gather information on potential elite respondents.
- Make an initial contact with the elite's office.
- Confirm the elite's details with the office.
- Send an official letter requesting for an interview appointment.
- Attach a list of questions to be asked during the interview.
- Confirm the date, time and location of the interview.
- Reconfirm the date, time and location of the interview a day before the schedule.

However, a different approach should be employed if the research interview is for non-elites. These respondents can be housewives, small or medium entrepreneurs or randomly selected people at public places, such as shopping malls, railway station or marketplace, depending on the focal areas of the research. Obviously, this is a non-official type of interview, which takes place at public places or at people's homes, not an office.

Having identified the specific location or people as respondents, an interview of this type does not require the interviewer to send the questions before the date. In fact, the interviewees are not aware beforehand that they are going to participate in a research interview. If you are lucky, the selected respondents welcome you into their house and are as responsive as you may want them to be, whereas, in some cases, you are just not welcome at all and will be shown the door. It is important to have identified more potential respondents if the existing ones refuse to cooperate.

During the Interview

The day of the interview is considered the most important part of an interview process because it gives the employer or the interviewers the opportunity to meet with potential employees face-to-face. Thus, an interviewer should have enough sleep the night before. Adequate sleep results in a clear mind, which helps the interviewer to get the best out of the candidates before selecting the right one. The interviewer should also have a clear understanding of the job requirement. Otherwise, the interviewer could spend hours talking to the candidates but still be unable to make accurate judgement. Being early in the interview room is also important and gives a chance to glance through the applications again. Dress smartly and appropriately to show the candidates that you are representing an organization with a calibre and are serious about it.

Job applications are sent with the main objective of securing the job. Thus, curriculum vitae are normally prepared with exaggerations. Keeping this in mind, it is the task of the interviewer to probe

further on certain issues that look confusing on paper. A regular interview exercise poses regular questions such as previous experience and employment (if any) and reasons for applying for the job. If it is conducted the right way, the interview will be able to determine whether or not the candidate is suitable for the job and has the ability and motivation to do the job.

Different Ways of Conducting an Interview

There are also several other ways to conduct an interview. A **situational interview** is an interview wherein the interviewer presents a job-related scenario to the candidates and asks them to respond. The interviewer may provide several corresponding answers, which have been decided earlier in terms of best and worst answers and optimum order of responses, to the given situation and ask the candidates to rank the options. The response reveals, in some ways, the candidate's personality and commitment to the job.

Game play is another way to conduct an interview. Despite the fact that the name sounds 'not serious', a game play can help uncover the inner traits of candidates. It is predetermined, covering several dimensions of the job, and normally requires the candidates to work in a team, complete a task or solve a problem. This reveals whether candidates actually 'do' what they say they would do in a specific situation at a regular face-to-face interview.

The following are the things that an interviewer should do during a job interview:

- Have enough rest the night before the interview.
- Have a clear understanding of the job requirement.
- Dress smartly and appropriately to show the corporate image.
- Glance through the applications.
- Briefly discuss with fellow interviewers on strategies.
- Conduct a situational interview.
- Conduct a game play interview.
- Give an opportunity to the interviewee to ask questions, if any, before concluding the interview.

Five Crucial Elements of Interview

There are five elements that an interviewer should take into consideration when conducting an unofficial interview. They are the **respondents, location, appearance, personality** and **questions** asked during the interview. An interview of this form requires the interviewer to prepare some contingencies if the respondents do not 'respond' accordingly. Because no questions are sent to them before the date, some are just not interested to be part of the research.

Respondents and Location

Imagine a case wherein a researcher aims to examine the perception of housewives about a certain brand of cleaning product. The probability of getting a response and the cooperation of the respondents is high because they would be comfortable talking about the issue at hand at a very familiar location—their home.

A different scenario may emerge if the research attempts to gauge the perception of housewives on the political participation of women. Because the issue, in general, has no place in their daily routine, there is a high probability that they will decline to be interviewed for several different reasons. Thus, the interviewer should have good communication skills in persuading them to cooperate. The personality and appearance of the interviewer would also contribute to the possibility of them accepting or rejecting the request. An interviewer who is warm, cheerful and approachable has a good chance of being welcomed, whereas an interviewer who is aloof, serious and cold would be treated otherwise.

Appearance and Personality

Appearance can also make or break the possibility of an interviewer securing an interview. For a woman interviewer who is aiming to interview a group of housewives in a remote rural area, being dressed in black or in a dark-coloured suit with high heels and stockings would affect the chances of getting an interview. A male interviewer who has a lot of tattoos and is wearing leather jacket would definitely elicit a similar response. Alternatively, a woman interviewer who is in a traditional outfit with light make-up would have a high chance of securing an interview with the housewives.

Because the respondents have minimum to moderate education background, the interviewer should put himself or herself in their shoes. Empathy is particularly pertinent to extracting information from the respondents as precisely as possible. Being empathetic enables the interviewer to have access to the interviewee's world and emotions. Indirectly, the interviewer uses the respondents as research instrument. Issues such as political participation or the meaning of democracy may scare them. The use of bombastic and abstract words will also make them more inaccessible.

Questions

The questions posed to the respondents should be clear and precise, with words that are easy to understand regardless of the issues being investigated. The respondents should feel at ease and comfortable with the interviewer and the questions. In sum, an ability to establish good rapport is the key to an effective interview.

Things that an Interviewer should do in an unofficial Interview

- Create a warm and lively environment for the interview.
- Show good rapport with the respondents.

- Wear appropriate attire for the occasion.
- Be emphatic to extract precise information as possible.
- Pose questions clearly with 'easy-to-understand' words.

After the interview

Waste no time in selecting the best applicants for the job based on a well-conducted interview. A few days after the interview, the panel of interviewers should meet and deliberate, and finally select the best candidate to be employed. After the candidate is approved, the outcome should be disclosed by sending an official offer letter to the selected candidates, at the right address. Occasionally, some organizations call the candidates to convey the message, which is then followed by an offer letter.

A research interviewer is advised to send a letter of appreciation to the elites whom he or she interviewed. The letter should also mention your appreciation of a further collaboration and networking with them in the future.



OTHER SIDE OF THE WORLD:THE INTERVIEWEE

An interviewee is a person who responds to an interview by giving information (if any) according to the questions asked. As mentioned before, an official interview would include elites such as government ministers and top-ranked officials as the interviewees, whereas a non-official interview would see housewives, small or medium entrepreneurs or randomly selected people at public places such as shopping malls, railway station and marketplace. Whatever the situation the interviewees belong to, they should prepare themselves so that the interview yields the intended result.

Before the interview

There are a number of things that a candidate should do before the interview. This includes preparation, practice and being sure of the date, time and place where the interview will take place.

Preparation

A candidate preparing for an interview should do a background study of the organization or company that has advertised for the job. Being aware of the company's dress code is also important to show that the candidate is willing to adhere to its rules and regulations. Different industries call for different dress codes. For instance, if a candidate is applying for a post as an art director, having an element of imagination in one's attire could impress the future employer and give a good impression of one's artistic abilities. However, if the post in question concerns being a lawyer, a formal and no-nonsense dress code should be observed by the candidate.

Understanding the company's profile, development and achievement shows that the candidate is very much interested in becoming a part of it.

An interviewee should also have well-prepared and organized curriculum vitae. Having one's qualifications and credentials organized in a clean file shows that the interviewee does spend some time to prepare for the interview. This also shows that one is very much interested in getting the job and is looking forward to becoming a part of the company.

It is also a good idea to know the panel of interviewers to be able to address them by their proper names and titles.

Practice

In anticipation of the questions that may be asked by the interviewer, the best way for a candidate to be prepared is by practising beforehand. Using proper words and intonation would make the candidate feel at ease. Having mock interviews with friends or family is a good way to practice so that the candidate can receive constructive comments and can improve performance during the real interview. Otherwise, practising in front of a mirror would also help to increase self-confidence. A candidate should not memorize answers, instead responding correctly and the way the candidate conveys the answer is of utmost importance.

Be sure of the Date, Time and Place of Interview

The candidate needs to be sure of the date, time and place where the interview will take place. One should ask around to make sure that one is familiar with the address and knows exactly where the place is. An approximate time to get to the location at that particular time should be gauged in order not to be trapped in a traffic jam or simply be late. In taking public transport, one has to make sure to start one's journey early on that day so that one will have ample time to rest and gain composure before starting the interview. Being late is a definite 'crime' in attending an interview and the greatest punishment from being late is not being granted an interview. It would mean that candidate just lost his or her chance of securing a job.

Things That an Interviewee Should Do Before a Job Interview

- Do a background study of the company or organization that is conducting the interview.
- Understand the company's profile, development and achievement.
- Be aware of the company's dress code.
- Know the panel of interviewers to be able to address them by their proper names and titles.
- Practice or have a mock interview.
- Bring well-prepared and organized curriculum vitae.
- Be sure of the date, time and place where the interview will take place.

Telephone Interview

Due to many reasons, including geographical, financial and time limitations, a number of organizations opt for telephone interviews to recruit and hire. A telephone interview requires a similar preparation as

with a face-to-face interview, but with a slight change. The candidate should dress as if he or she is meeting his potential employer face-to-face. A copy of the job application and curriculum vitae should be in front of the candidate for quick reference. The candidate should get ready early so that he or she will have ample time to calm down and regain composure. Punctuality is a must and the candidate must be ready to pick up the phone when it rings. Do not leave the phone ringing for a long time because this can be translated as being non-committed and not serious in securing the job.

Being at home does not mean that it is an unofficial telephone interview. In fact, an interviewee must make sure that the surrounding is quiet and clear from any extraneous noise, including that from television, radio, pets and crying children. Make sure that the telephone is in working order and the line has no disturbance.

upon his or her strengths and emphasize the reasons why the employer should hire him or her and not the others. This helps in maximizing one's interview potentials and creating a distinct advantage over other candidates in the market.

One crucial tip: Do not appear overconfident. Sometimes less information is better when compared to an exaggerated claim. The interviewee may want to have a mock interview with friends and family

to be able to improve during the real interview. And whether you believe it or not, it is possible for an interviewer to gain a lot of information about the candidate via a telephone interview. The candidate's level of enthusiasm, intonation and personalities would be evident from the well-calculated and predetermined questions. A shaky voice, noisy background and rustling of paper are among indicators that show that the interviewee is nervous, unprepared and not confident.

Thus, to all job applicants out there: be cool, calculated and confident. The things that an interviewee should do before a job interview are summarized below:

- Treat the telephone interview equally as a face-to-face interview.
- Dress appropriately for self-confidence.
- Get ready early so that you have ample time to calm down.
- Have a copy of the application and curriculum vitae in front of you.
- Be punctual.
- Do not let the phone ring for a long time.
- Make sure that the surrounding is quiet and clear from any disturbance.
- Be cool, calculated and confident.

During the interview

An interview is often considered a door that opens up a world of opportunities to those who are able to excel. This is the main reason for prospective employees to impress the interviewers and do well during the interview. This is also a reason why some applicants have nervous breakdown, feel uptight or panic during interviews. Thus, it is not a surprise to know that there are people who fear going to interviews.

According to Yates (2010: 203):

"There are two terrible places to be during an interview—sitting in front of the desk wondering what on earth is going to happen next and behind the desk asking the questions. The average interviewer dreads the meeting as much as the interviewee, yet for opposite reasons."

Interviews differ immensely from company to company. It can also differ depending on where you are in your career path (Hill 1996). Whatever the situation is, it is very important for job applicants to be calm and composed. When they are called in, an interviewee should greet members of the panel and stand facing them, waiting to be seated. A candidate will often be seated across a panel of interviewers, which gives them an opportunity to have a good look at the candidate. Small or careless mistakes are easily spotted because the focus is entirely on the candidate at that particular time. Appearing calm, collected and confident helps the interviewee a lot in communicating and answering questions clearly and precisely. A little smile does not hurt. In fact, it shows that the candidate is an approachable and warm type of person even in a serious situation.

A **panel of interviewers** consists of a chairperson and, at least, two more people. A candidate should remember to address the chairperson first followed by each of the other interviewers correctly. The chairperson would normally start the interview process by giving a brief background of the purpose of the interview. Some may fire the first question straight away without any hesitation. Answer the question by looking straight into the face of the person who has posed the question. The candidate should return

A smart candidate would try to steer the session to be more inclined towards issues pertaining to his or her strengths. In this case, the candidate would be able to capitalize on it by expressing himself or herself and stating the potential contributions that he or she can offer to the company.

his or her eyes back to the chairperson with an occasional glance at the other panel members while waiting for the next question.

A common interview sees an interviewer asking basic questions, such as personal information, which does not appear or is unclear on the curriculum vitae, reasons for leaving the previous employment (if any) and coming for this particular job interview, to more delicate and challenging questions such as ‘your aim for the future’, ‘how or where do you see yourself in five or 10 years?’ or even ‘how do you deal with an uncooperative colleague?’ A clear mind and confidence can enable the candidate to answer precisely.

Being **honest** is another important matter to succeed in an interview. Often, the panel deliberately poses a number of tricky or hard questions.

Their main intention is actually to gauge the candidate’s level of honesty and integrity, which are an integral part of any company. One should be truthful if one does not have an answer to the questions, and say that in a confident and proactive way. In some cases, the way the candidate conveys his or her answer is much more important than the answer itself.

Listen to the questions carefully and try to comprehend and provide the best answer possible. If the candidate does not understand the questions, he or she should not hesitate or fear to say so. The candidate may want to ask the interviewer to repeat the question to save him or her from giving a wrong answer. Some smart candidates deliberately ask the panel to repeat the question to give them a little more time to formulate the answer.

Bad mouthing the previous employer is not a good strategy to apply during the interview. It gives a bad impression about the candidate and may even affect the interviewer’s interest in considering him or her for the job. If a candidate happens to disagree with the interviewer on certain issues, he or she should present his or her opinion prudently but confidently. It is acceptable to disagree with the interviewer as long as he or she has concrete points as back-up.

Some interviewers give an opportunity to the applicants to pose questions pertaining to the interview and to the organization, at the end of the interview. Many applicants do not have the courage to ask questions and simply decline the offer. This is actually a real opportunity for the candidate to present himself or herself as a mature and proactive individual by posing some appropriate and out-of-the-box questions. Remember that an interview is a two-way process of communication, to acquire knowledge and exchange ideas. If the panel has indirectly answered your questions during the process, just say so.

Things that an Interviewee should do during a Job Interview

- Be calm, collected and confident.
- Smile.
- Try to steer the conversation towards discussing your strengths.
- Be honest.
- Listen to the question carefully.

- Ask the panel to repeat the question if you are in doubt.
- Do not bad-mouth the previous employer.
- Present concrete points when disagreeing with the interviewers.
- Ask pertinent questions about the interview and the organization to show your proactive and mature personality.

The interviewee can mention that he or she had a few questions to ask specifically, for instance, at the monitoring stage of a program, but that they have been clarified in the interview.

After the Interview

An interviewee has no control over the interview after it has been conducted. His or her fate is determined by his or her credentials, performance during the interview and luck. Do a follow-up call to inquire about the interview results a week after the date of the interview.

A research interviewer should send a thank you card or a letter of appreciation to the respondents or interviewees within a week of the interview. This shows that the interviewer appreciates the participation of the interviewees who may have provided information that could prove useful to the success of the research. It also shows the interviewer's gratitude for the time and effort spent by the interviewees for the interview.

Some Words of Advice

Think positive about the whole exercise. To those who were successful in the interview and got the job, congratulations on a job well done, to those who did not succeed and failed to get the job, be positive. Treat the interview as a constructive exercise to be able to do better in the next interview. It is true that it is easy for someone to say 'be positive', 'try again' and many more words of encouragement, when compared to the people who actually experienced it. But it is true because failing to get a job does not mean the end of the world.

Hiring the right employee requires good planning and a series of execution phases. Take sufficient time to research into the skills required by the organization. Preparation for the interview is time consuming and costly. However, it is worth it to avoid hiring the wrong person. A good job description is crucial in the advertisement to filter irrelevant job applicants and to save the company's time, effort and money in conducting an interview. An interview acts as a platform for an employer to probe deeper into an applicant's profile as displayed in the curriculum vitae. In fact, it is important because more personality traits and soft skills of the interviewees can be revealed.

An interviewee has a role to play as well because an interview is a two-way process of acquiring information. Being cool, calm and confident are among the key points that lead to a successful interview. Be honest. In short, the sincerity and honesty of the interviewees determine the credibility of the information gathered and this is pertinent in making sure that an interview is effective and achieves its objectives.

An accurate job analysis is a better indicator of new skills and positions required by the organization when compared to vacant job positions that have laid in the file for quite some time.

SUMMARY

There have been abundant literatures that provide assistance to job seekers on how to effectively deal with interviews and to researchers who undertake research using interviews as a tool for data collection. Similarly, numerous literatures deal with strategies and techniques to improve the probability of getting the right person for the job. However, articles that provide an account of both, the interviewer and interviewee attending an

interview are still lacking. The chapter thus aimed to bridge this gap. It provides a unique perspective on interviews, with a presentation of an easy-to-understand write-up that describes both sides of the coin—the interviewer and the interviewee. In fact, it covers all three important phases of an interview—before, during and after, in order to equip the individual to achieve the objective of attending or conducting an interview. The chapter began by defining the main concept of the chapter: interview. A good understanding of the concept would assist the readers in grasping the meaning of interview. The chapter continued with a discussion on interviews from an interviewer's perspective. This included things to do before, during and after an interview is conducted. Tables were provided after each subtopic to simplify and summarize the whole discussion. The same framework was subsequently used for an interviewee. The chapter ended with some keywords and questions for both the interviewer and interviewee to ponder.

The chapter also suggested that an individual who is attending or conducting an interview should take into consideration all three phases of an interview: before, during and after. Preparations before the interview are crucial to making sure that the individual is ready for it. The individual's performance during the interview is also vital in presenting the best, as well as extracting as much information as possible to select the right candidate for the job. More personality traits and soft skills of the interviewees can be revealed by using the right techniques of probing. Contacting the company or organization after the interview is also important as a follow-up to show interest in the results.

In sum, being cool, calm and confident are among the key points that lead to a successful interview for both the interviewee and interviewer. One should be honest when answering or posing questions. Sincerity and honesty of both parties determine the credibility of the information gathered or given and this is pertinent in making sure that the interview is effective and achieves its objectives.

K E Y T E R M S

- | | | | | |
|-----------------------|---------------|--------------------|----------------------|----------------|
| • Interview | • Interviewer | • Interviewee | • Elite interviewing | |
| • Telephone interview | • Respondent | • Employer | • Effective | • Organization |
| • Appearance | • Confidence | • Curriculum vitae | • Performance | • Soft skills |
| • Face-to-face | | | | |

T E S T Y O U R K N O W L E D G E

1. What is the meaning of an interview? What are the differences between an official interview and an unofficial interview?
2. Identify five things that an interviewer should do before, during and after an elite interview.
3. Why is confidence so crucial in any type of interview?
4. “Having enough sleep the night before an interview takes place is very important for both the interviewer and interviewee.” Why?
5. What advice would you give a job seeker who fails to appear on time at the specified location?
6. What advice would you give an interviewee who has failed to get the job?

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Chapter Twelve

Presentations

Zanariah Jano

“Speech is after all only a system of gestures, having the peculiarity that each gesture produces a characteristic sound, so that it can be perceived through the ear as well as through the eye. Listening to a speaker instead of looking at him tends to make us think of speech as essentially a system of sounds; but it is not; essentially it is a system of gestures made with the lungs and larynx, and the cavities of the mouth and nose. We get still farther away from the fundamental facts about speech when we think of it as something that can be written and read, forgetting that what writing, in our clumsy notations, can represent is only a small part of the spoken sound, where pitch and stress, tempo and rhythm, are almost entirely ignored. But even a writer or reader, unless the words are to fall flat or meaningless, must speak them soundlessly to himself. The written or printed book is only a series of hints, as elliptical as the neumes of Byzantine music, from which the reader thus works out for himself the speech-gestures which alone have the gift of expression.”

— R.G. Collingwood

“There are always three speeches, for every one you actually gave. The one you practiced, the one you gave, and the one you wish you gave.”

— Dale Carnegie

Imagine that you are attending a conference or a meeting. You may see two different scenarios. One consists of speakers who are able to captivate the audience from the moment they open their mouths and who are able to leave the audience hanging onto every word. The other consists of speakers whose eyes are glued to their text or the white screen as they read their speech. Within minutes, the second set of speakers would have lost their audience. So, are the latter speakers lacking in some aspects of presentation skills when they are unable to arrest the attention of the audience and as a result fail to deliver their message effectively? Obviously, they have also failed to demonstrate a part of their leadership skills. After all, most leaders are not born but made. Therefore, when you are asked to

Regardless of your position, whether a student or chairman of a multinational organisation, you are called on stage at some point to make a presentation. It is then that you must demonstrate your skills as a leader in communicating your ideas.

speak in front of an audience, you are taking on a leadership role to inspire the audience in a profound manner. It is an added responsibility on the part of the speaker to deliver a message to generate change whether among the audience or individuals. Today, it has become quite obvious that presentation skills are required in every field of study or work. How effective you are at the staff, board or client meetings, as well as how effective you are at projecting a positive image of your organization, will depend, to a large extent, on your ability to make a successful presentation.



PRESENTATION SKILLS

Presentations are ways of communicating ideas and information to an audience. A successful presentation involves skills that can be learned and developed. Needless to say that effective delivery comes only with good preparation. The term ‘presentation’ often creates ‘butterflies in the stomach’ among many of us, including those who are experienced in making presentations. Knowing a topic or subject well certainly helps you make a better presentation. However, if you want to create an impact on the audience, you must look at the resources that assist in meeting this goal. The following are some pointers that must be taken into consideration:

- Know the types of presentation (monologue, guided discussion and sales presentation and so on).
- Know the content well.
- Know the audience.
- Know the factors that can affect the presentation, including body language and movement, visual aids and practice.
- Know the structure and strategy—design a suitable structure and plan effective strategies.
- Know the various methods of practice.
- Know methods to overcome nervousness.



TYPES OF PRESENTATIONS

Many types of presentations exist to meet specific needs. Some examples of presentations in the business world are as follows:

- **Sales:** Present the benefits, features and reasons to buy a product or service.
- **Status report:** Give details of the progress of a project, a task force or product sales.
- **Persuasion:** Give the reasons or rationale in pursuing a specific idea.
- **Business plan or strategy:** Outline an organization’s plans.
- **Product demonstration:** Demonstrate how a product works.
- **Interview sessions:** Demonstrate the strength or capacity in carrying out the required tasks.
- **Training session:** Impart knowledge to a specific group of people.

After the type of presentation is determined, the content must be prepared well.

CONTENT

The content is closely related to the type of presentation; whether you intend to give a public speech, give a demonstration, share information in a meeting or others. After the topic for presentation is given, you must research the content by using several resources such as the library, online database, working paper or in consultation with the relevant personnel. Drafting an outline by brainstorming the topic with friends can help in generating ideas. As the saying goes, *two heads are better than one*. One aspect that needs to be taken into account is the attention span of an audience. If you are preparing a sales presentation or a training session, a good rule of thumb is to ascertain how much time is being allocated for the session. Then, the content should reflect the time given.

Content is the “essence of a communicated message or discourse, as comprehended or received by its intended audience” (Business.com dictionary) or “the matter dealt with in a field of study” — Merriam-Webster’s online dictionary

AUDIENCE ANALYSIS

Knowing your audience is essential in determining the structure of a presentation. This can be done through audience analysis. Audience analysis refers to investigating the target audience in terms of its demographic information, attitude, interests and dislikes. When you are conducting this analysis, the following questions are always asked:

- Who is my primary audience?
- What do I know about their personalities, professions, cultural background and interests, and how will these pieces of information affect my presentation?
- How many people will attend my presentation?
- What do they want to know?
- What do I want to tell them?
- What complaints do they have about presentations?
- How best can I deliver my message?
- Would the preceding information require me to lengthen or shorten my presentation?

The preceding information serves as a guideline to select relevant content for the target audience. The information is also essential for speakers to provide examples, quotes or jokes, which are relevant to the target audience. Most importantly, you must make sure that you do not talk over anyone’s head (Pfeiffer, 2006). Adjusting the level of presentation to the audience’s level ensures that the message is easily grasped.

ESSENTIALS OF A PRESENTATION

Some factors that influence presentations range from the use of non-verbal communication, simple language, visual aids and personal appearance.

Non-Verbal Communication

In addition to verbal communication, non-verbal communication is also important in reinforcing the message. What is non-verbal communication? The term non-verbal indicates the use of strategies that cover non-verbal activities. There are several strategies that work. They involve the use of body language and voice control.

Body Language

Body language refers to the use of non-verbal communication such as posture, eye contact, hand gestures and facial expressions.

Posture Standing up straight, with weight distributed evenly on both feet, projects confidence. This also signifies stability.

Eye contact Looking the audience in the eye is essential to build good rapport. If you do not look at people in the eyes, people may feel that you are hiding something, no matter what you say. You can start with a few friendly faces, and then spread out to the rest of the audience. Most often, you tend to focus on people in the middle row, ignoring the audience at the extreme left or right. Therefore, you should make a wide sweep (Pfeiffer, 2006) to include the audience in every corner.

Gestures Use appropriate gestures to calm your senses. Use a lot of gestures. Be an animated, dynamic speaker. Vary the force and nature of your gestures. Your audience will appreciate this, especially in the first few moments of a presentation when they are unsure about you.

Facial expressions Smile because it signals confidence, openness and relaxation. Practise delivering a relaxed smile in front of a mirror. A smile goes a long way and helps to win an audience over.

Voice Control

Voice control refers to the way the conversational tone, audibility and firmness of the voice is used to project warmth, clarity and confidence.

Conversational tone is used to gain good rapport with the audience. People love having a conversation and usually do not like being lectured to. Avoid the reading or lecturing tone. Ask questions; seek audience opinion and use short declarative sentences.

Use an audible voice to ensure that the audience at the back can hear your message. Practise with an imaginary audience to check the level of voice projection.

Be firm in order to project confidence. Do not ‘hem-and-haw,’ especially in the opening moments of your presentation. Make your point and then move on.

Simple Language

Your audience will grasp your message if you use the following:

- Simple and clear language
- Short words and short sentences
- Fewer jargons, provided that the audience understands it

- Concrete facts rather than abstract ideas
- Active verbs instead of passive verbs. Active verbs are much easier to understand and are much more powerful. Consider the following two sentences. The first is active and the second is passive. The first is easier to understand, more immediate and more **powerful**.
 1. Nissan sold three million cars in 2010.
 2. Three million cars were sold by Nissan in 2010.

Visual Aids

People receive information in different ways:

1. **Auditorially**—Through the ears, by listening to your message
2. **Kinetically**—Through movement, by observing the gestures and posture when you make your presentation
3. **Visually**—Through the eyes, by seeing the visual aids that you use

Visual aids demand a change from one activity to another: from hearing to seeing. When you use visual aids, you would surely use gestures and movements, which enhance the control that you need over the presentation. The use of visual aids, then, is mutually beneficial to the audience and you. Visual aids affect a presentation by appealing to multiple senses simultaneously, thereby increasing the audience's understanding and retention levels.

Visual aids are among the most common tools that a presenter uses. They are the most effective vehicle for delivering a message and inspiring the audience. The most common types of visual aids are listed out in Table 12.1.

Table 12.1 Visual Aids Commonly Used in Presentations

Type	Advantages	Disadvantages
Flip chart	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Can be prepared before, as well as during the presentation• Can be used to write audience questions and feedback• Can be used for a small group setting	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Can be inappropriate for a large group setting• Would require lots of paper
Handouts	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Can enhance understanding• Can be prepared easily	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Can impede an audience's focus on the presentation because the audience will be busy reading the handout
Overhead Projector	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Can maintain eye contact with the audience because there is considerable lighting in the room• Can be economical and easy to prepare	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Can be difficult to view from the back row• Can be difficult to write on the transparency while it is on the projector• Can be difficult to change each transparency because it must be done manually• Can be difficult to adjust the image, which sometimes is blurry

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Slide Projectors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can incorporate colour, audio techniques and visual images to create an appealing presentation • Can offer the presenter the flexibility to change slides to cater to the needs of specific audiences • Is easy to prepare and equipment is easily accessible 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can consume time because the script, visuals and sound track must be developed • Can cause difficulty in setting up the equipment • Can be challenging to do maintenance on the slides
Prototype	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can attract the audience's attention by showcasing a real object • Can lend depth to the topic • Can avoid some nervousness because the hand is busy pointing and holding the object 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can impede the audience's focus on the presentation if the object is passed to the audience to be scrutinised
Videotapes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can carry both a picture and sound track. The videotape features of sound, movement, vivid image and colour, attract the audience's attention. • Can be used to program an entire presentation, or to highlight certain points 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can be expensive to create and requires experienced production teams • Can be inappropriate for a large group, unless huge screens are provided
PowerPoint	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can incorporate hyperlinks to other sites or video clips, thereby allowing flexibility • Is easy to prepare and edit • Can write on the slide during the presentation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can be detrimental to the non-verbal cues, such as eye contact, because both parties are looking at the intermediary medium

The objective of using visual aids in a presentation is to accomplish the following:

- ◎ Increase retention.
- ◎ Explain new concepts.
- ◎ Summarise new concepts.
- ◎ Present complex data, such as statistics and graphs.
- ◎ Get the audience to look at something other than the speaker.
- ◎ Get the audience involved further.

Dos and Don'ts of Common Visual Aids

There are some dos and don'ts that should be followed when using common visual aids, such as the ones stated here:

- ◎ **Keep the visuals simple.**

Graphs should be simple, clean and easy to understand. Use only a few words.

◎ **Keep the visuals legible.**

The font should be legible even to the audience at the back so that the information can be read easily.

◎ **Keep the visuals consistent.**

The visual aids should be uniform and consistent in their appearance so that there is some smoothness to the message being conveyed.

◎ **Keep the visuals unified.**

Each page or screen should address one topic or idea. This will help organize the audience's train of thought. If you want to move to a different idea, use the next page.

◎ **Use bulleted points and keywords (two- or three-word statements, usually without a verb) instead of full sentences.**

Keywords are easier for the audience to absorb.

◎ **Make the visuals colourful.**

Research has shown that the use of colour affects the human perceptual system (White, 1990). Red, yellow and orange, or other warm colours attract more and appear closer to the viewer than blue, violet and green, or other cool colours. As a result, warm colours are recommended for the foreground and cool colours for the background (White, 1990).

◎ **Use graphics related to the subject matter.**

This will help the audience retain key points. Use pictures with discretion. If the sub topic requires graphics, the inclusion of graphics is mandatory. However, if graphics and pictures are needed only in certain sections, you would have to limit their use only to certain areas. Ask yourself and other friends whether the graphics are adequate or excessive.

Personal Appearance

Personal appearance is important while making a presentation. When choosing the attire, remember who the audience is and then research the industry dress code. If you are in doubt, dress up a bit. Some guidelines have been proposed by Mandel (2000) with regard to personal appearance. The checklist is as follows:

For women:

- ◎ The dress should fit well and should not be too tight. Longer sleeves are recommended to indicate formality. The hem length should not be too short either.
- ◎ Match the colour of the dress with the complexion and hair. Avoid bright colours because they are distracting.
- ◎ Avoid excessive jewellery, especially those that dangle and sparkle.
- ◎ Use simple make-up.
- ◎ Have a neat hairdo.

For men:

- ◎ Use well-tailored suits. Choose dark blues, greys and blacks.

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- ◎ Match the colour of the tie with the complexion and eyes.
- ◎ Ensure well-groomed hair and neatly-trimmed beard and moustache.
- ◎ The shoes must be appropriate, comfortable and well-shined. Ensure that the socks match the shoes and cover any bare legs when you sit down.

Structure

The structure of a presentation refers to the organization of a presentation. It consists of the introduction, body and conclusion. The framework shown in Table 12.2 can be used as a guideline to develop the structure. The framework is based on the nature of the speech, that is, whether it is a time-based, spatial-based or problem-based description.

Table 12.2 Framework of a Presentation

Feature	Description
Chronological	In this case, time is used as a framework. This is useful for narratives, sequences, processes or series of events.
Simple to Complex	These are used for presentations on complex processes or concepts, beginning with simple concepts and progressing to more and more complex concepts.
Spatial	This is suitable for descriptions of an object, an area, a location or a system.
Problem-Solving	This is relevant in presentations related to engineering. It is about problems and solutions.
Pros and Cons	This is similar to compare and contrast. It is used to compare different events, individuals or situations.
Cause-Effect	This pattern organizes information according to the causes and effects of an action or initiative.

In general, every presentation is divided into three parts, regardless of the type of presentation being used: The introduction is a very important part of the presentation, which gauges the audience's first impression of you as a speaker. Use the introduction to:

- ◎ Greet the audience
- ◎ Introduce the subject
- ◎ Outline the structure of the presentation
- ◎ Give instructions about questions

The second part is the content or body, which forms the 'real' presentation. The body must be well-structured and categorized logically, with plenty of carefully spaced visuals.

The following key points are essential when organizing the content:

- ◎ Go at a slow pace to create an impact.
- ◎ Be enthusiastic.
- ◎ Provide time for visuals.
- ◎ Maintain eye contact.
- ◎ Modulate your voice.

- Project warmth.
- Follow the structure closely.
- Use transitions.
- Remain polite when dealing with tough questions.

The last part is the conclusion. The conclusion is used to:

- **Sum up the points**
- **(Give recommendations if appropriate)**
- **Thank the audience**
- **Invite questions**

These three parts are essential in each presentation that is made. They are the parts that make up the whole. As such, each part must be treated with the aim of ensuring that the audience gets the message as a whole.

In this section, the focus is on how to present oral reports for projects in class. Therefore, it is essential to know the proper structure. After the structure is followed, the presentation tends to be organized. The structure of the talk for oral reports is illustrated below.

Title

Purpose: (Why are you giving this talk?)

Thesis: (What is your major argument?)

I. Introduction

- Greeting
- Attention getter
- Credibility statement
- Thesis statement
- Outline of the presentation

Transition

II. Body

A. Main point #1

1. Subordinating point (for example, “According to...”)

- a. Support (for example, statistics and examples)
- b. Support

2. Subordinating point

- a. Support
- b. Support

Transition/Signal markers

B. Main point #2

1. Subordinating point

- a. Support
- b. Support

2. Subordinating point

- a. Support
- b. Support

Internal Summary

C. Main point #3

1. Subordinating point

- a. Support
- b. Support

2. Subordinating point

- a. Support
- b. Support

Transition

III. Conclusion

A. Signal closing.

B. Restate thesis.

C. Review main points.

1. Main point #1
2. Main point #2
3. Main point #3

D. Provide a memorable statement or persuade action—buy product, donate organ and so on.

E. Thank the audience for listening.

The structure is, indeed, vital to guide a speaker in making an effective presentation. With a good structure, you will not deviate from your goal in presenting the right message.

Strategy: Moves in Presentation

The moves in presentation refer to the sequential actions that are essential to ensure that the presentation is well-organized and paced timely. The basic speech outline template for **logical elements** suggests the following:

- ◎ Tell them what you are going to say.
- ◎ Tell them.
- ◎ Tell them what you have said.

The moves, thus, can be divided into three parts: introductory, body and concluding.

Introductory move refers to the initial stage of the presentation. It comprises greeting the audience, introducing self and team members, the attention getter, the credibility, thesis statements and outline of the presentation.

Greeting the audience is essential to create warmth between the speaker and the audience. When VIPs are present at a session, you must know the protocol to address them. A general phrase such as “*Good morning ladies and gentlemen*” is common utterance. In the presence of VIPs, statements such as “*Good morning to the honourable.....*” should be used.

You can introduce yourself and the team members to create good rapport with the audience. The phrases such as “*I am....., To my left is.....*” can be used.

Attention getter is intended to shock the audience by revealing incidents or statistics, which make them eager to listen to the presentation. Attention-getter techniques are always used by the street-vendors who sell medicine in the Asian countries such as Malaysia and Indonesia. You would be amazed by the crowd that they can attract. It is a technique that is worth adopting.

Some attention getters that can attract an audience are: giving startling facts or opinions, asking a rhetorical question, using a quotation or citing a real story.

Startling facts serve to give the audience a bang. Therefore, they are likely to be jolted to the reality of life. For example, if you are giving a talk on promoting a new braking system, the attention getter may be: “*Statistics related to the deaths due to road accidents have revealed that.....*”

Asking a rhetorical question serves to focus the audience’s attention on the topic. This kind of question is posed without expecting an answer; it is meant only to direct the audience to the matter being discussed. An example of a rhetorical question is: “*Have you ever wondered how got its name?*”

Using a quotation by experts in the relevant field serves as a springboard to the topic. An example is:

“We lay aside letters never to read them again, and at last we destroy them out of discretion, and so disappears the most beautiful, the most immediate breathe of life, irrecoverable for ourselves and for others.”

—Johann Wolfgang von Goethe

The above quotation may serve as a springboard to a discussion on letter writing. You can search sites on the Internet based on the relevant fields.

Citing a real story serves as an interesting or a captivating entry into the topic as well. If you are to talk about life insurance, a real account of what is happening in your life as agents will be worth sharing.

Credibility statement refers to the way in which you deliver a presentation. Your expertise in the area must be shared with the audience to ensure that they trust you in conveying the message. In the following example, the aim is to promote a new braking system to the audience. The speaker’s experience in the area of automotive braking system is therefore presented to gain the audience’s trust in conveying the information. The phrase used is “*I am a mechanical engineer, working with the Honda company for.... years*”.

Thesis statement is a statement that comprises the main points of the topic. For example, if you are to give a talk on a healthy diet, the thesis statement would be: “A healthy diet is important because it boosts energy, prevents illness and promotes well-being in all people.” The audience will then listen to these three main points, which are supported by supporting points throughout the presentation. Similarly, the thesis statement for a presentation on Computer Aided Design is formed as “*Current CAD products in the market consist of two-dimensional (2D) vector base drafting systems and three-dimensional (3D) parametric surface and solid design modellers.*” The audience will then listen to the discussion on 2D and 3D products. Another example features a discussion on caffeine consumption. The thesis statement is more likely to be “*I’m going to talk about the beneficial and negative effects of caffeine, as well as discuss the considered safe levels of caffeine consumption.*” The three things that will be discussed afterwards are the beneficial effects and the negative effects of caffeine. Finally, the safe levels of caffeine consumption are discussed.

Outline serves as a guideline for the audience, as well as for the speakers, to monitor the flow of talk. It provides direction to your previous, current and future points. You can project the outline on the screen and say, “*First we will look at what written communication is. Then we shall discuss the basic tips on writing.*” A sample outline is given below:

- Introduction: Written Communication
- Basic tips on writing
- Common pitfalls to avoid in written communication
- Conclusion

The introductory move is outlined as follows:

Introductory Move	Language Focus
Greet the audience.	Good morning ladies and gentlemen.
Introduction of self (optional).	I am...
Introduce team members.	To my left is...
Attention Getter or subject	Statistics about the deaths due to brake failures in road accidents indicate that
Credibility statement	I am a mechanical engineer, working with the Honda company for... years.
Thesis statement	The CBM Braking system features(benefit)
Give an outline of the presentation.	First, I will...

The Body Move features background information, problem identification, causes attribution, solution, experimentation and results. Assume that you have to give a talk about the new system of your company. A draft on the information is given as follows:

Background

Past eighteen months – the Aerospace Products Laboratory – developing a system – permit companies with large, nationwide fleets of trucks – communicate directly to their drivers at any time through a satellite link.

Week of May 18- tested our concepts using the ATS-n satellite & five trucks that were driven over an eleven-state region with our prototype mobile radios.

Findings

- More than 91% of the 2500 data transmissions were successful.
- more than 91% of the voice transmissions were judged to be of commercial quality.

Problem

- movement outside the satellite's broadcast footprint.
- the obstruction of the line of sight between the truck and the satellite by highway overpasses, mountains and hills, trees, and buildings.

Recommendation Overall, the test demonstrated the soundness of the prototype design. Work should continue as rapidly as possible.

We recommend the following actions:

- Develop a new antenna designed specifically for use in communication between satellites and mobile radios.
- Explore the configuration of satellite needed to provide thorough footprint coverage for the 48 contiguous states, Alaska and Southern Canada at an elevation of 25° or more.

The background information refers to a discussion of the background or history of the topic or product. It serves as the initial phase in conveying the basic understanding of the topic. The proper phrase which can be used in the body move is “*You must have heard often about what exactly is it?*” If we are providing the history and the inventor of something, then, we can start by saying “*The idea of this goes back to*”. The points are highlighted under heading “Background” and “Findings” in the box on page 158.

The problem identification serves as a discussion of the existing problems of the product or the current controversial issue.

For the problem identification move, we may say “The main problems about the system are”. The points are highlighted under heading “Problem” in box on page 158.

The solution describes the strategies to overcome the existing problems. We may state “We believe the problems can be solved by”. The points are highlighted under heading Recommendation in box on page 158.

The experimentation describes the steps taken by the company to test the product after the modification of the antenna and the configuration. We may state “We have tested the product after the modification. The tests were held at

The results cover the findings of the tests. We may say “We found that,” or “After the tests, the results yield that

Body Move is outlined as shown below.

Body Move	Language Focus
Background information	The idea of this _____ goes back to...
Problem identification	The main problem about this _____ is...
Causes attribution	This was because...
Solution	We believe the problem can be solved by...
Experimentation	Based on such information, we can make, in such a way.../
Results	We have tested the product after the modification We found that...

Concluding Move features time check, hint of end of presentation, summarisation or review of key points, drawing conclusions, stating wider applicaton of the subject or recommendations and offer to answer questions.

- **Time check** refers to your awareness of the amount of time left to present the remaining points. You can make a mental note of the remaining time and pace your talk accordingly.
- **Hint of end of presentation** indicates the signal given to the audience that the presentation is nearing its closing stage. Phrases such as “*we are almost done*” or “*we are at the final stage of the talk*” can be used.
- **Summarization or review of key points** indicates the review of the main points that have been discussed. This aims to bring back the main ideas into the audience’s mind. Phrases such as “*I have explained... The main...are.....*” can be used for this purpose.

- ◎ **Drawing a conclusion** rounds up the topic. A phrase such as “*Thus, we can safely say that....*” is commonly used to infer a conclusion.
- ◎ **Stating wider applications of the subject, or what is the next step, or making recommendations** refers to the appropriate recommendations to improve the problem at hand or products designed. A phrase such as “*Based on the description, we recommend that.....*” can be used.
- ◎ **Offer to answer questions** refers to the Question and Answer session to gauge more understanding on the topic discussed. You may pose a question such as “*Do you have any question?*”

Concluding Move is outlined as shown below.

Concluding Move	Language Focus
Time check	How much time do you have?
Hint of end of presentation	We are almost done
Summarization or review of key points	I have explained... The main...are
Highlighting or emphasizing key points and benefits	
Drawing conclusions	Thus, we can safely say that...
Stating wider applications of the subject, or what's the next step, or making recommendations	Based on the description we recommend that
Offer to answer questions	Do you have any questions?

In a nutshell, the presentation moves provide:

- ◎ A site map of the journey through the introduction move
- ◎ A coherence of points through the body move
- ◎ A review of main points through the concluding move

Practise, Practise, Practise

Practice can be divided into two phases: phase 1 is to practise on the content and non-verbal cues, and phase 2 is to practise the use of visual aids.

Phase 1: Practising on the content and the non-verbal cues indicates the way in which you practise to convey the right message with the help of gestures, posture and voice projection.

Phase 2: Practising the use of visual aids features experimenting with the setting up of visual aids and using them effectively.

A successful presentation is derived from practising phase 1 and 2 well before the actual presentation. Some suggestions to monitor your presentation are:

- ◎ **Practising in front of friends** to get constructive feedback. Based on the feedback, you can improve your weaknesses in terms of content, transition, gestures, posture and visual aids.

- ◎ **Using a voice recorder** to monitor the pace and tone of your speech. You can listen and make a note of specific areas that need improvement. For example, you may trace some unnecessary filler words such as uhhhhhhh, mmm or okay. You may not be aware that in a natural conversation, you may be using such filler words. Therefore, by playing back the recorder, you can detect the negative aspects of your delivery.
- ◎ **Practising in front of a mirror.** This is a common and traditional approach. The mirror reflects every action and utterance, facial expression and body language. The mirror never lies.
- ◎ **Talking in full voice** to familiarize yourself with your own voice

Remember that practice makes perfect. So practise, practise and practise.



WAYS TO OVERCOME NERVOUSNESS

Before any presentation, even experienced speakers feel butterflies in their stomach. In fact, nervousness is an energy booster because the adrenaline pumps energy and can generate a lively presentation. Some strategies as mentioned here may help in reducing the fear before and during the presentation.

Before the Presentation

- ◎ **Breathing** slowly can help you to relax. It may not remove the butterflies but at least, it helps to reduce it. Remember, you would still need the butterflies to boost your energy.
 - **Walking slowly** can relax you as well. Set the target and walk slowly towards the point. Repeat the procedure. Do not overdo it because you may be out of breath soon.
 - **Yawning** is a good way to relax your Jaws and reduce anxiety.
 - **Eating a light meal or skipping it** until the presentation is over can help reduce your anxiety.
 - **Memorizing the opening** statement helps to boost your confidence in delivering the remaining presentation.
 - **Getting strength from the audience in the first row is important.** They are the emphatic listeners and would provide moral support to you. As you become confident, you can spread out your attention to the rest of the audience.
 - **Knowing more than the others** about the subject matter should boost your confidence. You may notice the presence of some experts; however, they may not have as in-depth a knowledge of the topic as you have. Keep telling yourself that this is new to them as well and that you need to enlighten them as effectively as possible. You will then be all right.
 - **Using slow tempo** of speech can help you to relax. At times, when you are nervous, you tend to quicken the tempo of delivery, which can impede the conveying of your message. A good way to overcome this is to remember to go slow. Another strategy is to have a friend in the audience to signal to you when you are moving too fast. Pre-arrangement needs to be done. However, not everyone has the luxury of having a companion while presenting, unless you have a personal assistant present at every presentation.

- **Moving with your audience** to create a rapport and to enhance the message is critical. If the size of the group allows, walk into the audience as you speak. This will enhance your confidence and lessen the fear.

S U M M A R Y

The chapter studied presentation as a way of communicating ideas and information to an audience. A successful presentation involves skills that can be learned and developed, and effective delivery comes only with good preparation. The choices that you make in each presentation are affected by the type of presentation, content, audience, factors affecting the presentation, structure and strategy, practice and ways of overcoming nervousness.

In today's world, various types of presentations are made, ranging from sales presentations, oral reports, persuasion to training sessions. After the type of presentation is determined, the content of the presentation must be made to suit the audience. Therefore, audience analysis should be conducted to explore the audience's characteristics. Then the content should be adapted to the audience's belief, experience, level and interest.

Factors such as non-verbal communication, level of language, visual aids and personal appearance should be considered as well when making the presentation. Non-verbal communication focuses on two aspects: body language and voice control. Good use of body language includes the use of facial expressions, gestures, posture and eye contact. Voice control includes the way the conversational tone, audibility and firmness of the voice is used to project warmth, clarity and confidence.

Simple, clear language with fewer jargons should be used throughout the presentation to ensure that the audience can grasp the content well. Using visuals also helps to increase the audience's understanding and retention levels. Different types of visual aids can be used, but you need to explore the strength and drawbacks of each type as well. Some guidelines on personal appearance should be heeded to ensure a successful presentation.

Structure and strategy offer ways in which to prepare the stages of the presentation, ranging from introduction, body to the conclusion. Strategy includes three moves: introductory move, body move and concluding move. Compliance with proper structure and strategy ensured smooth and effective delivery of the subject matter. In addition, a two-phase practice (content and visual aids usage) is essential to generate confidence. Practice makes perfect.

Lastly, some strategies may help in reducing fear before and during the presentation. Before the presentation: Breathing slowly, walking slowly and lightly, yawning and eating a light meal or skipping it can help reduce anxiety. During the presentation: Memorizing the opening, getting strength from the audience in the first row, feeling that you know more than the others on the subject matter, using slow speech tempo and moving towards the audience can also help in lessening the fear.

K E Y T E R M S

- | | | | |
|-----------------------|---------------|---------------------|---------------|
| • Presentation skills | • Content | • Audience analysis | • Structure |
| • Strategy moves | • Visual aids | • Practice | • Nervousness |

TEST YOUR KNOWLEDGE

1. What is a presentation? What are the elements involved in a presentation?
2. List the types of presentation.
3. What sources can you use to find content? How much content is adequate?
4. Explain the importance of knowing your audience.
5. What are the factors that influence presentations?
6. What are the elements of presentation moves? Give an example of each. Explain the importance of each move.
7. Why are visual aids important in a presentation?
8. Describe three ways to practise for your presentation.
9. Elaborate some of the ways to overcome nervousness. Based on your personal experience, which ones do you often adopt for your presentation?

FURTHER READINGS

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Chapter Thirteen

Etiquette and Manners

Asis Kumar Pain

“Don’t reserve your best behaviour for special occasions. You can’t have two sets of manners, two social codes—one for those you admire and want to impress, another for those whom you consider unimportant. You must be the same to all people.”

— Lillian Eichler Watson

In this world, virtually every aspect of our culture is influenced, if not controlled, be it for good or bad. A shrinking globe and instant communication systems mean that a frequent need arises to respond to difficult situations involving cultural clashes and racial and ethnic diversity. To ensure complete harmony in such social situations, it is considered essential to acquire skills, good manners, civility and most importantly etiquette.

However, when you examine this most important element from a social perspective, you find that it suffers from a substantial degree of ambiguity. Etiquette implies a great bother about trifles, which in common parlance seems unimportant. Still these finical and superfluous (which connote weakness) attitude casts strong negative impacts on the forward march of a nation.

Despite its unimportance, etiquette is of significance in a person’s life, because a life without trifles is unheard of. Therefore, despite the inherent drawbacks, the rules of etiquette—new and old—must be learned.

Etiquette transcends from kindness and respect, which are based on good manners. Manners institute guidelines of general behaviour, such as treating the elderly with respect and courtesy. For those who are somewhat conversant with the normal rules of etiquette, there is a need for some degree of adaptation to keep pace in this rapidly changing world.

From a broader perspective, the rules of etiquette are found to be constantly changing. Further, these rules are different in different spheres of social life because one cannot expect the same set of etiquette to be applied in school as well as in office. From a social perspective, the rules of etiquette are broadly classified into two basic types: Home etiquette and business etiquette. Besides this, etiquette related to dining, correspondence, interactions and games must also be looked into separately.

This chapter tries to explain the rules that govern each and every human situation. Knowledge of such rules ensures their optimal usage and helps appropriate conduct in appropriate situations.

Home Etiquette

It is at home where manners, the cornerstone for home etiquette, are learnt. It is at home where manners, the cornerstone for home etiquettes are learnt. Armed with these manners, humans ensured security with respect of their food requirements that in return allowed them enhanced leisure time. Thus, a greater sense of security prevailed in their lives. This certainty led to a big change in the way they lived. Having satisfied the basic requirements of life, humans thereupon, concentrated on strengthening the social fabric of their lives. Thus, ways of interacting with one another, which aimed at minimizing constraints such as fights with each other, anger and unnecessary confusion evolved. However, other than at home, no other place is suitable for initiation of such ways. Over the years, these rules got modified substantially as ways of living changed, but the basics remained the same as ever before. Two basic aspects define these rules—treating people with respect and interacting kindly always.

Home etiquette had its origins almost 11,000 years ago when humans transcended from being a nomadic species that roamed around forests, hills and mountains looking for food, to building a fixed place of habitation where, through planting of seeds and by domestication of specific animals, a certainty in their lifestyle occurred.

These basics entail providing training in etiquette at a very early age because children possess basic, uncluttered wisdom. Imparting such training enables interaction with children, whereby the underlying reasons for teaching them also gets clear. Children's questions may be blunt and basic, but often they want to know the same things as adults do. Any comment from a new learner that challenges the rules enables proper reassessment of the matter and enables complete understanding of the issue. When the set of rules becomes acceptable to the new learner or child, he or she will attain self-confidence, be more at ease and also be able to make the people around them at ease, because they are well-versed with the behaviour required for different occasions.

However, the interactions between a child and an adult may cause some upheavals because each of them thinks of the other as alien. Such discomfiture, generally called shyness, can be reduced substantially by following two basic rules—both the child and the adult need to focus on the other rather than on themselves and for the child, standing up before the interaction with the adult helps break the ice in the interaction. A casual interactive session must be enabled between the two. Besides, young people need to be aware of some of their mannerisms that they usually use without thinking. For example, it is rude for a child not to use a prefix or more specifically an honorific before the first name of the adult, while interacting.

Table Manners

Another important part of home etiquette is to understand table manners. It is mostly a matter of knowing the rules—most of which are based on plain common sense—and avoiding the most obvious mistakes. Good dining etiquette requires awareness of the basics. These basics are with regard to cutlery, napkin, posture, chewing and table etiquette and breaking bread etiquette. When it comes to cutlery, proper etiquette involves correct usage of the implements; for the napkin, it involves its proper placement; for posture, it refers to sitting straight with the elbows off the table and the hands on the lap. Apart from these, those involving speed of dining should preferably be in line with the other, because dining partners usually have the same number of courses and therefore,

Chewing etiquette refers to the mouth not being kept open with food inside, no matter how urgent the situation is.

should start and finish each one at about the same time. Besides, it is considered bad manners to smoke in between these courses. It is preferable to wait until the meal is over and, thereafter, on taking permission from the other dining partner, to smoke by using an ashtray. Another very important aspect of table manners is to keep off any items that are not related to dining from the dining table.

Business Etiquette

In a globalized marketplace, more and more organizations are conducting business across cultures. This has brought about the need for increased awareness about the business etiquette that exists in various cultures, especially the West. Business etiquette is vitally important for creating a harmonious work environment and for representing the person's company in the best manner possible.

Although many people consider their technical skills and intelligence to be their most important job qualifications, many employers consider the ability to get along well with colleagues and clients even more important. Being well mannered means two things above all else: respecting others and treating people with courtesy and kindness. The need for these manners arises because as representatives of a company, individuals stand not only for themselves, but also for the company as a whole. Therefore, an attitude that is poised, courteous and respectful to the company's clients earns approving judgement to other employees of that company. Being inconsiderate, insolent, and rude to your company's clients can lead to a situation that has a negative bearing on the job.

Thus, acting with grace and tact becomes crucial in serving a company that again involves three basic rules to be followed. These are making a positive impression on colleagues, working well in a diverse environment and having a good workplace dressing sense.

Regarding the first behaviour, it is quite natural that a considerate behaviour in office and while interacting with clients makes a big impression due to its instantly recognizable nature. As a result, it becomes beneficial to both the individual and to the company. When a courteous employee interacts with others, including his or her peers, staff and superiors, his or her grace lends an air of professionalism to the workplace that others emulate in due course, which in turn entails a favourable business environment to that employer. Some companies resort to rules so as to inculcate appropriate business manners. But to implement them becomes a challenge in reality. Instead, incorporating rules through constant practice of good manners is considered much easier.

As for the golden rules of professional interactions, giving a polished introduction, mastering the art of conversation in person and on the phone, taking care when using technology, behaving in the same manner, whatever be the physical location of the business and overcoming the challenges of work are considered some of the essential prerequisites.

Polished Introductions

In the business world, interactions with new people occur at all times for innumerable business reasons and in various situations. Therefore, such an introduction needs to evoke a general feeling of ease and an amicable atmosphere in the given surroundings. Such a skill set can be acquired by improving the ability to remember names, by shaking hands at the appropriate moment and by graciously accepting a business card from the client or guest. A graceful introduction enables you to create a good impression on the business guest and also gives the required confidence and power to nurture and initiate long-standing business relationships.

Mastering the Art of Business Conversations

A conversation happens when two or more people discuss a topic, share information, exchange ideas and give one another an opportunity to contribute. Thus, a conversation is an essential prerequisite for finding out what other people are thinking and what their needs are. In the case of business too, conversation is of immense importance because mutually beneficial business deals are struck usually through smart conversations. Therefore, such conversations should essentially create lasting impressions. And herein comes the exercise of good manners, which helps improve work relationships and business contracts.

Mastering the Art of Business Writing

It is through business correspondence that business professionals can explain their business objectives explicitly to potential clients. Such correspondence is a reflection of the company's profile. It is therefore of enormous importance to make sure that such correspondences are professional in nature. Such professionalism can be accomplished through selection of appropriate stationery, drafting correct business letters and sending thank-you notes to the potential clientele. Such gestures create a perfect impression about the company. The present dependency on emails also merits some additional features to be incorporated because these are immediate and personable in nature.

Taking Care When Using Communication Techniques

For quite some now, the use of computers and the Internet has intermingled intricately with the business dealings of companies all over the world. Though the use of technology has led to the application of new rules of etiquette, termed as netiquette, the old rules of etiquette are equally applicable, because basic courtesy implies making others feel comfortable and satisfying others' needs in the first place. However, experience has shown that such interactions are abused substantially and thus, appropriate steps must be taken to rectify them.

The next rule that needs to be followed is working effectively in diverse environments. This diversity could be physical abilities, races, ethnicities and gender. When you work in such diverse environments, there should not be any scope for misunderstandings, thoughtlessness and poor attitudes, because these can create barriers among colleagues and result in a substantial degree of fear, hurt and isolation. Thus, the use of appropriate language in professional interaction becomes essential for respectful and dignified communication. Also, for all employees, education supplemented with considerate thought becomes a prerequisite to remove misunderstandings and unnecessary discrimination at the workplace.

The difference in netiquette is that interactions happen on a real-time basis and therefore, the same courtesy must be shown when interacting with a person or a business professional as is done face to face.

The behaviour of an individual in company parties, as well as at the boardroom, is observed and judged by employers, clients and co-workers on a regular basis. If you want this to work to your advantage, you must essentially ensure proper behaviour and respond appropriately for the cause of strengthening business relations, besides inculcating a sense of self-confidence and good relations with co-workers. To enable proper behaviour in diverse environments, the requirement is for strengthening areas where etiquette gets violated substantially. These areas include office meetings, business meals and parties, conferences, trade shows, offsite activities and other such events.

Office or Business Meetings

Business meetings are one area where poor etiquette usually has negative effects. Appropriate knowledge of meeting-etiquette rules provides an opportunity to express oneself clearly and appropriately in front of clients, co-workers, and superiors so as to impress them.

Business Meals and Parties

Combining entertainment with business creates a warm and social atmosphere, while retaining the requisite business undertones. Thus, business entertainment is usually a means to foster personal trust and confidence among the company and its clientele, and is presumed to be a popular way to conduct business. Therefore, employees must be open to adapting themselves to the varied situations in parties and business meals, and ensure proper etiquette in such occasions. By following a set of key manners, such adjustment can be perfectly crafted.

Office Events

Office events are usually held to update other members about the status of a project, as well as to catch up with the latest developments in the industry. Therefore, at these events, employees essentially need to present themselves in a way that is commensurate with the required etiquette, so that their professional image in front of their peers, colleagues, as well the clients, is maintained and enhanced.

The third rule that employees are expected to follow is using an appropriate dress code. Psychological research has found that an individual forms an impression of others in the first four minutes of interaction. Thereafter, 80 percent of the impression is based on non-verbal signs that have very little bearing on influencing the judgemental ability. Also it is often seen that the first impression of a person is very hard to change.

With appropriate manners, you can add appropriate skill sets to create an ambience that would help you win promotions and advancements in your career.

Good dressing forms an important part of creating a good first impression. Therefore, the integration of perfect dress code, grooming and body language is considered to be part and parcel of a “professional package”. The way product “packaging” reveals the indispensability of the product, similarly, professional “packaging” enables a professional to reveal his or her indispensability to the company that he or she is representing.

Apart from the rules mentioned in the preceding paragraphs, the constraints that are present in a professional environment need to be set aside because professional success is highly correlated with employees’ relations with their colleagues. When it comes to constraints, the various aspects that need to be examined are:

Dealing with Difficult People

Sometimes, workers who work together do not get along. Some people are difficult to interact with because of their complex personalities; again, others get difficult in lieu of their positions in the company. Whatever the reason for people to be difficult, the generalized cause for such behaviour is found to be lack of self-esteem or confidence. Therefore, understanding various personality traits and group dynamics can help employees to interact effectively and amicably with these types of people so that work life is a lot less stressful.

Coping with Conflict

In the professional sphere, there may be many instances of office conflict that can arise for a variety of reasons and that can be resolved effectively using simple techniques. Some of these techniques include active listening, asking questions for clarification, willing to compromise, looking at the bigger picture, watching the language and putting yourself in the other person's shoes. If you are well-versed with these techniques, office conflicts can be resolved as quickly as they started.

Managing Ethical Dilemmas

Numerous unfamiliar situations can arise at the workplace wherein the behaviour that suits the situation becomes uncertain. Although it is impossible to know how to handle each and every such situation that comes up, through proper etiquette, the ways to handle these uncomfortable situations at work are more clear and realistic.

Handling Sexuality

It is preferable to know a company's policies before getting into any situation that involves an intimate relationship with another employee. By following the etiquette related to office romances, it is possible to combine good judgement and discretion within the absolute domain of company rules. Otherwise, problems may arise with regard to the job. After taking everyone into confidence about the official eligibility of two individuals of the opposite sex entering into a relationship, it is possible to make romance blossom if the appropriate etiquette are followed.

Travelling Near and Far

When an employee is on business travel, there usually is a tremendous amount of stress. But because the employee is on a preassigned objective related to promotion of the company's interests, the employee must not abandon politeness.

Packing Up and Heading Out

It is presumed that a model of good manners carries good manners with him or her. Therefore knowledge of the key elements for having a safe and successful trip is considered an essential prerequisite. Armed with the key elements, you are better prepared for undertaking a trip that entails a better experience.

Acting Gracefully After You Arrive

You need to adopt the best possible way to get around time changes, unusual food or new table manners and means of communication on arriving at a destination. Although it is not unusual to state that getting acclimatized to a different culture can take months or even years, but when you are armed with good manners and proper etiquette, you would have less chances of committing an error.

To acclimatize yourself to a different culture and avoid offending your host or business colleagues, try to blend in, dress conservatively and appropriately, keep your voice low, refrain from showing strong emotions in public, and behave in a pleasant manner no matter what happens.

Mind Your Manners in Different Regions of the World

A wide variety of appropriate behaviour exists for building business relationships in different areas of the world. Although these may not be known exactly, by trying to discover and understand the customs and culture of the country you are visiting, you show the respect that you have for that country. Aided by these, a crucial liaison with the potential business partner gets materialized; a rapport is built and business relationships are developed.

Dining Etiquette

The state of economic integration in an internationally and culturally diverse world economy has a substantial impact on business success. The individual and organizational etiquette prevalent in different cultures enable a positive influence in the worldwide marketplace. It is thus obvious that cross-cultural understanding and appreciation of foreign etiquette is necessary for proper functioning of business. Through appropriate dining etiquette, business personnel are able to polish their conduct and behaviour while dining or entertaining their clients. It is pertinent to note that mannerism gets its widest display at the dinner table. Therefore, table manners are presumed to be the most difficult part of social etiquette. However, in reality, these are not as difficult as portrayed provided you know the rules well. Furthermore, the simplicity of these rules makes the user more adaptable and confident to dine in public and be relaxed in the company of peers.

A vital area of importance in cross cultural awareness is the various dining etiquette of the world.

The basic dining etiquette involves the following.

Seating: A protocol must be adhered to with regard to the sitting position and posture during a dining session. Usually, it is acceptable etiquette for gentlemen and ladies to sit next to one another.

Eating: Use of dining implements, such as a knife and fork, and use of hands or chopsticks are governed by specific rules of etiquette in a formal dinner setting.

Body Language: A formal dinner requires certain body language codes to be followed. For example, it is considered bad etiquette to rest elbows on the dining table. Again, when dining on the floor, you need to be seated in an appropriate fashion.

Conversation: You need to determine whether it is appropriate to engage in conversations during dinner or not. If you are allowed to talk, the specific time or the etiquette required for discussing business matters must also be determined. And it is considered appropriate etiquette to compliment the cook.

Proper dining etiquette also involves finishing everything on the plate. And if you are dining at a restaurant, there is a protocol about who pays the bills, how the waiters are tipped and such.

S U M M A R Y

Etiquette, which is derived from the French word étiquette appeared in the English language around 1750. It denotes a code of behaviour that delineates expectations of social behaviour according to contemporary conventional norms within a society, social class or group. Therefore, having basic knowledge about and knowing the practice of etiquette is a valuable advantage. In today's inter-reliant, international and culturally

diverse world economy, cross-cultural differences can have a significant impact on business success. Good manners and professional etiquette are therefore essential prerequisites to being a professional. Business professionals are expected to understand etiquette and professional protocol, and keep abreast of the ever-changing standards. Both at an individual and organizational level, understanding the values, etiquette and protocol embedded in different cultures can positively influence your dealings in the worldwide marketplace. Apart from business etiquette, another area of importance in cross-cultural awareness is the different dining etiquette of the world. Understanding dining etiquette can help business personnel polish their conduct and behaviour while dining or entertaining guests. Taking cue of the relevance of etiquette in the societal inter-relationship, the present chapter attempted to elucidate the importance of etiquette in today's society.

KEY TERMS

-
- Ethnic
 - Social fabric
 - Honorific
 - Insolent
 - Trade shows
 - Offsite activities
 - Psychological research
 - Packaging

TEST YOUR KNOWLEDGE

1. What is etiquette? Why is it necessary to abide by formal rules of etiquette?
2. Briefly describe the social rules of etiquette.
3. What are the basic rules of home etiquette?
4. Describe the role of etiquette in maintaining a harmonious work environment.
5. What are the golden rules of professional interaction? Describe these in brief.
6. What role does etiquette in dining play in cross-cultural awareness?

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Chapter Fourteen

Time Management

B.N. Ghosh

“*The key is not spending time, but in investing it.*”

— Lillian Eichler Watson

“*Lost wealth may be replaced by industry, lost knowledge by study, lost health by temperance or medicine, but lost time is gone forever.*”

— Samuel Smiles

In the movie *Gone with the Wind*, the hero gets angry whenever he finds any wastage. He is angry because wastage reduces his resource endowment and prevents him from maximizing his gain, which could have been possible without any wastage. Needless to add, *time* is a uniquely critical resource and it needs to be utilized in an efficient way to ensure maximum efficiency and economic benefits. In a business firm, efficiency may constitute **economic efficiency** in terms of overall cost reduction and/or **engineering efficiency** in terms of reduced need for inputs. Conceivably, in both these cases of efficiency, *time*, as an input, can play a crucial role. But the role of time is often explicitly neglected.

It needs to be emphasized that *time* is a scarce input and its role, as such, has to be recognised in the analysis of managerial economics. In fact, **managerial economics** is that science and art that studies managerial behaviour or decision as a relationship between business goals and scarce inputs (including time), which have alternative uses. Thus, obviously, managerial economics becomes a subject of choice.

There are many choices involved but one of the most critical choices is the use of time as a resource. The **rational choice of time frame** pertains to consumption of inputs, production, distribution and exchange. In such a conceptualization of managerial economics, the following factors become pretty clear:

- Business firms have a number of plans and goals (ends).
- Resources that are at the disposal of firms are limited (scarcity).
- Resources, such as *time*, have alternative uses.
- Since resources can be put to alternative uses, it is necessary to make a rational choice for using these resources (including *time*) in the best possible way.

The basic purpose of the present chapter is to elaborate on a number of issues relating to time management, for example, its nature, principles, importance and problems. We can start the discussion with the conceptualization of time.

Concept of Time: Nature and Characteristics

Time is a valuable resource or input. It has, however, different implications and connotations. The basic nature and characteristics of time are discussed as follows:

- **Time is not a standardized or uniform commodity.** A unit of time serves different needs and has different utilities to different types of people.
- **As a resource, time is scarce.** Its availability for a particular use is limited. That is to say, if more time is utilized for a type of activity or work, less time will be available for other work or activities. Thus, there is always a **trade-off or compromise**. A trade-off is the sacrifice of one thing to get something of the other. In the case of time too, the concept of trade-off is applicable. For instance, if you devote more time to study economics, you will get less time to study marketing management.
- Every unit of time has an **opportunity cost**. Thus, an hour's work for a person should be equal to an hour's earning that is possible in other work that this person can perform. An opportunity cost is the cost of relinquished alternatives. A higher value opportunity given up to get a thing is the opportunity cost of that thing or activity. However, the opportunity cost need not be the highest alternative foregone, as is often written in old textbooks (Ghosh, 2011, p. 8). It may be an available alternative foregone. An opportunity cost implies the minimum assured price in the market. A person's time has an opportunity cost. For example, a construction engineer will ask for, say, Rs 1000 per hour to deliver a lecture on a construction project because he can earn that much from another work by devoting one hour's efforts.
- **Not all available time units will be equally valuable to a person.** For some individuals, an hour's time in the morning may be more valuable than that in the evening. The valuation depends on the earning capacity, importance given to leisure or to solving personal or family problems.
- **Interpersonal comparison of the value of time is difficult and is not accurately possible in many cases.** This is because the value of time may be different for different people. However, in terms of opportunity cost differentials, interpersonal time values can be determined.
- **Time has a continuum and is eternally flowing. So, in a sense, it is difficult to measure time.** However, for the sake of convenience, it can be quantified by conceptualizing it as an hour, a day or a year and so forth.
- **Time is a perishable commodity.** It is always fleeting. You cannot reserve time for future use. If you do not perform your eight hours of work today, you cannot perform 16 hours of work tomorrow. Accumulation of time in the quantitative sense to perform labour is impossible. Because time is a perishable commodity, it is necessary to allocate it properly to get the best return from it at the present moment.
- **Time is money or wealth.** This implies that if you put your original wealth in some form, you will get more value after the lapse of time. For instance, if a wine maker puts his wine and allows time to lapse, he will get more value for the old wine. If you keep your money in time deposit, after a year or so, your original capital will earn money in the form of interest income.
- **In most cases, a more meaningful concept of time is not the physical number of hours but the intensity or quality of its use.** The work efforts made during a period of time or the quantity of work done is the real measure of time utilization. Sometimes, especially in a labour-surplus

economy, more people are engaged to complete a job than what is really necessary. These people sustain themselves by work-stretching and work-making. As a result, the productivity of each of the workers becomes very low and it may even be zero or negative. This situation is called **disguised unemployment**. Such a situation is prevalent because people do not have sufficient alternative occupations and the capital (may be land) is limited in supply.



WHAT IS TIME MANAGEMENT?

Time management (TM) has different connotations but the following five are critically important. These connotations are, however, inter-related and there are many commonalities among these definitions.

- ◎ Time management can be regarded as a technique of allocation of the given time to competing ends or goals in such a way that it can achieve the maximum possible efficiency or productivity.
- ◎ Time management is a set of principles or rules that studies the relationship between different goals (that are to be achieved) and the scarce and given time, which has many alternative uses.
- ◎ Time management is making appropriate choice and allocation of time for different types of human activities so that the overall utility or productivity can be maximized.
- ◎ TM may also indicate fixing priorities for work in terms of time with a view to maximizing the gains or benefits. The gains or benefits may be economic or non-economic, or private or social.
- ◎ TM may mean full control over time and its management for the best possible returns or results that may lead to optimum benefits or gains under the given situation. Because time has alternative uses, TM involves deliberate decision-making and planning to use the available time.

Objectives and Significance of Time Management

In the area of management, whether personal or corporate, the importance of time management (TM) can hardly be exaggerated. Because time and tide wait for none, it is imperative to properly manage the time that is at one's disposal. A successful and great person is known by his promise-keeping ability and time management acumen. There are several purposes and significance of TM. Of these, the following seem to be critically important:

- ◎ Proper time management is helpful in **enhancing efficiency and productivity**, because it allows you to properly allocate and realize the benefits of time, which is always a scarce factor. Proper TM can minimize cost and reduce the overall input-use in production. Thus, both economic efficiency and engineering efficiency can be achieved with proper management of time. A manager who is time conscious and uses time in an intensive and wise manner can obtain the benefits of the **economy of time** that can be translated into monetary terms.
- ◎ An organized schedule of work with reference to the optimum time allocated for different managerial activities **is sure to reduce the wastage of valuable time**. This means that some extra saving of resources in terms of time can be generated in the process. Like any other scarce resource, time has an opportunity cost and alternative uses. If some time can be saved, it can be utilized for some other productive work.

- ◎ Proper time management ensures that production is finished just in time (JIT), which is an important principle in the Japanese system of management. TM also makes possible a delivery system just in time. All these increase the productive efficiency and capability expansion.
- ◎ If the principles of TM are properly followed, the system functions smoothly and the results can be more or less predicted in terms of time. This is a great advantage not only for production planning and management but also for the preparation of future plans and programmes.
- ◎ TM is the basis of success not only in the areas of production, consumption and distribution, but also in social commitments and responsibilities. A person who manages time properly is well-respected by others and it can even give that person some social status and honour. A person who takes everything in a leisurely way and is not at all serious about time may fall at the end of the line of success in a world full of competition.
- ◎ A person who can properly manage the given time becomes free from many worries, stresses, failure and frustration in life. Many human diseases such as hypertension, diabetes and some forms of cancer are caused and intensified by constant worries and the fear of failure. Many of the psychosomatic diseases can be kept at bay through TM because it makes a man free from many types of stresses and strains. There are many factors in the worldly success of a man, and time management ability is the most important one among them. TM creates a sort of discipline and makes a man more organized, responsible and socially acceptable.

Wage and Time Allocation in the Labour Market

Various types of attitudes and behaviour are involved in the allocation of time in the labour market. These are related to market wage rate, labour supply, leisure preference and the extent to which a person or family wants to maximize family or personal income. In the present section, some of the major empirical hypotheses on labour time allocation will be analyzed at some length.

- ◎ Assume (as shown in Figure 14.1) that a person has to achieve a target income (OY). A higher wage rate (W_H), in this case, will mean that the person has to allocate minimum time (T_L) to earn that income. In many instances, the target income hypothesis is valid in many countries. This is particularly true for individuals with low aspirations in developing countries, who want to enjoy life in many other ways and are content with the minimum necessary income. This is

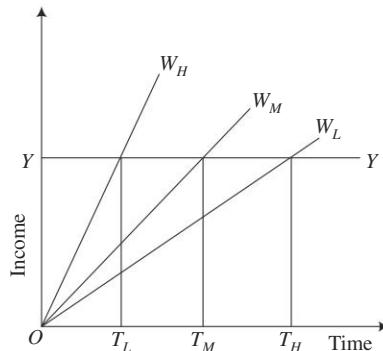


Fig. 14.1 Achieving a target income

also consistent with the Gandhian principles of ethical minima in consumption. The implication of the target income hypothesis is that **if the market wage rate is low, the person has to work for a longer time in the labour market. Thus, the target income being given, one can find a negative correlation between the wage rate and the allocation of time in the labour market.**

- ◎ **Higher wages sometimes do not generate any additional incentive for higher allocation of labour time in some societies.** In many backward countries that are characterized by a traditional value system, supply of labour time is not generally responsive to changes in wages (Ghosh, 2009, p.17). Backward sloping supply curve of labour in such countries is a common phenomenon (Boudin, 1954; Weber, 1930). If wages are raised, workers, instead of working more in order to earn more, generally put in less work efforts to earn subsistence. This empirical behaviour is consistent with the target income hypothesis. This target income is generally the subsistence income. Figure 14.2 shows a backward sloping supply curve of labour. This depicts that when the wage rate is W_O , the worker's employment is OP . However, if the wage rate goes up to W_I , the worker works less and allocates less time to earn the subsistence income. This reveals that sometimes workers in developing countries, particularly in independent professions, are lazy and prefer to enjoy more of leisure than their western counterparts.
- ◎ **One of the general principles of allocation of time is that if the market wage rate is high (or higher), more time is allocated to earn extra income.** This generalized hypothesis does not believe in the notion of the target income hypothesis. This general principle is consistent with the ordinary labour market behaviour, which shows that there is a positive correlation between wage rate and labour supply. If the wage rate is higher, the labour supply is higher and if the wage rate is lower, the allocation of time in the labour market is lower as well.

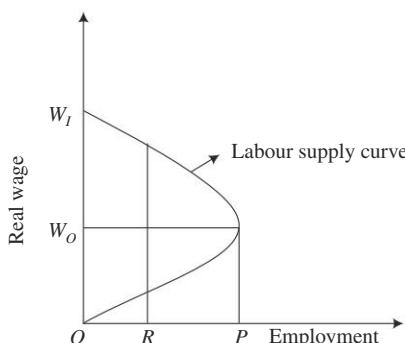


Fig. 14.2 Backward sloping supply curve of labour

Gary Becker's Theory of Allocation of Time

In a seminal paper published in *Economic Journal* (1965), Gary Becker, an American Economist and Nobel Laureate, made an analysis of the allocation of time in ordinary households. In his perception, every household is like a mini workshop that is engaged both in the task of production and consumption.

Households are engaged to produce some basic goods. These basic goods may be consumption goods or goods related to production (may be simple tools and traditional capital equipment). Households produce both **time-intensive and goods-intensive (input-intensive) commodities**. Production of some commodities requires more time (such as the preparation of lunch at home) but the production of some goods (such as the production of sandwiches) needs more input or goods, which can be purchased from the market. When the wage rate in the labour market goes up, time at the disposal of the household worker becomes more expensive. Consequently, the worker reduces the household production and buys things from the market rather than making them at home that may require more time. Precisely then, if the wage rate goes up, households will reduce the time for consumption and the surplus time can be sold in the labour market. Households will also use or produce less time-intensive products and more goods-intensive (or input-intensive) products to produce home-made consumption goods.

A housewife, other things remaining the same, should undertake cooking and other household works; a student should do well in the preparation of home work; and a labourer should be engaged in the labour market activities in which he or she has some expertise. In all such cases, efficiency will be maximized.

Becker implicitly assumes that when the market wage rate is low, it makes sense to devote more time for household production and consumption and also to enjoy leisure, because it is less expensive. He also advises people to take up those works that can be done by them more efficiently with their acquired expertise.

Seven Principles of Time Management

There are many principles for time management (TM). However, seven important principles of TM will be elaborated in this section. It is assumed that some time is already at your disposal, and that you have to maximize your utility or satisfaction by properly managing the time. The following are the seven general principles of TM:

- **It is not the length of time that matters as much as the intensity of work.** Moreover, the quality of time is more important than the quantity of time. The given time should be properly utilized in a productive manner by increasing the intensity of work and avoiding the leisurely and perfunctory way of doing work.
- **To get maximum satisfaction, the marginal productivity (or marginal utility) of a unit of time must be the same in all preoccupations where time is used.** This is according to the **law of equi-marginal returns**. Because time is both a consumption good and an investment good, you can use terms such as marginal productivity and marginal utility in the same sense in the case of time. In simple terms, **the value of time at the margin in all undertakings must be the same**. If it is not the same, people will spend more time on that occupation (work) where the value of time is more than that of the other, till such a time when the value of time everywhere becomes equal. For instance, when the wage rate is high, a worker will perhaps devote all the time to do work in the labour market. After some time, the utility of the income that the worker earns will go on diminishing but the value of leisure will go up. So the worker will slowly reduce the working time and increase the leisure time till such a time when the marginal utilities (productivities) in both working time and leisure time become equal.

- ◎ **It is always good to prepare a time table of all the works to be performed.** Such a table will give directions as to what work should be performed at what time. A time table is less confusing and more assuring of the responsibility. It is more systematic. A time table can ensure justice to all the works that need to be performed. In the course of time, according to needs, the time table can also be changed from time to time.
- ◎ **When you have a lot of work to do and you are being pressurised, it is better to prioritize work.** Work that is very urgent and is time-bound must be given the highest priority. Another way to assign priority is to calculate the gain out of the work. The most gainful preoccupation should be settled first and other works can be done subsequently. However, some works cannot be delayed without loss. For instance, for a farmer, the priority should be the reaping of paddy that is ripe and lying idle in the field. Prioritising may depend on various factors, including immediate gain, seasonal demand, time-bound preoccupations and so forth.
- ◎ **The importance of regularity and punctuality can hardly be overemphasized in time management.** If you are regular and punctual in your work, you would generally be able to finish your work on time and will not have any backlog to cause stress and strain. If you regularly do your work, you will not have to rush at the last moment and will be more free and happy, and your desk will always be clear. It is a good habit to be regular, systematic and punctual.
- ◎ **Never take up the burden of too many tasks at the same time that you cannot finish on time.** “One thing at a time and that done well is a very good rule as many can tell” goes the old saying. Take up work as per your capacity, time and capability. Many people, out of greed to earn more money, take up disproportionately large amount of work and later suffer from stress and finally become victims of hypertension and many other stress-related diseases. **It is better to work according to your ability and not according to your greed.**
- ◎ **Properly schedule your work and slow down at times.** It is often said that you can do your best and at the same time enjoy your work if you do it slowly. A piece of work that is hastily done cannot be done properly. All best works take time to finish. “Rome was not built in a day” goes the saying. Work should be done slowly but regularly.
- ◎ An important fact that you often forget in time management is that you do not care for your own time, relaxation and enjoyment of leisure. These are necessary for good work. After some work, relaxation and rest are very essential. “All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy.” **Proper rest and relaxation will recharge the system and will make the remaining work more enjoyable and efficient. Occasional and timely rest makes your work the best. The bottom line is: do not overwork and do not be crazy.** Keep some time to pursue your own hobbies, read good books and enjoy your life in your own way.

God created the world in six days and on the seventh day (believed to be the Sunday) He took rest.

—Genesis 2:2

Problematics of Time Management

Time management, even though it sounds innocuous, is practically fraught with many limitations and problems. These limitations are both conceptual and empirical. In the following discussion, a few of the major problems are emphasized.

- **The basic problem with time management is that the perception of time is not the same among people and in different countries.** The perceptual difference may lead to many types of distortions in the allocation and management of time. For instance, the American managers are more time conscious, prompt and just in time, but Indian managers, by and large, take time in a more relaxed way (Ferrell et al.2004, p. 240).
- Time is valuable but **the value of time is not the same to everyone.** The value of time depends on the **opportunity cost of time.** When the value of such a cost is low, time management does not constitute an important exercise, and killing of time becomes an important problem. Many people who are unemployed in a labour-surplus country, such as India, have low opportunity costs and must kill time by disturbing the productive time of others.

One of the best examples of such a situation is working on a given piece of land. However fertile it may be, it encounters diminishing returns or increasing cost as more and more labour is employed on the land for cultivation. Second, a difficult question that arises in such a situation is how much time and effort should be allocated? The situation will be different for

commercial and family farms (Ghosh, 1977). If it is a commercial farm, only that much labour time is allocated where the productivity of labour becomes exactly equal to the wage rate. But for family farms, the labour time can be allocated till the marginal productivity of labour becomes zero. Family farms are not to pay any wage and they want to maximize total output.

- **There is no unique method of time management.** As a general rule, when work (A) is more valuable than work (B), more time is devoted to complete the former task. However, two basic problems are encountered here. First, as you do more and more of one work, by keeping capital and all other inputs constant, **you face the problem of diminishing returns** from the same work.
- **In the allocation of time, there may be various types of conflicts,** for example, conflict between the present and future, between short term and long term, between labour-intensive work and capital-intensive work and so forth. Total financial resources being limited and given, if you choose to spend more time and money in the short run and at present, there will be less resources available for future use. The future may be more profitable but is uncertain in many ways. How then to properly allocate time? Will you allocate more time in catching a bird near your locality or will you go to the distant forest to explore the possibility of catching more birds? The answer is not easy.
- **One conceptual problem that comes up in the time management exercise is that all units of time are not the same in terms of value or individual preference.** There are inter and intra personal differences in this regard. The value of leisure time is not the same as that of the working time. So in the matter of time management, you must be clear about the nature and quality of time. This is often confusing and not taken into account while talking about the allocation and management of time.

SUMMARY

Time is a uniquely critical resource and needs to be utilized in an efficient way to ensure maximum efficiency and economic benefits. In a business firm, efficiency may constitute economic efficiency in terms of overall cost reduction and/or engineering efficiency in terms of reduced need for inputs. Conceivably, in both these cases of efficiency, *time*, as an input, can play a crucial role. But the role of time is often explicitly neglected. It needs to be emphasized that *time* is a scarce input and its role as such has to be recognized in the analysis of managerial economics.

Time is not a standardized or uniform commodity. As a resource, time is scarce. Every unit of time has an opportunity cost. All available time units will not be equally valuable to a person. Interpersonal comparison of the value of time is difficult and is not accurately possible in many cases. Time has a continuum and is eternally flowing. So, in a sense, it is difficult to measure time. However, for the sake of convenience, you can quantify time by conceptualizing it as an hour, a day or a year and so forth. Time is a perishable commodity. Time is money or wealth. This implies that if you put your original wealth in some form, you will get more

value after the lapse of some time. For instance, if a wine maker puts his wine and allows time to lapse, he will get more value for the old wine. If you keep your money in time deposit, after a year or so, your original capital will earn money in the form of interest income. In most cases, a more meaningful concept of time is not the physical number of hours but the intensity or the quality of its use.

Time management is a set of principles or rules that studies the relationship between different goals (that are to be achieved) and the scarce and given time, which has many alternative uses.

Time management can be regarded as a technique of allocation of the given time to competing ends or goals in such a way that it can achieve the maximum possible efficiency or productivity.

Time management constitutes making appropriate choice and allocation of time on different types of human activities so that the overall utility or productivity can be maximized.

TM may also mean full control over time and its management for the best possible returns or results that may lead to optimum benefits or gains under the given situation. The major benefit of time management is the increase in efficiency and productivity. Gary Becker posits that when time is very valuable in the labour market, households use goods-intensive commodities and sell extra time in the labour market. In a situation where there is backward sloping supply curve of labour, after the desired income is earned, the extra time is used as leisure. There are indeed many problems with time management, mainly because the concept and value of time are not the same for all persons. There may also arise conflicts between the value of time in future and at present. All said, it must be conceded that there is no unique method of time management.

KEY TERMS

- Time management
- Concept of time
- Allocation of time
- Trade-off
- Opportunity cost
- Disguised unemployment
- Intensity of work
- Engineering efficiency
- Economic efficiency
- Backward sloping supply curve of labour
- Target income hypothesis
- Law of equi-marginal returns

TEST YOUR KNOWLEDGE

1. What are the general principles of time management?
2. Discuss a few problems that you may come across in the management of time.
3. Critically explain the concept of time.
4. What is the significance of time management for a manager?
5. Explain fully the meaning of time management.
6. Explain the meaning of the dictum “time is money” by giving suitable examples.
7. Time is not a uniform and standardized commodity. Do you agree with the statement? Support your view by giving examples.

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Chapter Fifteen

Personality Development

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“Personality is the glitter that sends your little gleam across the footlights and the orchestra pit into that big black space where the audience is.”

— Mae West

Human beings spend a considerable amount of time, talking about themselves and others. This human nature springs out of a common inquisitiveness. They look within themselves and also try to evaluate and predict others' behaviour. Personality is a word that is used frequently when describing oneself and others. Whether you realize it or not, almost every day you describe and assess the personalities of the people around you. These daily musings on how and why people behave as they do have led to the development of a new branch of Psychology called personality psychology.

This chapter intends to help you to understand the different concepts of personality, the major determinants of personality, stages of personality development, different theoretical models pertaining to personality development and the different constraints in developing a personality.

Some people are anxious, some are risk-taking; some are phlegmatic, some highly-strung; some are confident, some shy; and some are quiet and some are loquacious. The issue of differences is fundamental to the study of personality. Note also that in studying these differences, you will also examine where the differences come from: as with intelligence, you will find that there is a mixture of nature and nurture involved.

No two people are exactly the same—not even identical twins.

The word personality is derived from the Latin word ‘persona,’ which means mask. The study of personality can be understood as the study of the masks that people wear. These are the personas that people project and display, but also include the inner psychological experiences, which are collectively called self.



MEANING AND DEFINITION OF PERSONALITY

Personality includes many attributes of an individual. It is the totality or collection of various characteristics that goes beyond superficial physical qualities. The word encompasses a host of subjective, social and emotional qualities. It is relatively stable and predictable, but at the same time, it is not rigid and unchanging; instead, it varies with differing situations.

Carver and Scheier (2000) defined personality “as a dynamic organization, inside the person, of psychophysical systems that create a person’s characteristic patterns of behaviour, thoughts and feelings,” where ‘dynamic organization’ suggests ongoing readjustments, adaptation to experience, continual upgrading and maintaining personality. It has a process and it is organized. ‘Inside the person’ suggests internal storage of patterns, which supports the notion that personality influences behaviours and so on. ‘Psychophysical systems’ suggests that the physical aspect is also involved in who you are. ‘Characteristic patterns’ implies the consistency or continuity, which uniquely identifies an individual. ‘Behaviour, thoughts and feelings’ indicates that a personality includes a wide range of psychological experiences and manifestation that are displayed in many ways.

“Personality is the essence of a human being”

—Hall and Lindzey, 1957

“Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine characteristic behaviour and thought” (Allport, 1961). By this definition, Allport meant that everything you think and do is characteristic or typical of you. Thus, each person is unique.



IMPORTANCE OF STUDYING PERSONALITY

The ultimate goal of psychology is to improve quality of life through better understanding of individual differences and similarities. The personality theory is concerned with observing individual characteristics and describing them, understanding and explaining how these different characteristics came about, and finally, how they impact or predict an individual’s future. When you know what happens, why it happens and what is likely to happen in the future, you can exercise some control over the occurrences and ultimately improve a person’s life.

Soft skills provide people with a strong conceptual and practical framework to develop and manage people around them. They play an important role in the development of an individual’s overall personality, thereby enhancing that individual’s career prospects, employment opportunities and competence in the business environment. Training in soft skills helps you to develop positive attitudes, values, beliefs, motivation, desires and feelings. It promotes an eagerness to learn, willingness to share and embrace new ideas; promotes goal orientation, flexibility, persuasion, futuristic thinking, compassion and diplomacy, and trains you in various skill sets related to communication, manners and etiquette so that you can deal with different situations diligently and responsibly. Training in soft skills is an important part of management training because it has a significant impact on personality development.



DETERMINANTS OF PERSONALITY

The personality of a person is determined by many factors. They are as follows.

- **Heredity:** Heredity refers to those factors that are determined at conception. Physical structure, facial attractiveness, gender, temperament, muscle composition and reflexes, energy levels and biological rhythms are characteristics that are generally considered to be either completely or substantially influenced by who your parents are, that is, by their biological, physiological and inherent psychological make-up.

- ◎ The **environmental** factors that impact personality development include the culture in which you are raised, the early conditioning, the norms among your family, friends and social groups, and other influences that you experience. The environment to which you are exposed plays a substantial role in shaping your personality.
- ◎ The third factor is the **interaction** of the effects of **heredity and environment** on personality. An individual's personality, although generally stable and consistent, does change in different situations. The varying demands of different situations call forth different characteristics of an individual's personality. You should not, therefore, look upon personality patterns in isolation.



CHARACTERISTICS OF PERSONALITY

Essentially, people act the same way or in similar ways in a variety of situations. Personality is a construct that is influenced by the psychological and biological processes and needs. Personality does not just influence how you move and respond in your environment; it also causes you to act in certain ways; and personality is displayed in behaviour, thoughts, feelings, close, relationships and other social interactions.

Some of the fundamental characteristics of personality include the following.

- ◎ **Consistency** refers to the extent to which a person shows a recognizable order and regularity in behaviour.
- ◎ **Achievement** refers to doing your best in objective or difficult tasks and achieving recognition.
- ◎ **Deference** refers to being agreeable to accepting the leadership of others and avoiding unconventionality.
- ◎ **Orderliness** refers to organizing your work and habits, and planning ahead systematically.
- ◎ **Autonomy** refers to doing as you choose, independently of others' opinions, and avoiding conformity.
- ◎ **Affiliation** refers to participating in friendship, sharing things with friends and forming an attachment with them.
- ◎ **Sensitiveness** refers to analyzing motives and putting yourself in other people's shoes in order to understand their behaviour.
- ◎ **Dominance** refers to being a leader who supervises or wields influence over others.
- ◎ **Abasement** refers to considering yourself blameworthy and inferior to others and experiencing timidity.
- ◎ **Nurturance** refers to assisting those who are less fortunate and giving moral support to others.
- ◎ **Change** refers to participating in new activities and adopting fashion, and liking novelty in your life.
- ◎ **Endurance** refers to remaining with a task until it is completed and being able to work without being distracted.
- ◎ **Aggression** refers to attacking contrary points of view and expressing disagreement or criticism of others openly.



STAGES OF PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

Personality develops through different stages over time. Personality theorists describe specific stages in the development of personality. Sigmund Freud proposed that personality evolves through a sequence of steps. Henry Murray proposed a similar theory. But Gordon Allport held a different view, suggesting that personality growth continues till the time of adolescence. Carl Jung proposed that middle age is the most important time of change in personality. Raymond Cattell suggested that personality evolves throughout the lifespan.

Psychosocial Stages of Development: Erik Erikson

The famous theorist who proposed a lifespan approach to personality development is Erik Erikson. Erikson attempted to explain human behaviour and growth through eight stages, from birth to death.

Ego identity is the conscious sense of self that you develop through social interaction.

One of the main elements of Erikson's psychosocial stage theory is the development of the ego identity. According to Erikson, your ego identity is constantly changing due to new experiences and information that you acquire in your daily interactions with others. Erikson further believed that a sense of competence also motivates behaviours and actions. Each stage in Erikson's theory is concerned with becoming competent in an area of life. If the stage is handled well, the person will feel a sense of mastery, which he sometimes referred to as ego strength or ego quality. If the stage is managed poorly, the person will emerge with a sense of inadequacy.

In each stage, Erikson believed that people experience a conflict that serves as a turning point in development. These conflicts are centred on either developing a psychological quality or failing to develop that quality. During these times, the potential for personal growth is high, but so is the potential for failure.

- The first stage is of **Trust versus Mistrust** and it is between birth and one year of age. In this stage, a child develops trust and security based on the dependability and quality of its parents. But if parents fail to provide love and affection to the child, it will have a hard time trusting others.
- The second stage is **Autonomy versus Shame and Doubt** that takes place during early childhood. Here, the child grows from a totally dependent infant to a toddler. The child learns to move around independently and is introduced to toilet training. The child's control over its choices and bodily functions leads to a feeling of control and the child becomes self-competent.
- The third stage is **Initiative versus Guilt**, which begins when a child enters three years of age. The child starts exploring power, goes to pre-school and gets a feel of social interaction. A successful child at this stage feels control but in case the child fails to acquire skills, he or she will have feelings of guilt and self-doubt.
- The fourth stage is **Industry versus Inferiority** that runs from the age of five to 13 years. Increasing social interactions, development of a sense of pride and adequate encouragement are highlights at this stage. If these factors are absent, the child is likely to develop inferiority complex.

- ◎ The fifth stage is **Identity versus Role Confusion**, which is very crucial. This is also a typical teenage phase where the individual is confused between childhood and adulthood. The individual is expected to make a new identity in every sphere, including career, social domain and relationships. He or she also learns about gender roles. Good experience at this stage makes the individual a confident adult who is ready to take up responsibilities.
- ◎ The sixth stage is **Intimacy versus Isolation** and it occurs between the ages of 20–40 years. In this phase, individuals develop a sense of intimacy and commitment. Every stage builds upon the skills developed in the previous stages. Individuals who fail to develop commitment and intimacy at this stage turn out to be depressed and commitment phobic.
- ◎ The seventh stage is **Generativity versus Stagnation**, which is all about consistency in building important aspects of life such as a career and family. Individuals also learn to give back to society in this phase. Failure to do so leads to stagnation and meaninglessness.
- ◎ The last stage is **Ego Integrity versus Despair**, where individuals reflect back on their lives. Ego identity is completely formed in the last stage. A sense of accomplishment helps in developing a sense of integrity and wisdom; otherwise, a feeling of bitterness and despair sets in.

Psychosexual Stages of Development: Sigmund Freud

According to Sigmund Freud, an individual's unique character type begins during childhood, largely from parent-child interactions. The child, at a given stage of development, has certain needs and demands. Frustration occurs when these needs are not met, and parents try to impose the demands of reality and morality. Freud noted that each body region assumed greater importance as the centre of conflict at each stage. In each stage, a conflict exists that must be resolved before the infant can progress to the next stage. The different stages of development are discussed below.

- ◎ **Oral stage** begins at birth and lasts up to two years, when the oral cavity is the primary focus of libidinal energy. The child preoccupies himself or herself with nursing and with the pleasure of sucking and accepting things into the mouth. The oral character, who is frustrated at this stage, whose mother refused to nurse him or her on demand or who truncated nursing sessions early, is characterized by pessimism, envy, suspicion and sarcasm. The overindulged oral character, whose nursing urges were always and often excessively satisfied, is optimistic, gullible, and is full of admiration for others around him.
- ◎ **Anal stage:** By two years, the child enters the anal stage. With the advent of toilet training comes the child's obsession with the erogenous zone of the anus and with the retention or expulsion of faeces. This represents a classic conflict between the Id, which derives pleasure from expulsion of bodily wastes, and the ego and superego, which represent the practical and societal pressures to control the bodily functions. The child meets the conflict between the parent's demands and the child's desires and physical capabilities in one of two ways: If the parents are too lenient and the child manages to derive pleasure and success from this expulsion, it will result in the formation of an anal expulsive character. This character is generally messy, disorganized, reckless, careless and defiant.

On the other hand, a child may opt to retain faeces, thereby spiting his or her parents while enjoying the pleasurable pressure of the built-up faeces in his or her intestine. If this tactic

succeeds and the child is overindulged, he or she will develop into an anal retentive character. This character is neat, precise, orderly, careful, stingy, withholding, obstinate, meticulous and passive-aggressive. The resolution of the anal stage, proper toilet training, permanently affects the individual's propensities to possession and attitudes towards authority.

- **Phallic stage:** is the setting for the greatest and most crucial sexual conflict in Freud's model of development. At this stage, the child's erogenous zone is the genital region. As the child becomes more interested in his or her genitals, and in the genitals of others, conflict arises. The conflict, labelled the Oedipus complex (the Electra complex in women), involves the child's unconscious desire to possess the opposite-sexed parent and to eliminate the same-sexed one. Fixation at the phallic stage develops a phallic character, who is reckless, resolute, self-assured and narcissistic or excessively vain and proud. Failure to resolve the conflict can also cause a person to be afraid or incapable of close love. Freud also postulated that fixation could be the root cause of homosexuality.
- **Latency period:** The resolution of the phallic stage leads to the latency period, which is not a psychosexual stage of development, but a period in which the sexual drive lies dormant. Freud saw latency as a period of unparalleled repression of sexual desires and erogenous impulses. During the latency period, children pour this repressed libidinal energy into asexual pursuits such as school, athletics and same-sex friendships. But soon puberty strikes and the genitals once again become the central focus of libidinal energy.
- **Genital stage:** This is the last stage of psychosexual development, where the child's energy once again focuses on his or her genitals and interest turns to heterosexual relationships. The less energy the child has left invested in unresolved psychosexual developments, the greater his or her capacity will be to develop normal relationships with the opposite sex. If, however, he or she remains fixated, particularly at the phallic stage, his or her development will be troubled as he or she struggles with further repression and defences.



DIFFERENT THEORETICAL MODELS OF PERSONALITY

There are a number of theories about how the personality develops. Different schools of thought in psychology influence many of these theories. Some of these major perspectives on personality are as follows.

Type Theories

These are the early perspectives on personality. These theories suggested that there are a limited number of "personality types" that are related to biological influences. These theories are used to communicate certain expected behaviours based on similarities.

The earliest known theory of personality is that of the Greek physician Hippocrates (c. 400 B.C.), who characterized human behaviour in terms of four temperaments, each associated with a different bodily fluid or "humor." The sanguine or optimistic type was associated with blood; the phlegmatic type (slow and lethargic) with phlegm; the melancholic type (sad, depressed) with black bile; and the choleric (angry) type with yellow bile. Individual personality was determined by the amount of each of the four humors.

A widely popularized (but scientifically dubious) modern typology of personality was developed in the 1940s by William Sheldon, an American psychologist. Sheldon classified personality into three categories based on body types: the endomorph (heavy and easy-going), mesomorph (muscular and aggressive), and ectomorph (thin and intellectual or artistic).

Charaka Samhitha of Ayurveda classifies people on the basis of three elements called doshas, that is, vatha, pitha and kapha. In Ayurvedic medicine (used in India since ~3000 BC), there are three main metabolic body types (doshas): Vata, Pita, and Kapha.

- ◎ **Vata type** (slender with prominent features, joints and veins, and cool, dry skin) is characterized by changeability and unpredictability. This type is moody, enthusiastic, imaginative and impulsive; prone to anxiety, insomnia, premenstrual syndrome and constipation.
- ◎ **Pita type** (medium build, strength and endurance; is well-proportioned and easily maintains a stable weight) is characterized by relatively predictable behaviour, and can be critical or passionate with short, explosive tempers. This type is efficient and moderate in daily habits, and eats and sleeps regularly.
- ◎ **Kapha type** (solid, heavy and strong) is characterised by a relaxed nature. This type is slow to anger, slow to eat and slow to act. This type also sleeps long and heavily, and tends to procrastinate and be obstinate.

Type A/B Personalities

Another type theory was proposed by Meyer and Friedman. They hypothesized that Type A personalities are workaholics, always busy, driven, somewhat impatient and so on. On the contrary, Type B personalities are laidback and easy going. It may be noted that Type A personality has found its way into general parlance.

Psychodynamic Theories

Psychodynamic theories of personality are one of the most popular approaches to personality development studies. These theories are heavily influenced by the work of Sigmund Freud, and emphasize the influence of the unconscious on personality. These theories focus on change, development and conflicts in people's lives. They visualize human mind in terms of different levels of consciousness, such as the conscious, the preconscious and the unconscious.

For Freud, the personality structure is made up of the Id, Ego and Superego. These are strong psychological forces, which could be inferred from people's behaviour. Freud further believed that the internal conflicts experienced by a person evoke defence mechanisms that underlie the differences in personalities. These defence mechanisms transform the wishes of the Id into an acceptable form. When defences fail, neurotic anxiety takes place.

Neo-Freudians

Neo-Freudians emphasized the social determinants and conscious reality. Some of the famous neo-Freudians are Carl Jung, Erich Fromm, Alfred Adler, Karen Horney and Erik Erikson.

Carl Jung developed his own theory known as analytical psychology. He claimed that there is collective unconsciousness, which contains primordial images that are hereditary. There are two opposing attitudes: introversion and extroversion. Jung also describes four ways of contact with the world, which include sensing, intuition, feeling and thinking.

An attitude, according to Jung, is a person's predisposition to behave in a particular way.

Erich Fromm viewed human beings as basically social beings, who can be understood in terms of their relationships with others. The psychological qualities of people are outcomes of a desire for freedom and striving for justice and truth.

Alfred Adler, in his theory known as individual psychology, believed that behaviour is purposeful and goal directed. Goals are the sources of motivation and they provide security and help to overcome inferiority.

Karen Horney argued that psychological disorders are caused by disturbed interpersonal relationships during childhood. When a parent's behaviour is indifferent, the child experiences basic anxiety, which can lead to problems later.

Erikson developed a theory of personality development that is based on social adaptation. He emphasized social and cultural forces, and viewed development as a lifelong process.

However, all these psychodynamic theories are largely based on case studies and lack scientific basis.

Trait Theories

According to trait theorists, personality is viewed as a result of internal characteristics that have a genetic basis. These theories are concerned with the basic components of personality. These basic components are termed as traits, where traits are a relatively enduring way in which one individual differs from another. Traits are attributes that function as generalized action tendencies. They are relatively stable over time and variation in the strength and combination of traits leads to individual differences in personality. A number of theories have been proposed that emphasize traits and the famous theorists include Gordon Allport, Raymond B Cattell, Hans Eysenck, Paul Costa and Robert MacCrae.

Gordon Allport's Trait Theory

Gordon Allport is considered as the main pillar of the trait approach. According to him, traits exist within the person, are more generalized and dynamic, and determine behaviour causing the person to approach different situations with similar goals or plans. He distinguished between Cardinal, Central and Secondary traits.

- **Cardinal Traits:** These are traits that dominate an individual's whole life, often to the point that the person becomes known specifically for these traits. People with such personalities become so known for these traits that their names are often synonymous with these qualities—for example, Mahatma Gandhi's non-violence and Mother Theresa's humanitarianism.
- **Central Traits:** These are the general characteristics that form the basic foundations of personality. These central traits, while not as dominating as cardinal traits, are the major characteristics that

a person may use to describe another person. Terms such as intelligent, honest, shy and anxious are considered central traits.

- ◎ **Secondary Traits:** These are traits that are sometimes related to attitudes or preferences, and often appear only in certain situations or under specific circumstances. Some examples would be getting anxious when speaking to a group or being impatient while waiting in a line.

Behavioural Theories

Behavioural theorists believe that personality develops due to the interaction between an individual and the environment. Behavioural theorists study observable and measurable behaviours, emphasizing the role of learning.

Raymond B Cattell: Factorial Analysis of Personality

Trait theorist Raymond Cattell believed that there is a common structure across personalities, which must be empirically determined. Cattell applied factor analysis and identified 16 primary or source traits. These traits are said to be the building blocks of personality. There are also a number of surface traits, which are caused by the interaction of surface traits. The source traits are stable and they are explained in terms of opposing tendencies. According to Cattell, these 16 traits are the source of all human personality. He also developed one of the most widely used personality assessments known as the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF).

Hans J. Eysenck

H.J. Eysenck proposed that personality could be reduced to two dimensions, which are presumed to be biologically and genetically based. Hans Eysenck developed a model of personality based on three universal traits.

- ◎ **Introversion/Extraversion:** Introversion involves directing attention on inner experiences, whereas extraversion relates to focusing attention outward on other people and the environment. So, an individual high in introversion may be quiet and reserved; whereas an individual high in extraversion may be sociable and outgoing.
- ◎ **Neuroticism/Emotional Stability:** This dimension of Eysenck's trait theory is related to moodiness versus even-temperedness. Neuroticism refers to an individual's tendency to become upset or emotional, whereas stability refers to the tendency to remain emotionally constant.
- ◎ **Psychoticism:** Individuals who are high on this trait tend to have difficulty dealing with reality and may be antisocial, hostile, non-empathetic and manipulative.

Five-Factor Theory of Personality

A new trait theory, called the “Big Five” theory, emerged as a response to the above mentioned trait theories proposed by Paul Costa & Robert MacCrae. This five-factor model of personality represents five core traits that interact to form the human personality. The following are the different dimensions described by this theory.

- ◎ **Extraversion:** This trait includes characteristics such as excitability, sociability, talkativeness, assertiveness and high amounts of emotional expressiveness.
- ◎ **Agreeableness:** This personality dimension includes attributes such as trust, altruism, kindness, affection and other pro-social behaviour.
- ◎ **Conscientiousness:** The common features of this dimension include high levels of thoughtfulness, with good impulse control and goal-directed behaviour. Those high in conscientiousness tend to be organized and mindful of details.
- ◎ **Neuroticism:** Individuals high on this trait tend to experience emotional instability, anxiety, moodiness, irritability and sadness.
- ◎ **Openness to experience:** This trait features characteristics such as imagination and insight, and those high on this trait also tend to have a broad range of interests.

These dimensions represent broad areas of personality. Research has demonstrated that these groupings of characteristics tend to occur together in many people. For example, individuals who are sociable tend to be talkative. However, these traits do not always occur together. Personality is complex and varied, and each person may display behaviours across several of these dimensions.

Paul Costa and Robert MacCrae, on the basis of these five dimensions, developed a personality inventory called the neo personality inventory to measure personality.

Humanistic Theories

Humanistic theories emphasize the importance of free will and individual experience in the development of personality. This approach put forward a positive and optimistic view of human nature. These theories recognize the role of personal responsibility and growth, and emphasize the present.

Abraham Maslow

Maslow viewed personality which focuses attention and energy. Maslow's hierarchy of needs is most often displayed as a pyramid. The lowest levels of the pyramid are made up of the most basic needs, whereas the more complex needs are located at the top of the pyramid. Needs at the bottom of the pyramid are basic physical requirements, including the need for food, water, sleep and warmth. When these lower-level needs are met, people move on to the next level of needs, which are for safety and security.

As people progress up the pyramid, needs become increasingly psychological and social. Soon, the need for love, friendship and intimacy become important. Further up the pyramid, the need for personal esteem and feelings of accomplishment take priority. The last stage is self-actualization, which is a process of growing and developing as a person to achieve individual potential.

There are five different levels in Maslow's hierarchy of needs. These are discussed below.

- ◎ **Primary physiological needs** These include the most basic needs that are vital for survival, such as the need for water, air, food and sleep. All needs become secondary until these physiological needs are met.
- ◎ **Security needs** These include the needs for safety and security. Security needs are important for survival, but they are not as demanding as the physiological needs.

- ◎ **Love and Belongingness** These include the needs for belonging, love and affection. Maslow considered these needs to be less basic than the physiological and security needs. Relationships, such as friendship, romantic attachments and family, help fulfil this need for companionship and acceptance, as do involvement in social, community or religious groups.
- ◎ **Esteem needs** After the first three needs have been satisfied, esteem needs become increasingly important. These include the need for things that reflect on self-esteem, personal worth, social recognition and accomplishment.
- ◎ **Self-actualizing needs** This is the highest level of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Self-actualizing people are self-aware, concerned with personal growth, less concerned with the opinions of others and interested in fulfilling their potential.

Carl Rogers

Rogers also emphasized a growth-oriented approach to personality. He viewed that humans have definitely an “actualizing tendency” that is underlying in nature. He emphasized that people want to be fully functioning and always move towards that. Such people are sensitive towards the needs and rights of others. This tendency encompasses all tensions and motives, drives, reductions, as well as needs. It also includes creativity, as well as tendencies that are related to pleasure-seeking. Every individual aspires to attain the maximum potential of his or her talents.

Self

Rogers's theory of the self brings into limelight how the self is developed. The self is developed through interactions with others, and consists of the awareness of one's being as well as that of the others. Rogers holds the view that personality can be changed and it is part of personal growth. In psychotherapy, one can change one's self-concept and bring about necessary changes in personality. A person who is “maladjusted” happens to be just the opposite of a full and well-functioning individual. Also those who are “self-accepting” accept others also.

Behaviouristic Perspective

The school of behaviourism emerged in the 1910s, led by John B. Watson. Unlike the psychodynamic theorists, the behaviourists studied only observable behaviour. Their explanations of personality focused on learning. B. F. Skinner, Albert Bandura and Walter Mischel proposed important behaviourist theories. The behaviourist's theory is another attempt to explain human personality.

The behaviourists, in particular, believed that cultural and sub-cultural conditioning moulded and shaped behaviour, and subsequently the personality. The behaviourist model is based on the principles of learning, with all of learning's processes or methods: conditioning, reinforcing (rewards, denials and punishment), desensitization, aversion therapy, modelling and imitation and so on. To the behaviourist, normal behaviour results from acceptable conditioning, reinforcing and modelling and so on. Abnormal behaviour results from defective conditioning, reinforcing and modelling and so on. The behaviourist is not interested in what developmental processes may have influenced a person's behaviour. The behaviourist functions from the position that if a neurotic behaviour can be learned, it can be unlearned.

B.F. Skinner

According to Skinner, people have consistent behaviour patterns because they have particular kinds of response tendencies. This means that over time, people learn to behave in particular ways. Behaviours that have positive consequences tend to increase, whereas behaviours that have negative consequences tend to decrease. Skinner did not think that childhood played an especially important role in shaping personality. Instead, he thought that personality develops over the entire lifespan. People's responses change as they encounter new situations.

Albert Bandura

Albert Bandura pointed out that people learn to respond in particular ways by watching other people, who are called models. Bandura believed that conditioning is not an automatic, mechanical process. He and other theorists believed that cognitive processes, such as thinking and reasoning, are important in learning. The kind of behaviourism they advocated was called social-cognitive learning.

Walter Mischel

Walter Mischel was a social-cognitive theorist. Mischel's research showed that situations have a strong effect on people's behaviour and that people's responses to situations depend on their thoughts about the likely consequences of their behaviour.

Cognitive Perspective

The cognitive perspective of personality emphasized that people are who they are because of the way they think, including how information is attended to, perceived, analyzed, interpreted, encoded and retrieved. People tend to have habitual thinking patterns, which are characterized as personality. So, a person's personality then would be his or her characteristic cognitive patterns.

The cognitive perspective is that personality is a person's mental organization. In order to cope with all the information that a person receives from the world, including sensory information, a person would need to cope with, integrate and organize all the information the world throws at him or her. It includes the way a person thinks, the way that the person processes information (including attending to, perceiving, interpreting, encoding and retrieving information); and the way a person self-regulates via cognitive monitoring and adjusting thoughts and behaviours.

The main cognitive theory is the personal construct theory by Kelly. He emphasized the way a person's concepts for thinking about the world shape his or her personality and behaviour. He explained personality in terms of the cognitive constructs that a person uses in order to make predictions about him or her and the others. He viewed people as similar to scientists who construct hypotheses and test them against reality.

Therefore, it can be concluded that both a person's characteristics and the specific situation at hand influence how a person behaves. Personal characteristics include innate temperaments, learned habits

People's characteristics influence the kind of environment in which they find themselves. Those environments, in turn, influence and modify people's personal characteristics.

and beliefs. The environment includes opportunities, rewards, punishments and chance occurrences. Personality results from a two-way interaction between a person's characteristics and the environment. This process of interaction is called reciprocal determinism.

Personality means distinctive personal qualities, which help a person to establish identity. Personality develops in a very natural process. It includes physical traits (which are visible), intellectual qualities, attitude, behaviour pattern, feelings and aspirations, commitments and convictions. Personality development depends on how a person is allowed to socialize, interact with others emotionally during childhood, the parent's and other important people's behaviour with the person, the cultural milieu in which the person is brought up and the amount of care and love the person gets from parents. The contribution made by school and the facilities provided to the child for his or her physical growth and mental development also play a very important role in a person's personality development. Research on personality has showed that it is set from the early childhood years and it remains pretty much the same for the rest of a person's life. But it can be improved further by proper guidance from parents and teachers. Developing a child's personality is in a way developing a child in every aspect.

There are various factors to be considered in personality development. Personality is built by the kind of thoughts and feelings that people have within them that can result in a particular behaviour. For a better personality, people should have a positive attitude about life, belief in their strong point, handle others the right way, and motivate them properly.

Focusing on Personality Development

Focusing on personality development can help to overcome many hurdles in life. Personality is the result of one's experience; it is the sum total of all that one has said, done, felt, thought, hoped for and believed in; it is the result of one's reactions to the events of life as they come and go. Therefore, developing one's personality depends on the views that one has about life. It is not a one-day activity and it takes time depending on the interest, dedication and commitment to improve it.

S U M M A R Y

Personality is the totality or collection of various characteristics that goes beyond superficial physical qualities. Personality is a word that is used frequently when describing one and the others. Whether you realize it or not, almost every day you describe and assess the personalities of the people around. Soft skills provide people with a strong conceptual and practical framework to develop and manage people around them. They play an important role in the development of a person's overall personality, thereby enhancing their career prospects, employment opportunities and successful competence in the business environment. Personality is determined by heredity and environment, and an interaction between both.

Personality develops through different stages over time. Personality theorists Eric Erikson and Sigmund Freud explained the development of personality through psychosocial stages and psychosexual stages respectively. In addition, there are different theoretical models, such as the type theories, psychodynamic theories, trait theories, behavioural theories and humanistic existential theories, which explain personality from different perspectives. Therefore, developing one's personality depends on the views that one has about life. It is not a one-day activity and it takes time depending on the interest, dedication and commitment to improve it.

K E Y T E R M S

- Personality Development
- Positive attitude
- Dynamic organization
- Psychophysical systems
- Goal orientation
- Persuasion
- Futuristic thinking
- Diplomacy
- Heredity
- Psychosocial stages
- Autonomy
- Oedipus complex
- Libido
- Electra complex
- Unparalleled
- Repression
- Humor
- Defence mechanisms
- Analytical psychology
- Extroversion
- Introversion
- Individual psychology
- Trait
- Individual differences
- Fully functioning Individual
- Conditioning
- Reinforcement
- Rewards
- Denials
- Punishment
- Desensitization
- Aversion
- Modelling
- Imitation
- Social cognitive Learning

T E S T Y O U R K N O W L E D G E

1. What do you understand by the term ‘personality’? Why is it important?
2. How does the psychosexual stage of development differ from the psychosocial stage?
3. What do you understand by type theories? How can you distinguish trait from type theories?
4. What are the characteristics of personality and what determines the development of personality?
5. How is personality formed according to the behaviouristic theorists?

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Chapter Sixteen

Decision-Making

Oommen Mathew and Seena M. Mathai

“Nothing is more difficult, and therefore more precious, than to be able to decide.”

— Napoleon Bonaparte

Everyone, especially in the corporate world, is constantly confronted with situations that demand *decision-making*. Some decisions are simple, needing only simple decision-making processes. Others are complex and involve factors such as uncertainty, complexity, high-risk consequences and interpersonal issues. Decision-making and control are two important processes in organizational effectiveness. Managers who make good decisions contribute to the goals and performances of an organization.

This chapter discusses a number of relevant topics for decision-making. These topics include definition of decision-making, stages and phases of decision-making, different types of decisions, decision-making models, steps to decision-making, group decision-making process, techniques of decision-making and approaches to ethical decision-making.



WHAT IS DECISION-MAKING?

Decision-making is defined as choosing between alternatives. Or, it is the process of sufficiently reducing uncertainty and doubt about alternatives to allow a reasonable choice to be made from among them. This definition emphasizes information gathering in order to reduce uncertainty. You cannot make a decision with absolute certainty and complete knowledge of all the alternatives. Hence, every decision involves a certain amount of risk.

Phases of Decision-Making

There are three major phases in the decision-making process:

- Intelligence activity: Searching the environment for conditions that call for decision-making
- Design activity: Inventing, developing and analyzing possible courses of action
- Choice activity: Selecting a particular course of action from among those available

Stages of Decision-Making

Mintzberg and his colleagues identified three stages of decision-making:

- Identification phase A problem is recognized or an opportunity arises and a diagnosis is made.
- Development phase Search for standard procedures or solutions that are already in place or the design of a new tailor-made solution takes place.
- Selection phase A solution is chosen, which is based on the judgement of the decision-maker, logical analysis of the alternatives or bargaining if the decision-making involves a group of decision-makers.



TYPES OF DECISION-MAKING

○ Programmed and non-programmed decision-making

When the environment is highly structured and when the organization has a set of established rules, programmed decisions are used. Because of the high structure, it is possible to set up a rule that states that an action will take place when a certain condition is met. Based on rules, the upper management dictates the decisions of the middle management. It also enables a small business owner to make quick and consistent decisions by setting a rule and applying it to all similar decisions.

Steps:

Establish the ground rules. These rules can guide future decisions, which make the decision-making more efficient and effective. Programmed decisions anticipate future problems and establish decisions to resolve them.

Non-programmed decisions are utilized in situations where the environment has poor structure, vague goals or ambiguous information. These ambiguous environments require information and analysis that are specific to each decision. This decision-making applies to specific to certain issues and infrequent decisions so that no rule can guide decisions. Here you cannot anticipate problems and therefore each problem has to be dealt with as it occurs.

○ Proactive Decisions and Reactive Decisions

Proactive decisions are more frequent in organizations. Proactive decisions allow time for studying the options. You can analyze the situation and make a better decision. These types of decisions involve a phase of preparation and a phase of execution. In the preparation stage, you define the problem, collect information about it, assess the consequences of each option and then make a decision.

On the contrary, **reactive decisions** do not allow any time. You must act under the pressure of time and circumstances, and such decisions are both the most important and most difficult. You must, however, be carefully prepared for reactive decisions in order to act quite automatically when the event occurs. Usually organizations make use of the risk assessment matrix and list the risks involved in making the decision, and establish the best emergency plans.

○ Responsive and intuitive decisions

In a responsive decision-making process, you make decisions in response to the data that is available. In responsive decision-making, the decision-making is more focused and is in response to the trends that

are appearing in the corporate metrices. The concerned people can look at the available data at any time and understand what is happening, rather than waiting for the month-end reports to be compiled.

Intuition is receiving inputs and ideas without knowing exactly how and where you got them from. Intuitive decision-making is far more than using common sense because it involves additional sensors to perceive and be aware of the information from outside. Sometimes, it is referred to as gut feeling, sixth sense, inner sense, instinct, inner voice, spiritual guide and so on.

◎ Micro and macro decision-making

Micro decision-making refers to the decisions made transaction by transaction, customer by customer. Micro decisions are small decisions made many times by many workers during customer interface. Even though they are made at the lower level, they can have a major impact on the business organization. These decisions are found deep within key operational processes and affect the total organization.

Macro decisions are real decisions and focus on how the decision process can be structured. Macro decisions that are made later may influence prior decisions and determine the context under which a cluster of micro decisions have to be taken. For example, the macro decision to accept a work practice design option for one unit of work contains the micro decisions to decide for each task where and by whom it will be done. The hierarchical sequence of macro decisions is called a decision tree.

◎ Decision-making—‘Cautious’ vs ‘Courageous’

Decision-making being all pervasive, understanding your risk preference helps in making better decisions. Decisions are subject to unknown and/or uncontrollable factors. Irrespective of whether the decision-maker is aware or not, the unknown factors are evaluated and the impact of different alternatives is analysed. Remember that the gain and associated risks for each alternative are only estimates at best and are subject to the perception of the decision-maker. Needless to say, your perception is a function of your propensity to take risks. People differ with respect to their risk tolerance. There are those who would avoid risks to the extent possible and others who are thrilled with the excitement associated with risk-taking and its benefits. In short, making cautious decisions (associated with low risks) or courageous decisions (associated with high risks) is influenced by the decision-maker’s risk profile.

Steps to Decision-Making

Decision-making is choosing between alternatives. There are many steps to this process:

Step 1: Defining the Problem: The first step towards any decision-making process is to define the problem. There should be a clearly stated outcome or goal that the organization desires after the decision.

Step 2: Develop Alternatives: The next step after defining the main problem is to state the alternatives available for that particular situation. The situation of having to make a decision arises because there are many alternatives available. Creative skills can be used by the organization to arrive at different alternatives. For creating alternatives, the organization can make use of all its resources that would aid in solving the problem.

Step 3: Evaluate the Alternatives: This stage, which is very important, involves analysing each alternative that the organization has come up with. The advantages and disadvantages of each option must be identified and the options that are impossible or do not serve the organization’s purpose must be filtered out.

Step 4: Make the Decision: This is the last stage where you finally choose from all the possible alternatives available.

Step 5: Implement the Solution: This stage involves carrying out the decision made by the organization. This is a very crucial step because all the people involved in the implementation of a solution should know about the implications of making the decision, which is very essential for successful decision-making. It is very important to monitor the progress of the decision regularly.

Impact Analysis

On looking back after completing many a project, you may feel that many shortfalls could have been avoided if little more care had gone into the decision-making process at the planning stage. Many of the undesirable outcomes could have been prevented with what is called *impact analysis*. It forms an integral part of project evaluation. It makes it possible to identify problems before they appear, enabling the preparation of contingency plans.

Critical Thinking

Most people really do not care about the “HOWS” of their thinking. Invalid assumptions, emotional blocks that interfere with thinking, inadequate data, naïve acceptance of others and so on can result in poor quality decisions despite the use of recognized tools and techniques. The strategy to avoid this state of affairs is “critical thinking,” which involves thorough analysis and drawing conclusions from information, data, experience, observation and such others.

MODELS OF DECISION-MAKING

There are different decision-making models. The most important one is the rational decision-making model, which involves a cognitive process where each step follows in a logical order, weighing the alternatives to come up with the best potential results.

There are different types of rational models and the number of steps involved in each is different for different models. The different steps involved in a rational model are described as follows:

Rational Decision-Making Model

The first step here is to define the situation or decision to be made. Next you identify the important criteria for the process and the result by considering all possible solutions. After this, calculate the consequences of these solutions against the likelihood of satisfying the criteria and choose the best option. For finding the best option, usually a decision tree is prepared. Relative importance is given to each criterion and the options are scored against each of the criteria. The highest then ‘wins’.

A rational decision-making model presumes that there is one best outcome. Because of this, it is sometimes called an optimizing decision-making model. The search for perfection is frequently a factor in the delay in making a decision. This model considers all possible options and its consequences in the future.

But the efficacy of these models depends on your abilities such as your memory, imagination criteria used and so on. These models also require a great deal of time and a great deal of information.

Some Additional Models

There are the following additional models for decision-making (Peterson, 2007):

Bounded Rationality and Behavioural Economics

Simon's concept of 'bounded rationality' is a central element in the field of decision-making in behaviour economics. The bounded rationality model suggests that individuals act purposefully and they do not necessarily act as they would if they were both fully informed and completely rational. Simon identified several constraints in decision-making, which include (a) only limited,

often unreliable, information about the possible alternatives and their consequences; (b) the human mind has only limited ability to evaluate and process available information; and (c) time constraints under which decisions must be made.

An inability to deal with these constraints leads to the management ailment known as analysis paralysis. These constraints can affect the quality of decisions.

- ◎ **Rational Model** (already discussed): It involves the study of cost and benefit. If the benefit is greater than the cost, then it is decided to accept the project.
- ◎ **Political Model:** In this case, the decision is based on the political agenda and objectives.
- ◎ **Process Model:** According to this, a decision is taken if there is any such precedent in the organization.
- ◎ **Garbage Can Model:** In this method, the decision-maker looks into the suggested ideas and the discarded ideas thrown into the garbage can, and finds some common acceptable decision.
- ◎ **Majority Decision Model:** Decision is based on majority votes.
- ◎ **Minority Decision Model:** Decision is based on the opinions of the minority group, which may be very well-known and experienced.
- ◎ **Consensus Model:** Decision is based on unanimous opinions.



GROUP DECISION-MAKING

Group is a collection of individuals who work towards a goal. Group decision-making is a participatory process where all the group members collectively analyse problems or situations, consider and evaluate alternative courses of action, and select from among the alternatives a solution or solutions. Decision-making in groups may be formal or informal in nature. The process used to arrive at decisions may be unstructured or structured. The different factors that affect group decision-making include the nature and composition of groups, their size, demographic makeup, structure and purpose. The external contingencies faced by groups, such as time pressure and conflicting goals, also impact the development and effectiveness of decision-making groups.

Group Decision-Making Methods

Group decision-making makes use of many methods or procedures in order to make effective decisions. Every method has its own advantages and disadvantages and is designed to improve the decision-making process in some way. Some of the more common group decision-making methods are brainstorming, dialectical inquiry, nominal group technique and the Delphi technique.

○ Brainstorming

Brainstorming is a commonly used method that involves group members verbally suggesting ideas or alternative courses of action. The ‘brainstorming session’ is usually relatively unstructured.

Steps involved in brainstorming

- The first step in the brainstorming session is describing the situation at hand in as much detail as necessary so that the group members have a complete understanding of the issue or problem. This gives the members an overall idea of the problem.
- The group leader or facilitator facilitates the generation of as many ideas as possible from all members of the group and the generated ideas are recorded and presented on a flip chart or marker board.
- The final stage is the evaluation phase where the group members begin the process of evaluating the utility of the different suggestions presented.

Brainstorming is a useful means by which to generate alternatives. However, it does not offer much in the way of a process for the evaluation of alternatives or the selection of a proposed course of action.

Limitation

The main problem with brainstorming is that despite the prohibition against judging ideas until all the group members have had their say, some individuals are hesitant to propose ideas because they fear the judgement or ridicule of other group members. This can be overcome by utilizing electronic brainstorming, which allows group members to propose alternatives by e-mail or other electronic means such as an online posting board or discussion room. Members could offer ideas anonymously, which may increase the likelihood that individuals will offer unique and creative ideas without fear of harsh judgement by others.

Avoiding Group Think

Group think is the result of individual desires for self-expression (especially when it is not popular) and questioning becomes subservient to group consensus. Anxiety about group cohesion becomes detrimental to sound decision-making and problem-solving. Group think occurs and is sustained in the presence of:

- A charismatic and influential leader
- A high-level of group cohesion or desire for it
- External pressure for quick and/or sound decisions

◎ Dialectical Inquiry

Dialectical inquiry is another group decision-making technique that focuses on ensuring full consideration of alternatives.

Steps involved:

1. The first step here is dividing the group into opposing sides.
2. The two groups then debate the advantages and disadvantages of the proposed solutions or decisions.

Devil's advocacy is a similar group decision-making method, which requires that one member of the group highlight the potential problems with a proposed decision. Both these techniques are designed to try and make sure that the group considers all possible ramifications of its decision.

◎ Nominal Group Technique

The nominal group technique is a structured decision-making process in which group members are required to compose a comprehensive list of their ideas or proposed alternatives in writing.

Steps Involved:

1. The problem at hand is presented before the group members.
2. The group members are requested to record their decisions and their ideas privately.
3. Each group member is asked to provide one item from his or her list until all ideas or alternatives have been publicly recorded on a flip chart or marker board.
4. The next stage permits the members to make requests for clarification. No evaluation or criticism of the listed ideas is permitted in this method.
5. After all proposals are listed publicly, the group engages in a discussion of the listed alternatives, which ends in some form of ranking or rating in order of preference.

This method is found to be an effective method because it succeeds in generating a greater number of decision alternatives that are of relatively high quality.

◎ Delphi Technique

This technique is very useful in situations where the individual members are in different physical locations. The technique was developed at the Rand Corporation. The individuals in the Delphi 'group' are usually selected because of the specific knowledge or expertise of the problem they possess.

Steps involved:

1. The problem is given to each member of the group.
2. Each group member is then asked to independently provide ideas, inputs and/or alternative solutions to the problem in successive stages.
3. These inputs may be provided in a variety of ways, such as e-mail, fax or online in a discussion room or electronic bulletin board.

4. After each stage in the process, other group members ask questions and the alternatives are ranked or rated in some fashion.
5. After an indefinite number of rounds, the group eventually arrives at a consensus on the best course of action.

◎ Step Ladder Technique

Effective group work can outperform individuals and make superior quality decisions. However, ineffective groups make decisions that are worse than those made by individuals working on their own. The Step Ladder technique is a method for ensuring that individual participation results in better group decision-making.

Steps Involved:

The issue is presented to all members before working in groups. They get sufficient time to form their opinions.

1. A core group, consisting of two members is formed, who discuss the issue or problem.
2. A third member is added to the group who presents his or her ideas before listening to those of the first two. After all the three have expressed their ideas, a group discussion follows.
3. The process is repeated, adding a fourth member to the group, then a fifth and so on. After each new member is added, discussions follow.
4. A final decision is made after, and only after, all the members have been included in the group and their ideas have been presented.

Preventing group think is the objective of this technique as in the case of the Delphi method. However, the leader controls the group in the Delphi method, whereas all members are equal in the Step Ladder technique. Whereas the Delphi method is a lengthy process that is often used to arrive at major decisions that require inputs from many, the Step Ladder technique is best suited for smaller groups.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Group Decision-Making

It is not possible to state that group decision-making is always better or always worse than individual decision-making. The effectiveness of the decision-making groups can be affected by a variety of factors such as the demographic diversity in the workforce, the type of people present in the decision-making process, the management's attitude towards the workers and so on. Despite the fact that there are many situational factors that affect the functioning of groups, research through the years does offer some general guidance about the relative strengths and weaknesses inherent in group decision-making. The following are some of the advantages and disadvantages of group decision-making:

Advantages

Group decision-making, ideally, takes advantage of the diverse strengths and expertise of its members. By tapping the unique qualities of group members, it is possible that the group can generate a greater number of alternatives that are of higher quality than an individual. If a greater number of higher quality

alternatives are generated, it is likely that the group will eventually reach a superior solution than an individual.

Through group decision-making, it is likely that a greater collective understanding of the eventual course of action chosen will take place, because it is possible that the persons affected by the implementation of the decision actually had an input. This may promote a sense of ‘ownership’ of the decision, which is likely to contribute to a greater acceptance of the course of action selected and greater commitment on the part of the affected individuals to make the course of action successful.

Disadvantages

There are many potential disadvantages to group decision-making:

- ◎ Groups are generally slower to arrive at decisions than individuals, so sometimes it is difficult to utilize them in situations where decisions must be made very quickly.
- ◎ One of the most often cited problems is group think. Group think occurs when individuals in a group feel the pressure to conform to what seems to be the dominant view in the group. Dissenting views of the majority opinion are suppressed and alternative courses of action are not fully explored.

Research suggests that certain characteristics of groups contribute to group think. In the first place, if the group does not have an agreed upon process for developing and evaluating alternatives, it is possible that an incomplete set of alternatives will be considered and that different courses of action will not be fully explored. Many of the formal decision-making processes (for example, nominal group technique and brainstorming) are designed, in part, to reduce the potential for group think by ensuring that group members offer and consider a large number of decision alternatives. Secondly, if a powerful leader dominates the group, other group members may quickly conform to the dominant view. Additionally, if the group is under stress and/or time pressure, group think may occur. Finally, studies suggest that highly cohesive groups are more susceptible to group think.

Group polarization is another potential disadvantage of group decision-making. This is the tendency of the group to converge on more extreme solutions to a problem. The ‘risky shift’ phenomenon is an example of polarization; it occurs when the group decision is a riskier one than any of the group members would have made individually. This may result because individuals in a group sometimes do not feel as much responsibility and accountability for the actions of the group as they would if they were making the decision alone.

Research is likely to continue to focus on identifying processes that will make group decision-making more efficient and effective. It is also likely to examine how the internal characteristics of groups, such as demographic and cognitive diversity and the external contingencies faced by groups, affect their functioning.



APPROACHES TO ETHICAL DECISION-MAKING

Decisions can be taken on the basis of a number of approaches (Ghosh, 2011). Some of these approaches are briefly discussed as follows:

◎ **Egoism (selfishness):** Ethical egoism is the normative ethical position that moral agents ought to do what is in their own self-interest. It is a teleological theory of ethics and its goal is the benefit, pleasure or greatest good of oneself alone. It is contrasted with altruism, which includes the interests of others. Ethical egoism does not require moral agents to harm the interests and well-being of others. An agent's self-interest may be incidentally detrimental, beneficial or neutral in its effect on others. Thus egoism is a philosophy that holds that one should be honest, just, benevolent and so on, and these virtues serve one's self-interest alone. Egoism is of three types, namely, individual, personal and universal.

1. An individual ethical egoist would hold that all people should do whatever benefits them.
2. A personal ethical egoist would hold that he or she should act in his or her own interest, but would make no claims about what anyone else ought to do.
3. A universal ethical egoist would argue that everyone should act in ways that are in their own interests.

◎ **Utilitarianism or consequentialism:** Utilitarianism emphasizes that the ethical action is the one that does the most good or does the least harm to others and that produces the greatest balance of good over harm. The ethical corporate action is the one that produces the greatest good and does the least harm for all who are affected—customers, employees, shareholders, the community, and the environment. The **utilitarian** approach deals with consequences and tries both to increase the good done and to reduce the harm done. In consideration of the consequential approach, individuals should do whatever brings the best results in a situation. If individuals know that the result of a specific action will be better than the results of another, then they should choose the action that will have the best outcome (Uglietta, 2001). In the **consequentialism** theory, an individual ought to maintain the ability to foresee the consequences of an action. To a consequentialist, the decision that generates the most benefit to the most individuals is the decision that is ethically acceptable (Beckner, 2004).

The main advantage of utilitarianism is that an individual can evaluate comparable results and use a point system to establish which decision is more beneficial to the most individuals (Rainbow, 2002). The weakness of this approach is that some individuals may be able to use life experience to predict results, but there is no certainty to this practice. This may lead to unexpected results, which may be unethical because the choice may not benefit many individuals.

◎ **Deontology or duty-based approach:** According to the deontological approach, the consequences of actions are not significant when it comes to determining what is right and wrong. That is, consequences do not make a difference when determining if an action is right or wrong or individuals are moral or immoral. In other words, the end does not justify the means. A standard of morality determines if an action is right and if individuals are good. Moral standards must always be kept no matter what the consequences are (Beckner, 2004). In deontology, individuals unite responsibilities and obligations when evaluating ethical decisions. A deontologist will always keep promises and always follow the law. Individuals who follow this approach will produce consistent decisions because they base decisions on set responsibilities (Rainbow, 2002).

But deontology has many weaknesses. The main weakness of this approach is that there is no justification or logical basis for determining an individual's responsibilities. For example, if an

individual decides to always be on time, one does not know why this individual has chosen to make this his or her responsibility.

Another fault is that an individual's responsibilities may conflict and individuals are not concerned with the well-being of other individuals. For example, a person who is running late and speeding to arrive on time will not maintain the law; however, arriving late breaks the individual's responsibility to be on time. Consequently, there are conflicting obligations and there is no clear decision. Deontology does not offer guidance when an individual encounters conflicting responsibilities (Rainbow, 2002).

- ◎ **Common good approach:** According to this approach, a decision is of use when it contributes positively for the maximization of social welfare or benefits for all and is an ethical decision because it enhances the common good, and all are benefitted. This approach suggests that the interlocking relationships in society are the basis of ethical reasoning and that respect and compassion for all others, especially the vulnerable, are requirements of such reasoning. This approach also calls for attention to the common conditions that are important to everyone's welfare. This may be a system of laws, effective police and fire departments, health care, a public educational system or even public recreational areas. Common goods are benefits that can be made available in a particular region, area or state. Such goods may be public goods such as charitable hospitals, roads, street lights, public security systems and so on. For using such goods, all persons need not pay equally or some persons need not pay at all. Those who do not pay are called free riders, and they can also enjoy the benefits of such goods. The Greek philosophers have contributed the notion that life in a community is a good in itself and that one's actions should contribute to that life.
- ◎ **Rights approach:** For philosophers and ethicists, the ethical action is the one that best protects and respects the moral rights of those affected. The rights approach starts from the belief that humans have a dignity based on their human nature or on their ability to choose freely what they should do with their lives. On the basis of such dignity, they have a right to be treated as ends and not merely as means to other ends. Some rights are fundamental in nature and they include the right to live, to have the freedom of speech, right to security, to property and so on. It is ethically correct to take a decision or make a policy that will guarantee legitimate rights to people who do not have these rights. Violation of rights must be protected and legitimate rights must be established or restored.
- ◎ **Fairness or justice approach:** All ethical actions treat all human beings equally or if unequally, then fairly based on some standard that is defensible. The concept of justice includes: distributive justice (fair distribution of benefits and burden), procedural justice (fair method of making a deal, agreement or contract), retributive justice (correct punishment in accordance with the harm or injury done) and compensatory justice (fair compensation to someone for the harm or injury done in the past). You pay people more based on their hard work or the amount that they contributed to an organization, and say that is fair. Because all people are not equal in every respect, justice demands that equity should be the correct principle and not absolute equality. Thus, for a person in the middle-income group,

Great philosophers like Aristotle have contributed the idea that all equals should be treated equally.

the rate of tax is lower than that for a rich person. This is so because the marginal utility of money is different for these two groups of people.

- **Virtue-based approach:** The ancient approach to ethics is that ethical actions ought to be consistent with certain ideal virtues that provide for the full development of one's humanity. These virtues are dispositions and habits that enable one to act according to the highest potential of one's character and on behalf of values such as truth and beauty. Honesty, courage, compassion, generosity, tolerance, love, fidelity, integrity, fairness, self-control, and prudence are all examples of virtues. A virtuous man is an ethical man, and a decision taken to develop human virtues is ethically the correct decision. An ethical decision needs to be consistent with certain ideals of virtue. The decision-maker must exhibit, exercise, develop or encourage morally virtuous character. All good decisions must encourage virtues and discourage vices in any form.
- **Care-based approach:** The 'ethics of care' is a normative theory, i.e. a theory about what makes actions right or wrong. Ethics of care emphasizes the importance of relationships. Ethics of care focuses on your responsibility for the well-being of others and yourself, and is keenly aware of the inequalities of power that are present in virtually all relationships. It places a premium on security from danger and harm. It is contrasted with morality of justice, emphasizing fairness and equality. It is ethical to take care of all those persons whom you love and who need your care and compassion, love, kindness and mercy. This primarily encompasses your close relatives and family members. The care-based model is also extended to include the people in society who need care and compassion. The care may be through financial support or physical care. Care-based ethics is a part of corporate social responsibility.



PROBLEMS AND DILEMMAS IN DECISION-MAKING

There are many problems in decision-making. Some of them are described as follows: The first one is the **routine decisions problem**, where decisions are made routinely to solve immediate problems instead of sticking to rights or justice. The second problem is that of **innovation**. Individuals neglect any innovation simply because it entails efforts or decreased prestige to others. Innovation is a call for change, which implies criticism of existing performances, policies and personnel in the unit involved. The problem arises when traditional people are oriented to the past and regard innovative ideas or suggestions as attacks on the standards and quality established over a long time. Next is the problem of **institutional mission**. This includes role purposes and conflicts may arise between internal demands and external demands. Objectives may be conflicting when it comes to implementing decisions. Likewise, short-run goals may be in conflict with long-run goals.

Other problems include the **anchoring trap**, where you give disproportionate weightage to the first piece of information that you receive. This often happens because the initial impact of the first information—your immediate reaction to it—is so significant that it outweighs everything else, 'drowning' your ability to effectively evaluate a situation. The **status quo trap is another pitfall of decision-making**, which biases you towards maintaining the current situation—even when better alternatives exist. This may be caused by inertia or the potential loss of face if the current position were to change. Another one is the **sunk-cost trap**, which inclines you to perpetuate the mistakes of the past,

because “You have invested so much in this approach or decision that you cannot abandon it or alter course now.” Finally the **confirming evidence trap**, which is also known as **confirmation bias**, is when you seek information to support an existing predilection and discount opposing information. It can also be shown as a tendency to seek confirming evidence to justify past decisions. Often, this tendency is manifest in people seeking to support the continuation of the current favoured strategy.

S U M M A R Y

Decision-making and control are two important processes in organizational effectiveness. Managers who make good decisions contribute to the goals and performances of an organization. Decision-making is defined as choosing between alternatives. The different phases of decision-making process are intelligence activity, design activity and choice activity. Mintzberg and his colleagues identified three stages of decision-making. They are the identification phase, development phase and selection phase.

Proactive decisions allow time for studying the options. An individual can analyze the situation and make a better decision. On the contrary, reactive decisions require you to act under the pressure of time and circumstances, and such decisions are both the most important and most difficult. When decision-making is more focused and is in response to trends that are appearing in the corporate metrics, it is responsive decision-making. However, intuitive decision-making is far more than using common sense because it involves additional sensors to perceive and be aware of the information from outside.

Decision-making being all pervasive, understanding one’s risk preference helps in making better decisions. Decisions are subject to unknown and/or uncontrollable factors. There are different models to decision-making. The most important one is the rational decision-making model, which involves a cognitive process where each step follows in a logical order, weighing the alternatives to arrive at the best potential results. Simon’s concept of ‘bounded rationality’ is a central element in the field of decision-making in behaviour economics. The ‘bounded rationality’ model suggests that individuals act purposefully and they do not necessarily act as they would if they were both fully informed and completely rational. Other models include the Rational model, Political model, Process model, Garbage Can model, Majority Decision model, Minority Decision model and the Consensus model where decision is based on unanimous opinion.

Group decision-making makes use of many methods or procedures to make effective decisions. Every method has its own advantages and disadvantages and is designed to improve the decision-making process in some way. Some of the more common group decision-making methods are Brainstorming, Dialectical inquiry, Nominal Group technique, and the Delphi technique. However, group decision-making is not devoid of problems and pitfalls. The most important ones among them include the routine decisions problem, innovation, and the problem of institutional mission. Sometimes, the short-run goal may also be in conflict with the long-run goal.

There are a number of approaches to make ethical decisions. These approaches are as follows: the fairness or justice approach was contributed to by great philosophers like Aristotle and proposed that all equals should be treated equally. Another ancient approach to ethics is the virtue-based approach, which says that ethical actions ought to be consistent with certain ideal virtues that provide for the full development of one’s humanity. The ethics of care is a normative theory about what makes actions right or wrong. Other approaches include egoism, utilitarianism, the common good approach and the rights approach.

KEY TERMS

- | | | |
|---------------------------------|--------------------------|----------------------------|
| • Programmed and non-programmed | • Proactive and reactive | • Responsive and intuitive |
| • Micro and macro | • Bounded rationality | • Brainstorming |
| • Deontology | • Utilitarianism | • Egoism |
| • Innovation | • Anchoring trap | • Sunk-cost trap |
| | | • Routine decisions |
| | | • Confirming evidence trap |

TEST YOUR KNOWLEDGE

1. Explain decision-making and different stages of decision-making.
2. What are the basic steps involved in decision-making?
3. How are decisions made in groups? What are the pitfalls of group decision-making?
4. Explain different methods of decision-making in groups.
5. Write a note on the Delphi technique and the nominal group technique.
6. Differentiate utilitarianism from egoism.
7. Which is the best approach to ethical decision-making? Substantiate your answer.

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Chapter Seventeen

Conflict and Conflict Management*

B.N. Ghosh

“Three-fourths of the miseries and misunderstanding in the world will disappear, if we step into the shoes of our adversaries and understand their standpoint. We will then agree with our adversaries quickly or think of them charitably.”

— M.K. Gandhi

“Mankind must evolve for all human conflict a method which rejects revenge, aggression and retaliation. The foundation of such a method is love.”

— Martin Luther King

The study of conflict and conflict resolution is an important area of management and political economy. In our daily life, as well as in business, different types of conflicts occur almost regularly and decisions about conflict resolution become imperative. Although the genesis and causes of conflicts are well known and we broadly agree on these, it is in the method of conflict resolution that we may differ. For resolving conflicts, some may give more importance to personal gains, use of force, legal opinions, negotiations or cooperation.

The present chapter concentrates on three main aspects of conflict and conflict management, namely, the nature, genesis and typology of conflicts; causes of conflicts; and methods of conflict resolution. The chapter will develop at some length, an analysis of conflict in terms of dialectics. According to some, a dialectical explanation provides a definitive step in the management of conflict. It is to be kept in mind that dialectics *per se* does not lead to resolution of conflicts. By its very nature, it becomes more suggestive than prophylactic.

In one sense, the best way to find a solution for conflicts is through sacrifice and cooperation. In this connection, an important theoretical analysis of the possibility of conflict resolution in the framework of the Gandhian political economy that emphasizes cooperation will be attempted—in particular, analysis

*The chapter is a truncated revised version of Chapter 6 of my book on *Gandhian Political Economy*, Ashgate Publishers, London, 2007.

of prisoners' dilemma model showing the possibility of meaningful cooperation that can be of immense assistance in conflict resolution. Although the model would provide a theoretical framework, it can throw sufficient light on the circumstantial possibility of conflict resolution under given conditions.



WHAT IS CONFLICT?

A conflict may involve two or more than two interested and interdependent parties in a situation of a zero or non-zero sum game.

- **A conflict is a clash of interests** when there is the possibility of capability failure or contestability failure, which prevents a party from exercising certain moral or lawful rights or enjoying certain freedom for the achievement of the desired goal.
- **A conflict can be interpreted as a sort of intergroup policy externality, which acts as an impediment in the realization of the desideratum.** A conflict is likely to ensue when the existing institutional behavioural pattern, culture or custom of a society is violated, devastated or discredited by the covert or overt action of some party or parties. A conflict may also start as a principal-agent problem in some cases where the interests are diametrically opposite.
- **A conflict may be defined as a situation where there may be a clash of interests between the goals pursued by two different groups of people who are otherwise mutually interdependent in some way or another.** A conflict may have several subsets, which may be subsumed under one general category. There may be conflicts at different levels; for example, two groups of people may have the same long-term goal but their short-term objectives (targets) may be in conflict in the sense that these are mutually contradictory or conflicting. This can be called the situation of *means conflict*. Given the same goal, there may be conflicts between the different ways and means that can be adopted to achieve the goal.
- **Just as means conflict, there may also be ends conflict. This happens when the instrument variables remain the same or similar, but there is simply a clash in the matter of attainment of goals.** Conflicts may ensue when two parts of the same organic system reveal contradictions or incompatibility in terms of laws of motion of the system. A case in point is the conflict between *the base and the superstructure* in the Gandhian political economy (Ganguly, 1973, chapters 9 and 16). The base is the agriculture or the rural sector and the superstructure is the cities and the urban areas, with all the accommodating institutions and organizations; and these have been found to be in contradictory relation in terms of ethico-social natural laws.

The basic conflicts in social, political and economic domains arise out of a clash between positive and normative axiomatic principles. Almost all examples of conflicts in a political economy system are manifestations of internal contradictions. It may also be between morality and rationality.



TYPES OF CONFLICT

Conflicts can broadly be divided into four main categories: economic, political, social and methodological conflicts. Some miscellaneous types of conflict will also be discussed in this section.

- ◎ In the category of economic conflicts, one can include conflicts due to exploitation and economic inequalities. Conflicts between labour and capital, between the rich and the poor, between highly developed and backward regions, between the rural and urban areas are conflicts that are economic in nature. Many of the conflicts in the economic domain are rooted in economic injustice and exploitation.
- ◎ In India, in the past, there were several instances in Gujarat, Bihar, Bengal and Uttar Pradesh of **landlords (zamindars) exploiting tenants**, who were poor peasants, by increasing rent even at the time of crop failure. The landlords used to physically torture the peasants in the event of their failure to pay rent. Owing to drought, flood or other natural calamities, the share-croppers might not have been able to pay the rent in time. At times, the landlords would increase the rent without reason. Obviously, the poor peasants would not be able to pay the rent in time and the various forms of economic exploitation by the landlords would continue.
- ◎ Another type of economic conflict is due to the exploitation of factory workers through payment of lower wages than what productivity would justify. This is a source of perennial economic conflict between labour and capital. Anybody acquainted with the Marxian theory of *surplus value* should be aware of such a type of conflict.
- ◎ The sectoral conflict between rural and urban areas is brought about by unfavourable terms of trade against agriculture, resource transfer from rural areas, insufficient resource allocation, and unequal and low development of the rural sector in the case of British India. Even after so many decades of Independence, the rural-urban conflict still continues in India.
- ◎ A country like India has been witnessing a growing social conflict in the form of **untouchability and the clash between the so-called higher castes and lower castes**. Social conflict also involved unequal rights and freedom among the various social classes. Some of the social conflicts were economic in nature. For instance, the conflict between the haves and the have-nots in the social arena was due to greater economic power among the former class than the latter, which generated different types of socio-economic exploitation and inequalities. Some of the social evils in India, including untouchability, the dowry system, bonded labour, gender conflict, Hindu-Muslim conflict, racial prejudices and so forth, evidently, were firmly institutionalized. These practices since a long time ago were so naturalized and ingrained in the Indian social psyche that they no longer appeared to be social anathema or conflict. Social conflicts are conflicts between man-made practices and divine dispensation, and are a reflection of the disequilibrium between materialism and spiritualism. This type of conflict was partly the cause, as well as the effect, of India's disembedded social system during British rule.
- ◎ As matter of fact, social injustice and political injustice sustain and reinforce each other in a significant way, particularly in a system where the state is exploitative in nature and plays a collusive role. At times, higher obligation comes into conflict with political obligations, and the laws of the state come into conflict with the laws of God. The conflict becomes almost endless between the dominating alien political power and the dependent, powerless masses in a poor country.

Conflict in the political domain is heightened by power politics—the chasm that is created by the possession of power and the situation of powerlessness.

- ◎ There can be another set of conflicts, called **methodological conflicts** in the absence of a better classificatory concept. Some of the major conflicts in this category are: conflict between tradition and modernity, methodological conflict as end-means conflict, conflict between temporal order and inter-temporal order and conflict between rationality and morality.
 1. **End-means conflict** is a fundamental methodological conflict in political economy literature. Gandhiji was never prepared to accept wrong or unjust means to attain his morally just and upright goals. To him, ends do not in any way justify the means. Gandhi insisted on having morally justified means to achieve his ends.
 2. **The conflict between rationality and morality is indeed a serious and difficult introspective conflict.** Rationality can be defined in many ways. It may be any set of consistent actions to achieve a goal. The consistency in actions or means has nothing to do with morality. Whereas rationality is the dictates of the head, morality is the dictates of the heart. Even an immoral action can be rational if such an action is helpful and efficient to achieve the goal. Any goal-directed action is rational; but morality requires actions that conform to certain ethical values and norms.

Three Types of Conflicts

Right-Wrong Conflict: In this case, a person has to choose between two alternatives: one is right and other is wrong. The wrong may be more profitable or beneficial and hence the conflict.

Right-Right Conflict: The situation is problematic because both the alternatives are right. So the choice constitutes a dilemma.

Wrong-Wrong Conflict: In this case, both the alternatives are wrong. Therefore, the choice is sometimes perplexing.

The above cases are discussed by Dollard and Miller (2007) in terms of Approach (Right or Desirable) and Avoidance (Wrong or Punishable) concepts.

- ◎ The conflict that occurs is a type of **co-operative conflict**, which is for the betterment of the family. In such a type of conflict, the goal is the same but the way to achieve the goal may be different.

◎ Micro-Macro Conflict

In this case, the decision poses a situation of conflict because a micro or individual-based decision may be conflicting with a macro-based decision. Thus, Lord Keynes explained that “saving” is a virtue to an individual but it is a vice for the economy as whole because it will decrease the total income, employment and output.

◎ Short-run Long-run Conflict

This is true in many cases that one confronts in daily life. Sometimes, a short-run decision produces immediate benefits, but in the long run, the benefits are either reduced or wiped out. In such a case, decisions are clear-cut. For instance, a child can earn some income for the family in the short run if he or she gives up studies; but in the long run, without proper education, his or her income is likely to fall, or he or she may have to face the risk of unemployment.



NATURE, ISSUES AND CHARACTERISTICS OF CONFLICTS

A conflict may be a two-party or multi-party phenomenon. A conflict may also be between the inner world and the overt behaviour of a person. The following features and facts become predominant in conflicts:

- ◎ **Incompatibility**

There may be incompatibility between the two conflicting parties. This may be due to differences in attitude, values, interest and methods.

- ◎ **Different Perspectives and Goals**

The two parties may be having the same ideas, attitudes and value system, but they may have different goals and objectives.

- ◎ **Different Values**

All other things remaining the same between the two contending parties, conflict arises simply because of their differing value systems.

- ◎ **Different Techniques**

There may be a conflict because the two parties propose two different techniques to solve the problem. One party may like confrontation and the other may prefer cooperation. So the inability to choose a clear-cut solution (action plan) may lead to a conflict.

- ◎ **Different Facts**

A conflict may arise simply by a mistake, misunderstanding or misrepresentation of facts between the two persons or parties. The fact of the matter may also be an issue. Its definition, the statement of the problem and the fact itself may be contentious issues. Concepts such as *truth*, *beauty* and *justice* and so on cannot be uniquely defined, and such things may be the source of conflict.

Conflict is a Dynamic Process.

An important ontology of conflict must recognize the fact that it consists of a series of interlocking episodes, phenomena or circumstances. Thus, by nature, conflict is a dynamic process, which may change its character over time through circumstances. Dynamics refers to the interaction between the involved variables (Ghosh, 2009, p. 7). The interactions may be among the changing factors, forces and forms. Dynamics may also refer to the progress or process of contradictions and the resolution of contradictions. Thus, what is initially given as a thesis may turn into an antithesis and may ultimately be resolved as synthesis? The involved interacting conditions, their growth and evolution are described by dialectics of conflict. This is attempted in the following section.

DIALECTICS OF CONFLICT

Dialectics is an inter-related dimension of conflicts, and it can be interpreted in various ways (Bose, 1962, pp. 8-15). It explains contradictions in thought and crises in socio-economic life in terms of the particular contradictory essential relations, which generate them (Bottomore, 1983). Of all the relations

found in dialectics, contradiction is the most important (Ollman, 1986, p. 6). Contradiction is intrinsic and arises from within, and it shows the interaction of two or more processes where one may be more dominant than the other. Interactions and holism may give rise to aberrations and disequilibrium that may produce conflict and clash of interests.

Dialectics brings into focus the whole range of changes and interactions that occur in the process of development and change (Ghosh, 1990). Dialectics replaces the concept of *things* with the concept of *process* that explains the involved history, relations and future. The **whole purpose of the study of dialectics is to explain dilemmas in any conflicting situation and also to understand the ontology of conflict.**

Dialectics considers everything from the perspective of changes and explains a situation in terms of involved relations and relational changes (Sherman, 1995). Thus, in order to explain the ethical perspective in business, it is imperative to bring to focus the whole gamut of relations within any organizations and outside it, and account for the systemic changes that have occurred. It is to be appreciated that different types of society, or stages of development of the same society may have different *laws of motion*, and the nature and degree of conflict may, therefore, vary. Dialectics of conflict (DC) **can be interpreted at least in the six senses** shown in Fig. 17.1.

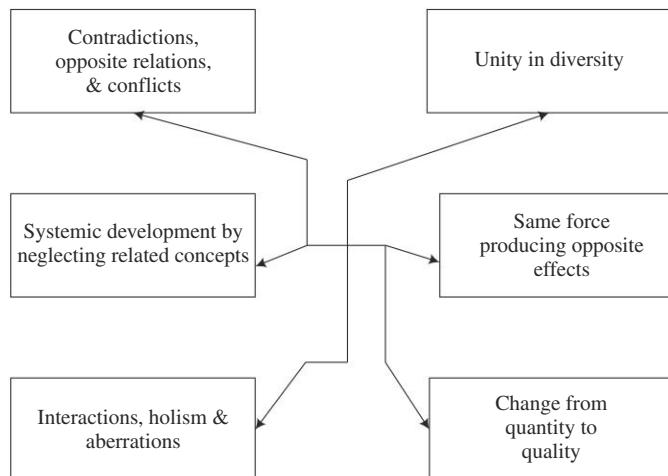


Fig. 17.1 Dialectics

- **Dialectics can explain many types of ethical dilemmas and conflicts.** In the Hegelian sense, it analyses the genesis and the historical character of that dilemma. Why is the dilemma created? What contradictions are involved between the personal, moral predisposition of the manager and the amoral or immoral business organization? Gandhi found a contradiction between material affluence and the moral degradation of a nation (Ghosh, 2007, pp.197–203). Like the Hegelian concept, in the case of business ethics, the moral ethical code is the **thesis**, the unethical or

Dialectic analysis of a system consists of showing the process that can explain its growth and evolution and also providing an explanation of the interacting conditions under which the system exists.

immoral business ethics is the **antithesis** and the resolution of the dilemma (contradiction) to do some socially beneficial work is the ultimate **synthesis**. Thus, in the perspective of any conflict, the Hegelian dialectics is at work through **thesis, antithesis and synthesis**.

- ◎ In the case of conflict or dilemmas, it is necessary to **explain the systemic development of the basis of conflict** that neglects some concepts, which themselves are interrelated. For instance, in Indian civilization, Hinduism propagates the four-fold objectives of life: *dharma* (religion), *artha* (financial resources), *kama* (desire) and *moksha* (salvation). However, the capitalist system puts more emphasis on wealth accumulation and satisfaction of physical desire. The Western concept of business, as Gandhi believed, is overly unbalanced, body-centric and ungodly (Gandhi, 1909, October 22). In such a situation, a conflict is inevitable.
- ◎ In **dialectics, the same force produces opposite effects**. For instance, capitalism is a salutary organizational system for the business people because, as Marx says, it is the most progressive mode of production. But the same system leads to exploitation of labour, inhuman working conditions and proletarianization of labour. Thus, capitalism is good for business people but bad for ordinary labourers.
- ◎ **Dialectics witnesses an internal transformation from quantity to quality**. From the business perspective, the growth of the company in terms of market share, profit, assets and so on are quantitative concepts. But the change in its objective function towards more social responsibility, human welfare and environmental consciousness, over a period of time, are all qualitative transformation. Economic growth is a quantitative concept but development is qualitative in nature. All these transformational qualities can be regarded as its developmental metamorphosis.
- ◎ **Dialectics seeks to unfold interactions among institutions, human nature, organizational culture and ethical values**. It also explains the possibility of dilemmas and disequilibrium in the social system. Through interdependence and interactions, the temporal relations are half-heartedly internalized. This produces unstable internality, dilemmas and conflict. For instance, the traditional Indian system was characterized by *varnashrama dharma* (caste-based religion), revealing social interdependence and division of labour. But in the course of time, it degenerated into social exploitation, oppression and conflict.
- ◎ **Dialectics assures that there is an essential unity in everything**. This is ensured by natural laws (what Adam Smith calls natural order). The **invisible hands** ultimately bring about equilibrium. Thus, business profit and morality do not always remain contradictory for a long time. In fact, many business houses all over the world do perform some commendable social and ethical work, and behave as good **corporate citizens**. The basic purpose of enlightened capitalism is also similar in nature.



GENESIS AND CAUSES OF CONFLICT

Some of the basic causes of conflicts have been enumerated in the definitions of conflict that were discussed earlier in this chapter. Some of the important causes of conflicts can be enumerated as follows:

- ◎ In a sense, **the genesis of conflicts is embedded in the very nature of man**. Gandhi once said that man will remain imperfect ever (Bose, 1962, p. 65). Although human beings are not fundamentally bad, there is still the possibility of their perversion because of negative environmental externalities. The rationality of human nature is the precondition for the perfectibility of man. However, in the midst of a growing negative environmental externality, the **principle of bounded human rationality** in the context of constant struggle for survival does not preclude the possibility of conflict. Perverted human beings quite rationally may take recourse to conflict and violence.
- ◎ Conflicts are mostly the manifestation of disequilibrium **between morality and rationality**. The head has indeed a reason of its own, which the heart cannot understand. The incongruence between the dictates of the head and heart often leads to conflict. The self-centred psyche fails to appreciate the philosophical concept of equality and brotherhood between man and man.
- ◎ **Cognitive disequilibrium (CD) may be a potent source of conflict.** CD arises when a person of one ethical or social system finds that in the new environment, his or her own system does not work, and that many cultural values are in conflict or contradictory.
- ◎ Human beings degenerate due to the materialistic culture brought by capitalism. The one-sided, unbalanced nature of man is the product of the material civilization of today's times. This type of man is more body-centric than mind-centric. The capitalist civilization generates two distinctly different types of human beings: one materially rich with money power (the capitalist) and the other exploited, repressed and poor (the working class). The working class is dehumanised, deprived and frustrated. Capitalism distorts human dignity, liberty and equality, and reduces labour power to a commodity, which is bought and sold in the market. This exploited class develops cynicism and profound anti-human bias that ultimately finds its expression in conflict and violence. In such a world of class dualism, there cannot be human co-operation and mutuality of interest but, more often than not, the possibility of conflict.

Indian civilization ordains a man to be balanced by attaining four worldly objectives: religion, wealth, desire for sexual pleasure and salvation. However, **the present materialistic human civilization lays greater emphasis on the acquisition of wealth and the desire for personal gratification. This makes an individual unbalanced, and in pursuance of these worldly objectives, a person can indulge in and often does indulge in many unsocial and anti-social activities, including conflict and clash (Fig. 17.2)**.

- ◎ **A modern man does not have any control over desire and that, according to Gandhi, is the genesis of all conflicts and troubles.** Most people do not understand the proper meaning of life and they are satisfied with wealth and power. A modern man is a replica of the neoclassical economic man who always buys in the cheapest market and sells in the dearest market. He is always the utility-maximizing ego-centric entity.
- ◎ **Interdependence remains one of the primary reasons for the genesis and perpetuation of conflict and it becomes more evident in the case of unequal power relations.** The goals may be asymmetrical and interdependent, but mutually exclusive, and these may or may not have to be zero-sum in nature. In capitalism, Gandhi, like Karl Marx, observed the possibility of conflict between the working class and the capitalist, mainly because of the exploitation of the

former by the latter (Gandhi, 1935, March 1). **Basically, there are two reasons for the genesis of conflict under this situation.** First, dependency with unequal power relations; and second, goal incompatibility. The power of dominance over others also leads to many types of socio-economic conflicts.

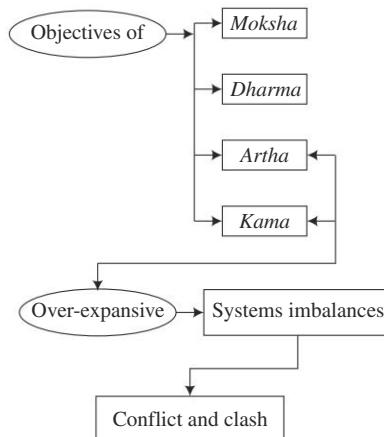


Fig. 17.2 Origin of Conflict

- ◎ **Conflicts are systemic in nature and arise out of some basic internal contradictions.** The **principle of contradictions** in such a situation can be seen to be empirically applicable in the generation of conflict. **There are at least four types of systemic internal contradictions:**
- ◎ **First**, the imperfect nature of human beings and the requirements of perfection and rationality in them for the success of non-violence are contradictory in nature. There is also a contradiction between human morality and rationality.
- ◎ **Second**, on the one hand, there is relentless struggle of the poor Indian masses for rights, liberty and economic independence; on the other hand, there may be constant repressive tactics of the managers and capitalists.
- ◎ **Third**, there may be simultaneous existence of materialistic and acquisitive globalized foreign culture embedded in a system that is characterised by traditional values, religiosity and renunciation.
- ◎ **Fourth**, whereas at one end of the spectrum of the social system, there may be a strong attempt to hold on to the practice of social stratification and exploitation through caste-based division of labour, at the other end, there may be the manifestation of the **existentialist struggle** to free the repressed and the down-trodden from the politics of caste.



METHODS OF CONFLICT RESOLUTION

There are many methods of conflict resolution. However, the following methods are very popular and are generally suggested for conflict resolution. These methods are briefly discussed here.

○ Confrontation and Violence

Generally, a very powerful party resorts to confrontation and violence. However, violence begets violence, and in the process, there may be chances of bloodshed, loss of property and loss of life and so on. Violence is never a permanent method for conflict resolution.

○ Smoothing

The technique of smoothing is a process of playing down the differences between the conflicting parties, and if both the parties choose this technique, there may be a chance of eliminating the existing differences. The differences can be sorted out either by the parties, or by a middleman or an arbiter.

○ Sacrifice, Withdrawal and Avoidance

If one of the conflicting parties sincerely tries to resolve the crisis, it will not be difficult to do so. In such a situation, it is better to make some sacrifices in terms of the imposed demand or conditions, make withdrawal and practise avoiding a rigid stance. Conflict resolution demands that either one of the parties or both the parties make some sacrifices. This is helpful to make a trade-off or compromise.

○ Negotiations and Persuasion

It is necessary, first of all, to try to negotiate and persuade. Negotiation is a process of bargaining. This is an amicable method of resolving conflicts, either directly or through a mediator or an arbitrator. The mediator chosen should be sympathetic, neutral and acceptable to both the parties concerned. In such a method, there has to be some sacrifice from both parties. In a conflict that involves negative externality, conflict resolution is easily possible if there are well-defined property rights and the transaction cost is very low or zero (Coase, 1960). In this context, if the party that is creating the social damage is ready to internalize the externality, there would be, at the end, some acceptable point of trade-off, which can satisfy both parties. Gandhi favoured the idea of internalization of conflict through greater sacrifice by the stronger party in case of a just demand by the weaker party. This was Gandhi's attitude in the settlement of the mill workers' conflict in Ahmedabad.

○ Satyagraha and Non-Violence

If, however, negotiation fails to achieve the desired result, there can be protest in the form of strikes (*hartal*), civil disobedience or civil resistance. Gandhi considered all these forms of protest to be just actions if the order from the higher authority is found to be repugnant to rights, freedom, rationality and morality. Gandhi himself participated in many such strikes and civil disobedience movements, such as the Dandi March, Quit India Movement and Ahmedabad Textile Mills strikes and so on. In all these cases, his very important weapon for conflict resolution was *satyagraha*' (non-violent protestation for the sake of truth). To Gandhi, justice, which is essential for the resolution of conflict, is the first condition of non-violence. Gandhi regarded non-violence as a very powerful and comprehensive means that must be the first condition of any conflict resolution. It was, so to speak, an eternal means and a supreme silent weapon to control hatred and misunderstanding in all circumstances. Socio-economic justice was interlaced with the creed of non-violence. The relationship between justice and conflict resolution is a two-way relationship: justice can contribute as much to conflict resolution as conflict resolution can contribute to justice.

However, *satyagraha* presupposes the rationality of man, which presumes that the conflict would be settled by argument and logic. There may, of course, be the problem of internal contradiction between rationality and morality, and in that case, Gandhi advised to have synergy between the head and heart, and a trade-off leading to compromising attitude and action.

◎ Cooperation and Compromise

The principle of cooperation plays a very critical role in conflict management. Gandhi had enormous faith in human rationality. He, like Freud, believed that human beings are basically innocent and good; nobody is born a criminal, but it is the environment and circumstances that are mostly the responsible factors. So if these exogenous factors are changed, there could be resolution of some of the conflicts without much of a problem. A particular type of human personality and psyche, as explained earlier, is responsible for the generation of conflict, and a change in personality would be imperative to resolve conflicts that are essentially human-centric. Harsanyi observes that unless there is some co-operation, people cannot obtain what they jointly wish to (Harsanyi, 1955).

◎ Education

The basic purpose of education is to endow people with the power to distinguish between good and evil, and to inculcate virtues, morality and philanthropic qualities. A proper system of education should be able to build character and enough catholicity of mind to help society to evolve better institutions for all-round human development (Gandhi, 1932, 10 July). Education intensifies both rationality and morality, which are immensely helpful for conflict resolution.

◎ Organizational and Institutional Reforms

Organizational and institutional reforms are also essential for conflict resolution. In this context, Gandhi wanted to bring about suitable institutional and organizational changes in the existing socio-economic institutions and practices, such as the *zamindary* (landed aristocracy) system, capitalist system of industrial organization and so forth. He intensely felt the need for reforming age-old, corrosive social systems such as the dowry system, the caste-based social system, untouchability and the like (Gandhi, 1929, 4 April). In his conceptualization, the state also has to be reorganized through more and more decentralization of power. He wanted to establish a classless democracy. In a classless and stateless democracy, there would be no class conflict. He firmly believed that as the first step, *swaraj* would be able to eradicate many systemic conflicts that had risen in India due to foreign domination and egregiously bad power relations.

For conflict resolution, Gandhi suggested a religious basis for politics. Decentralization of power will reduce the misuse of power because centralization and concentration of power leads to conflict and violence. If the decentralized power belongs to people, there would be fewer chances of its misuse and mismanagement. The purpose of institutional changes and decentralization of power is to control the greed and exploitative nature of the social classes and institutions.

Conflict resolution needs a strategy of bilateral control of rapacity, *anasakti* (non-attachment), and the moralistic discipline of mind. It is, however, extremely difficult to change human nature, which, according to Adam Smith, is basically selfish; and it would be too much to expect behavioural changes in human beings as an offshoot of educational and institutional changes.

◎ Prisoners' Dilemma and Cooperation Threshold

The prisoners' dilemma (PD) model is a typical game theoretical model, which can show that although in a two-party zero sum game each party adopts a dominant strategy, it cannot secure maximum pay-off unless the parties cooperate. Negotiations provide a way out for the deadlock, and find a possible means for resolution of conflict. The concept of co-operation threshold is important to know how far it is possible to have a co-operative solution. Threshold is the degree of certainty of achieving a solution based on co-operation (the reward/pay-off) (Levy, 1985, p. 581).

In the Gandhian analysis of conflict between peasants and landlords, or between capitalists and workers, the PD model shows the possibility of an interesting co-operation threshold. In a PD model, the involved parties must compare the values of punishment (P) and reward from co-operation (R) before embarking on the co-operative resolution of conflict. If the benefits from co-operation are higher than the losses from holding out, the possibility of co-operative resolution of the conflict is also higher. It should be noted that when the benefits from co-operation, or the costs of holding out increase, the threshold is lowered, implying thereby, the possibility of more co-operation between the conflicting parties. However, the PD model, in general, shows that both parties can have maximum benefits if there is co-operation between them.

Suppose that there are two suspects (Tom and Dick) in a crime. They have been temporarily put in two prison cells, and they cannot have any communication between them. If they confess, they get a four-year sentence each. However, if one confesses (through the persuasive pressure of the investigating officer), but the other person does not confess, the person confessing gets a one-year sentence and the person who does not confess gets six years' punishment. If both the prisoners do not confess, they get zero years as punishment. Because there is no co-operation between them, their individual act of confession gives them a maximum punishment of four years. However, had there been communication and co-operation between them, the punishment could have been reduced to zero years (vide the matrix shown in Fig. 17.3).

		TOM	
		Confess	Not confess
DICK	Confess	4 4	1 6
	Not confess	0 1	0

Note : (i) Numerical figures are punishment in year

(ii) Dick's sentences are recorded in the southwest corner of each box

Fig. 17.3 Prisoners' Dilemma Model

Conflicts in Conflict Resolution

Conflict resolution involves many stages and various means and *modus operandi*, particularly when the conflict is between two social groups. Conflicts in conflict resolution are likely to arise in the following cases:

- ◎ Sometimes, it is possible that the parties do not know for sure which instrument of conflict resolution would be the most appropriate and successful to achieve the desired goal, and there may be intra-party conflict in the matter of use of the instrument.
- ◎ Even if a particular instrument or means is chosen by a majority of the supporters, there may still be the possibility of conflict about the timing, the *modus operandi* and other details.
- ◎ **The non-violent method, although considered the best by Gandhi, has many limitations in the practical world.** For instance, it may be regarded by the opponent as posing no threat to his or her action and policy. Therefore, this method of conflict resolution may not be taken seriously at all. This may precipitate the use of physical violence and attack by the contesting party to quickly win over the situation. In that case, because of fear and possible injury, the weak members of the non-violent party may be forced to quit and this could spell disaster to the whole experiment. **Non-violence may indeed encourage violence from the opponent party.**
- ◎ **The non-violent method of conflict resolution does not evoke any immediate interest from the other party, and it may take a long time to resolve the conflict.** In many cases, it may not be a successful strategy at all to settle the dispute. There may also arise conflicts about the acceptability of the different trade-off packages. This conflict will involve not only inter-group conflict but also intra-group dissensions; and at times, the situation may be so convoluted that no bilaterally acceptable resolution can be worked out.
- ◎ **It is the imperfection of human character that is in direct conflict with the concept of non-violence, which is the prime method of conflict resolution in the Gandhian political economy.** This is indeed a serious endogenous methodological conflict in conflict resolution.

As a matter of fact, during his life time, Gandhi himself encountered many instances of conflict in conflict resolution, and he could not be equally successful in his endeavour in all cases. Although his experiment with non-violence as a method of conflict resolution achieved moderate success in the cases of untouchability, inter-communal violence, exploitation, poverty and inequalities, it failed in the cases of Hindu-Muslim conflict resolution in India during his time. He realised in the later part of his life that it was easier to resolve individual cases of conflict but very difficult to manage group or community conflict. This is because of the fact that mob psychology is more difficult to mould and control, and after Gandhi's demise, no serious attempt was made in India to apply his principles in the matter of conflict resolution.

SUMMARY

A conflict is a clash of interests. A conflict can be interpreted as a sort of inter-group policy externality, which acts as an impediment in the realization of the desideratum. A conflict may be defined as a situation where there may be a clash of interests between the goals pursued by two different groups of people who are otherwise mutually interdependent in some way or another. There may be conflicts at different levels: for example, two groups of people may have the same long-term goal but their short-term objectives (targets) may be in conflict in the sense that these are mutually contradictory or conflicting. Just as means conflict, there may also be ends conflict. This happens when the instrument variables remain the same or similar, but there is a clash in the matter of attainment of goals. Conflict may ensue when two parts of the same organic system reveal contradictions or incompatibility in terms of the laws of motion of the system.

The basic conflicts in social, political and economic domains arise out of a clash between positive and normative axiomatic principles. Almost all examples of conflicts in a political economy system are manifestations of internal contradictions. It may also be between morality and rationality. Conflicts can broadly be divided into four main categories: economic, political, social and methodological conflicts. There may also be micro-macro conflict, wrong-wrong conflict, right-wrong conflict and wrong-right conflict.

A conflict may be a two-party or multi-party phenomenon. A conflict may also be between the inner world and the overt behaviour of a person. Conflicts occur mainly because of incompatibility, different perspectives and goals and different values. Sometimes, there may be a conflict because the two parties proposed two different techniques to solve a problem. One party may like confrontation and the other may prefer co-operation. So the inability to choose a clear-cut decision (action plan) may lead to a conflict.

Dialectics is an inter-related dimension of conflicts, and it can be interpreted in various ways. It explains contradictions in thought and crises in socio-economic life in terms of the particular contradictory essential relations, which generate them. Of all the relations found in dialectics, contradiction is the most important. Contradiction is intrinsic and arises from within. It shows the interaction of two or more processes where one may be more dominant than the other. Interactions and holism may give rise to aberrations and disequilibrium that may produce conflict and clash of interests.

There are many methods of conflict resolution that include confrontation and violence, smoothing, sacrifice, negotiation and persuasion, *satyagraha* and non-violence and cooperation and compromise. The prisoner's dilemma model is based on co-operation and understanding. However, at times, there may be a possibility of conflict in conflict resolution. This is so because of methodological differences, differences in value perspectives and in the end-means strategies.

KEY TERMS

- Dialectics • Cognitive disequilibrium • Laws of motion • Co-operative conflict
- Negative externality • Property rights • Ends-means • Conflict
- Base and superstructure • Methodological conflicts • Thesis-antithesis-synthesis
- Four-fold objectives of life • Varnashram dharma • Corporate citizens
- Bounded rationality • Unequal power relations • Principle of contradiction
- Satyagraha • Smoothing

TEST YOUR KNOWLEDGE

1. What is conflict and what are its most proximate causes?
2. Explain fully how dialectics can explain the situation of conflicts.
3. Enumerate the most important causes of conflict in a capitalist society.
4. Is conflict inevitable in a social system? Explain your views.
5. What are the basic features of conflict? Explain.

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6. There are many types of conflicts. What, according to you, are the most typical in a globalized society?
7. Write a note on prisoner's dilemma. How can it explain a situation of conflict?
8. Briefly explain the methods of conflict resolution. Which one, according to you, is the best and why?
9. Are conflicts the same as dilemmas? How does conflict arise due to internal contradictions? Explain with examples.

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Chapter Eighteen

Stress Management

B.N. Ghosh

“It is not stress that kills us; it is our reaction to it.”

— ?

“Man’s troubles are rooted in extreme attention to senses, thoughts, and imagination. Attention should be focused internally to experience a quiet body and calm mind.”

— ?

Leo Tolstoy’s (2007) celebrated novel *Anna Karenina* opens with the genial statement: “Happy families are all alike; every unhappy family is unhappy in its own way.” It is indeed so. Aristotle, in his *Nicomachean Ethics* that was written in 350 B.C., observed that **eudemonia** (well-being or happiness) is the supreme goal of life and can be attained by virtuous actions (see Ghosh, 2011 for details). Like Aristotle, Buddha has also advised the practice of right understanding, right attitude, right action, right speech and so forth for inner happiness. However, a large part of people’s happiness is swept away by their worries and anxieties. The interesting point is that most of these worries are not real but imaginary, and created by the subconscious mind. In a sense, the subconscious mind is more important than conscious thinking and reality.

Having said all this, it must be said that in the present day world, it is neither completely possible nor desirable to be stress-free. Some stresses indeed provide the driving forces and are consistent with the dynamics of human life and existence. The present chapter is devoted to analysing stress—the meaning, manifestations, genesis, models, effects and the methods to prevent or eliminate worries.



WHAT IS STRESS?

Stress is not the same as worries, but they are inter-related. Worries produce stress and stress may lead to worries. In Japan, stress is called **Karoshi**. Stress is commonly known as tension. For the purpose of this chapter, the concepts of stress, worries and anxieties will be treated synonymously, although there are some nuances among them.

- Stress denotes **inadequate or absence of response to emotional, psychological or physiological threats**. It is a response that matters and not the stimulus, inside or outside. The word stress has different meanings in different contexts.

- In **physics**, it is a force or pressure that puts strain on a particular structure.
- In **psychology**, stress denotes the result of an interaction between a person and the environment around that person in any organizational milieu.
- In **physiology**, stress denotes the changes that come about as a result of or in response to the action of an evocative agent.



CHARACTERISTIC FEATURES OF STRESS

- ◎ It is a state of psychological or physiological disequilibrium. It is a **cognitive disequilibrium**.
- ◎ It is a reactive manifestation.
- ◎ It may be an emotional disturbance.
- ◎ It is a disturbance or shock that the body and mind cannot adjust or absorb quickly.
- ◎ It is an individual's response to a particular situation either at the work place or in the family.
- ◎ It is basically a mental situation or condition that brings about an abrupt change, helplessness and/or conflict.
- ◎ Two elements are necessary for stress to occur: **stressor and stressed**.
- ◎ Individual response to stress is unequal. That is, all people are not equally stressed by the same situation or stressor.
- ◎ Stress may be good or bad for a person.
- ◎ Stress may be from within (endogenous) or from outside (exogenous).
- ◎ Stress can be adjusted in many cases; of course, differently by different persons.
- ◎ Stress is measureable.
- ◎ If stress is not properly managed, it can do enormous harm to the human psyche (body and mind).



TYPES AND CAUSES OF STRESS

There are mainly two types of stress: Positive stress (Eustress) and negative stress (Distress)

Positive stress has the following characteristics:

- ◎ Good indication for future success
- ◎ Challenge for betterment
- ◎ Motivation to work
- ◎ No harm to body and mind
- ◎ Adrenaline secretion, excitement and joy

Negative stress has the following impacts:

- ◎ Physical exhaustion
- ◎ Sickness
- ◎ Reduction in efficiency and productivity

- ◎ Disappointment and frustration
- ◎ Imbalance, irritability and disease-prone

Causes of Stress

The causes of stress are numerous and varied. These causes are both external and internal. Some of the important causes are as follows:

- ◎ Personal, family, workplace-related, natural and man-made causes
- ◎ Too much work pressure
- ◎ Quarrel and conflicts
- ◎ Effect of wrong action or policy, or unplanned work schedule
- ◎ Externality (external factors): Unpredictable causes include sudden dismissal from job, failure in love or business, and so forth.



PERSONALITY TYPE AND STRESS

It is empirical knowledge that stress is associated with personality patterns. There are basically two types of personalities: A and B. The A type personality is very dynamic, restless, demanding, very active and action-oriented. But the B type personality is just the opposite. This personality is laid back, slow and sluggish, calm and quiet and phlegmatic.

A type personality: Generates more stress

B type personality: Generates less stress



SYMPTOMS OF STRESS

Some of the important symptoms associated with stress are as follows:

- ◎ Behaviour becomes abnormal and disturbed.
- ◎ The person experiences fatigue and confusion.
- ◎ There may be:
 - Loss of appetite
 - Loss of sleep
 - Loss of concentration
 - Sudden outburst of anger
 - Rise of blood pressure
 - Apathy to do solid work and loss of interest in everything
 - Absenteeism and inefficiency at work
 - Depletion of energy
 - Pessimism and dissatisfaction everywhere



MODELS OF STRESS ANALYSIS

Analytical literature on stress started growing in the continental countries since the 1930s. Apart from some other possible reasons, an important one for such a development was the Great Depression of the Thirties when most people lost their jobs and the situation was so bleak that “the bank manager started selling apples on the street corner.” There are many models to explain the situation of stress (see for details, Cordon, 1997). In this section, a few well-known models are briefly discussed. The last model (Life Cycle model) is presented by the author.

Selye's General Adaption Syndrome Model

From the biological perspective, one of the celebrated models was given by Hans Selye (1950). It is a very comprehensive model that explains the stages of stress in human beings. GAS implies the general adaptation syndrome. The whole syndrome of stress is explained in terms of the relative strength of the level of resistance and the stress-creating situation. In this model, **stress is defined as “an adaptive response to the external situation that results in physical, psychological and/or behavioural deviation for organizational participants.”** Selye explains that when a person has to face a situation of threat, the response mechanism works in the following three ways. **Stress progresses incrementally through three stages as follows:**

◎ **Alarm Stage:**

This is the first stage of potential stress. However, initially, the body tries to adjust to the new situation. The situation may encounter a stressor (something that produces stress). In the initial stage, the energy level is high and the power of adjustment is great. So, it may be a positive kind of stress that is generally called **Eustress**. As explained earlier, **Eustress** is beneficial for a person in many ways.

◎ **Resistance Stage:**

This stage of stress development is very crucial. It is at this stage that the body feels the real stress syndrome. The resistance power comes to a critical level, and the **individual experiences a fight or flight situation**. The individual must now make a crucial decision of whether to stay on or to escape. If the individual’s resistance power is still sufficient, he or she stays on; otherwise he or she tries to escape.

◎ **Exhaustion Stage:**

If a person is at the resistance stage and decides to fight with the stressful situation, he or she will sooner or later experience a breakdown of the immune system and he or she will feel completely exhausted. This stage is marked by failures, frustration and fear, and it is called the stage of **Distress**, which is a negative type of stress that is damaging to the body and mind.

Mismatch Model of Lazarus and Folkman (LF)

This model has been given by Lazarus and Folkman (1984). **In this model, stress is interpreted as a mismatch between the primary appraisal (perceived demand) and the secondary appraisal (perceived ability to cope).** Precisely when the level of primary demand exceeds the ability to cope with the situation, a stress phenomenon is produced. However, if the ability to cope is higher than

the disturbing **stressor (stress producing agent)**, no stress is produced. The primary demands are the objectives and the troubles associated with them that a person basically wants to achieve and undertake respectively so that his or her goals are fulfilled. When these goals are jeopardized, or there is any factor that makes the achievement of these goals difficult or impossible, the person experiences a stress syndrome.

This model explains the genesis of stress in terms of achievement and failures in human life.

The LF model is a type of **transactional model of stress**. In this model, stress is viewed as a consequence of the interaction between situational and personal factors. It is a transaction between a person and his or her environment. The gap between the perception of demand and the ability to cope with that demand creates stress. There is no stress if the ability to cope surpasses the intensity of the demand.

Bio-psychological Model of Bernard and Krupat

The model by Bernard and Krupat (1994) explains the phenomenon of stress as involving three components. These are external, internal and their interactions. The external factors that produce stress may be innumerable and constitute environmental factors, workplace hassles, laws and regulations and so on. Family situations, including loss of loved ones and bereavement, may also be important external factors. The internal factors that produce stress include psychological factors, imaginations, necessary or unnecessary mental worries and so on. Interactions can be between the internal and external factors—that is, how the mind assimilates these factors. If the mental ability is slow or low, the interacting factors or syndrome will create stress.

British Households Panel Survey's BOSS Model

BOSS implies Burn Out Stress Syndrome. This model was given by the British Households Panel Survey (BHPS) in 1997. The study was about psychiatric disorders, stress and burn out among the British households that were surveyed. According to the BHPS, the following stages should be taken into account while explaining the stress syndrome, its intensity and gravity.

- **In the initial stages, the symptoms of stress are latent.** The newly found work gives the incumbent many incentives, inspiration and encouragement. This initial stage that precedes the stress syndrome is called **the honeymoon stage**. At this stage, individuals do not feel the burden of work and they accept all types of duties connected with their jobs. They do not feel any physiological or psychological discomfort; on the other hand, they are very happy and enjoy their work thoroughly.
- At the second stage, individuals start feeling some discomfort and fatigue. Their levels of energy come down and they feel less confident and less enthusiastic. **This stage is called the Fuel Shortage Stage.** This is the stage of perceptible stress. However, due to their reserved energies and newly given responsibilities, they manage to cope up with the given situation for a short period of time after which they experience the stress syndrome more intensely. This can be called the **acute stage of stress**.
- **The third stage in the development of stress is called the chronic stage.** At this stage, individuals start hating their work and try to escape from stress. They shirk responsibilities. At

this stage, their energy levels are down and they experience reduced **homeostasis** (response) levels. However, they still carry on.

- ◎ **The fourth stage is the crisis stage.** Individuals' psychological and physiological states are eroded and their response mechanisms are about to break down. They may experience many types of acute **psychosomatic illness** and cannot cope with the demands of their work.
- ◎ **The last stage in the development of stress** is called "**hitting the wall stage**". At this stage, individuals give up hope completely in terms of resistance, work efforts, energy levels and confidence. They are totally exhausted and experience many types of diseases in chronic form. They lose interest in life and their immunity system fails.

It is instructive to note that the duration and degree of intensity of stress may be different for different persons, according to their powers of resistance and adjustments to the new stress situation. But there is no denying the fact that stress will adversely affect a person's efficiency, productivity, energy levels and also the level of satisfaction from work.

Mandler's Interruption Model

The interruption theory was developed by G. Mandler in 1982. In this theory, interruption is regarded as a transaction between the internal and interaction components of the human mind in the process that generates stress. **In the event of generation of stress, one's thought process is interrupted.** The interruption may be internal or external, and it may happen in any area of individual life and psyche. **Stress is an emergency that indicates interruption.** However, after the emergency is over, the stress may gradually subside with time. It is similar to a military operation where members are taught to fight terrorist attacks. They get trained and are ready for the undesirable eventuality. However, if a real terrorist attack takes place, there is an immediate emergency (stress), which gets normalized when the operation starts working, because the operation that the members are engaged in is a routine exercise.

Karasek Model of Occupational Stress

Karasek uses a demand-control model to explain occupational stress (Karasek 1979; Jones and Bright, 2001). The model has been very influential in designing various types of jobs. He classifies jobs into the following four categories:

- ◎ High strain jobs
- ◎ Active jobs
- ◎ Passive jobs
- ◎ Low strain jobs

In the model, the degree of occupational stress depends precisely on two factors: the nature of the job (how demanding it is) and how much control individuals have over their responsibilities and working situations.

Other things remaining the same, a **demanding job (high stress jobs)** creates more stress than an easy-going job. **Active jobs** are professional jobs, such as that of professors, lawyers, doctors and so on. These jobs are not as stressful as people think. **Passive jobs** are those where the workers have no initiative of their own. These are simply routine jobs, such as the billing clerk's job. So the stress in this

type of job is low. **Low strain** jobs create low pressure on the mind and body. These jobs are social workers' jobs, scavenging job, cleaner's job and so forth.

If individuals have sufficient control over their work, they can manipulate their timing, workload and responsibilities. Therefore, their strain on the job will be much less. Thus, the manager (or a director of an organization) of an office can partly distribute his or her work and responsibilities, and therefore, he or she will be able to share the strain. The degree of strain in an occupation will partly depend on demand management. Assuming that job demands can be shared, a worker will have fewer stresses and strains.

Ghosh's Life Cycle Model

The model has been proposed by B.N. Ghosh, the author of this chapter. He argues that since every segment of human life has to pass through some kind of stress and strain, it is rational to understand the lifecycle theory of stress. His analysis is conveniently decomposed into two parts: The first part provides an explanation for the interaction between the stress-producing agent (stressor) and the coping mechanism that a person possesses. This explains the genesis of stress. The second part of the model is more about the long-term lifecycle behaviour of stress and the level of resistance power (**homeostasis**).

The first part of the analysis of stress is provided with the help of a two-by-two matrix.

In Figure 18.1, the stressor is shown to be strong and weak; similarly the resistance power (RP).

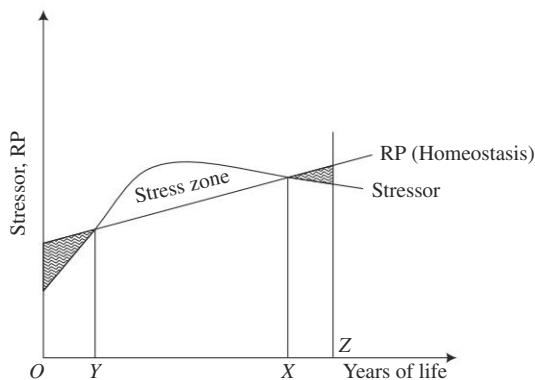
		STRESSOR	
		Strong	Weak
RESISTANCE POWER	Strong	Stress may or may not occur.	Stress will not occur.
	Weak	Stress will occur.	Stress may or may not occur.

Fig. 18.1 Genesis of Stress

The matrix reveals the following **four situations**:

1. **CASE I:** When both the stressor and the RP are strong, there may or may not be stress. If at all there is stress, it may be a temporal situation. It is the relative strength of these two opposing forces that is critical. If the RP is stronger than the stressor, the stress will not affect the person. However, if the stressor is stronger than the RP, there may be the syndrome of stress.
2. **CASE II:** If the stressor is strong but the RP is weak, there will be stress.
3. **CASE III:** If the RP is strong but the stressor is weak, there will not be any stress.
4. **CASE IV:** When both the RP and the stressor are weak, the outcome will depend on the relative weakness of these two opposing factors. For instance, if the RP is weaker, there may be some stress; and if the stressor is weaker, there will be no stress.

The second part of the discussion explains the situation of stress with reference to two diametrically opposing forces of the strength of the stressor and that of the resistance power (RP) of the stressor. This is explained in Fig. 18.2.

**Fig. 18.2 Life Cycle Model of Stress**

As the diagram shows:

- In the early part of life**, spanning childhood and young days till the entry into the job market (0-Y), the RP line is above the stressor line indicating that the stress can be overcome by the RP. How does it happen? In younger days, individuals do not know much about the long-running implications of stress. So every stress is like a short wave, which is transitory in nature. Stress does happen in this new testament of life but it is shared and supported by family and friends. They are the real shock absorbers. So there is hardly any real impact of stress on the individuals. The RP line thus becomes a strong defence line against any type of stress.
- The second part of life extends over the whole working life till the age of retirement (Y-Z).** It is a life that is indeed very stressful, and because these individuals are adults and independent beings, who are capable of taking decisions, there is virtually no support from family and friends. The affected individuals must fend for themselves. Thus, many a time, individuals find that the stressor—in form of job insecurity and discrimination of different types, particularly in pay, perks, and promotion—makes them stress-prone. Recurrent stress reduces their RP and they experience long-term stress. Their RP may have gone up over time, but that still is weak and lower than the stressor.
- The third and last stage of life is the age of retirement and after.** Retired individuals accumulate some wealth and probably get some pension and interest income to maintain their families. They have no ambition; do not want to struggle or fight against ill-treatment and discrimination and the like. They want to lead a peaceful life and always make a compromise. Supposing that their RP remains the same as before, they have practically no strong stressor. Thus, there is hardly any long-term stress phenomenon.

A Caveat About the RP Factor

As the figure shows, the RP line is an upward sloping line, indicating a rising level of RP. The slope of the RP line will depend on a number of factors, including physical and environmental factors. **The following are the empirical reasons why the RP line moves up:**

- ◎ As individuals become more and more experienced, they acquire the techniques of increasing the level of resistance. Life teaches them the secret for survival.

- ◎ Practical learning makes individuals more capable of adjustments against all odds in life. They develop the power of positive thinking that can enhance the power of resistance.
- ◎ Individuals develop a life style where stress situations can be rationalized by drawing on money, materials and manpower from family and friends, without being disturbed.
- ◎ They have more resources to cope with the stress if there be any. So, their RP goes up as a consequence.
- ◎ In the latter part of life, particularly after retirement, individuals become more interested and curious about the unknown and after-life. This draws them more towards God or a supernatural power. For such men, the RP becomes immensely strong, which can brook any type of stress.

The lifecycle model is a type of holistic model on stress. It shows that the early and latter parts of life become relatively stress-free; but the middle part of life (working life) encounters many types of stress and strain. It also reveals that overall, the level of RP has a tendency to go up, and therefore, other things remaining the same, the level of stress can be expected to reduce to some extent.



IMPACT OF STRESS ON HUMAN HEALTH

The Workplace Safety and Insurance Board of Ontario (2006) identified the following effects of stress on health:

- ◎ Faster heart beat and respiration
- ◎ High blood pressure
- ◎ Decrease in intestinal movements
- ◎ Deficiency in the immune system
- ◎ Increased cholesterol or fatty acids
- ◎ Faster clotting of blood
- ◎ Increased blood sugar
- ◎ Increased stomach acids

Some other effects include:

- ◎ Localized inflammation
- ◎ Loss of appetite
- ◎ Ulcers
- ◎ Reduced sleep
- ◎ Cardiovascular diseases
- ◎ Possibility of cancer

(Many serious diseases are caused by chronic stress.)



CAN STRESS BE MEASURED?

Stress is a qualitative phenomenon and its nature indicates intensive quality. Qualitative phenomena are difficult to measure but they are not impossible (see Ghosh, 2011a). With the help of certain assumptions, it is possible to measure stress. In this context, the following situations are instructive:

- ◎ **Stress being a qualitative concept, it can be measured only as different degrees of stress arranged in a series, from high to low or low to high.** Thus, individuals suffering from stress can be asked to indicate the degree of stress derived from different stressors, or under different stressful situations. In this case, one can measure stress by indicating higher or lower stress situations.
- ◎ **When comparing two stressful situations being encountered by the same person, it is meaningless to ask questions such as “higher by how much” or “lower by how much?”** Stress is not a quantitatively measurable magnitude. In other words, it is not cardinally measurable but it can be ordinally measured by indicating situations that cause higher or lower stress.
- ◎ **Interpersonal comparison of stress is not possible with certainty or exactitude.** This is because two individuals may have different response levels, and they may perceive different levels of stress from the same stressful situation.
- ◎ **Sometimes stress is measured by assigning numbers.** This is done especially in the case of measurement of blood pressure. If the pressure is high, the stress levels are also high.

A few points that need to be borne in mind in this context are as follows:

1. Suppose that A's blood pressure is 180/90 and B's pressure is 360/90. This does not indicate that B is twice more stressed than A. By assigning a number, one can only know the degree of intensity of stress and not the precise measurement of two stressful situations.
2. A variation in blood pressure may be due to a number of factors, other than stress. For instance, if the degree of arteriosclerosis is higher in a patient, the patient is likely to have a higher reading of blood pressure.
3. If you want to measure the stress levels of individuals at different points in time, you can compare the **levels of blood pressure** that may provide an indication of the level of stress, other things remaining the same. The rule of thumb that if the blood pressure is high, the level of stress is also high is true only in specific short-term situations; it may not be true in the long term.
4. If empirically you know that under the same situation (same stressor), A is more stressed than B and B is more stressed than C, then you can presume that A is more stressed than C. This satisfies the **transitivity axiom**.
5. While attempting a measurement of stress, it needs to be borne in mind that all stressful situations are not similar or the same in intensity, gravity and contents. So in every case, the concept and nature of stress should be properly defined.

In the contemporary world, many gadgets are available to measure the levels of stress, but they have their own inherent limitations and the results should not be used for interpersonal comparison of stress.



MANAGEMENT OF STRESS

The suggested remedies for managing stress, as given here, are self-explanatory. Therefore, no elaboration has been attempted in the first part of the discussion.

- Practise deep breathing (Pranayam).
- Develop a stoic attitude. That is, adopt the same attitude every time, whether in sadness or in joy.
- Do one thing at a time.
- Practise Yoga and transcendental meditation.
- Practice relaxation and laughing.
- Pray regularly.
- Rationalize the problem.
- Listen to music, play and exercise (Tai Chi).
- Participate in some hobbies.
- Take a few days off from your routine work and go on a holiday with family.
- Try some tranquilizers.
- Do not take everything seriously.
- Be optimistic and think positively. Assume that this is a temporary situation and not the end of the world.
- Allocate your time and finish a priority job first.
- Strike a balance between work and family life. Allocate some quality time to the family.
- Enjoy your work and do it slowly according to your own capacity.
- Identify the stress factors and remove them one by one.
- Many stresses can be avoided if you stay away from greed, anger and lust.
- Do not pursue a hectic life style; work with reasonable speed.
- Consider everything as a passing phase (the advice in *Bhagavad Gita*).
- **Co-operate with the inevitable.** In this connection, it is imperative to remember **Murphy's Law**, which states that if there is anything that can go wrong, it will go wrong. So, there is no point in worrying too much about the matter at hand.
- Some people are too particular about preventing wastage, just like the hero of the novel, *Gone with the Wind*. **Remember the fourth law of thermodynamics.** One interpretation of this law is that, in every contact of matter with matter, some matter will become unavailable for future use (wastage). **There is always a natural rate of wastage, and one should not worry about that.**
- Sometimes, individuals are overcome with worries because they think that they have not been given the social importance that they deserve. They become frustrated and let down, and create problems to get people's attention. This type of worry is not genuine. You may be a very important person in a micro-nano system consisting of a few people, but that may not necessarily be true in a macro system where there may be more renowned people than you. If you really are an honourable person, a host, for example, is likely to urge you to sit at the front row. This is the

Self-generated frustration is useless and harmful. Jesus used to say that in a social gathering, do not sit in the front row chair; sit at the back.

real honour. If you sit at the front row and suddenly, the host says, "this is not your place; it is reserved for the VIPs; please sit at the back row," you are sure to feel depressed and insulted. Do not create such a situation by giving importance to yourself. In fact, it is nice to be important, but it is more important to be nice in your behaviour. Do not create your own worries. Most people create their own worries.

- ⦿ **In case you are really worried, analyse the factors that are making you worried carefully.** Then see how you can have full control over some of the factors. If you can control some of the critical factors, 50 per cent of your worries will be countered. **Do not think about the worries, but think more about the action plan that will resolve your worries temporarily or permanently. Worries are not themselves important but the reaction they produce in your mind is more critical and decisive.**
- ⦿ **You can banish worries by making a self-assessment and analysing your real worth.** Some people get worried because there is no good luck or windfall. You should remain content with what you have, but that does not mean that you should not try to improve your situation. **Try it slowly, gradually and to the extent possible. With strong will power, confidence and positive thinking, you can change your whole situation** (Peale, 1953). Positive attitude to life is more important than the facts that appear before you. You can change the facts of your life through such thinking and attitude.

Dale Carnegie (1948), the famous author of the bestseller, *How to Stop Worrying and Start Living*, was one of the unhappiest lads in New York. However, by gradually banishing worries and through positive action plans, he became very successful in his later life.

Religious Instructions to Manage Stress

Religious scriptures teach us how to eliminate our worries. The Bible gives instructions to reduce stress in several references. The following verses are cases in point:

"Can any one of you by worrying add a single hour to your span of life?"

—Matthew, 6:27

"Do not worry about your life, what you will eat or what you will drink, or about your body, what you will wear."

—Matthew, 6:25

"Do not worry about tomorrow, for tomorrow will bring worries of its own."

—Matthew, 6:34

"Do not let your hearts be troubled. Trust in God..."

—John 14: 1-14

"Be happy... all times."

—Thessalonians 5:12-24

"Your duty is to work and not to be desirous of its result or outcome."

—Gita, II: 47

"He whose mind is not agitated in calamities, who has no longing for pleasure, free from attachment, fear and anger, he is indeed a saint of steady wisdom."

—Gita, II: 56

"Considering alike pleasure and pain, gain and loss, victory and defeat fight thou this battle. In such a case, no sin will touch you."

—Gita, II: 38

Here the battle also implies the battle of life.

SUMMARY

Stress is commonly known as tension. Stress denotes inadequate or absence of response to emotional, psychological or physiological threats. It is the response that matters and not the stimulus, inside or outside. The word stress has different meanings in different contexts. In physics, it is the force or pressure that puts strain on a particular structure. In psychology, stress denotes the result of an interaction between a person and the environment around that person in any organizational milieu. In physiology, stress denotes the changes that come about as a result of or in response to the action of an evocative agent. It is a state of psychological or physiological disequilibrium. It is a cognitive disequilibrium. It may be an emotional disturbance. It is a disturbance or shock that the body and mind cannot adjust to or absorb quickly. It is basically a mental situation or condition that brings about an abrupt change, helplessness and/or conflict. Two elements are necessary for stress to occur: stressor and stressed. There are mainly two types of stress: positive stress (Eustress) and negative stress (Distress). Whereas positive stress is good, negative stress is harmful.

The causes of stress are numerous and varied. These causes are both external and internal. Some of the important causes are: personal, family, workplace-related, natural and man-made; too much work pressure and so on. Type A personality generates more stress than type B personality. In stress, every behaviour becomes abnormal and disturbed; the person experiences fatigue and confusion; there may be loss of appetite, loss of sleep, loss of concentration, sudden outburst of anger, rise in blood pressure and so forth.

There are many models of stress. In the Selye model, stress is said to progress incrementally through three stages: alarm stage, resistance stage and exhaustion stage. Lazarus and Folkman considered stress as a mismatch between the primary appraisal (perceived demand) and the secondary appraisal (perceived ability to cope). The Bernard and Krupat model indicated that there are three components involved in stress: these are external components, internal components and their interactions. The Interruption theory was proposed by G. Mandler in 1982. The British Households Panel Survey (BHPS) model explains five stages in the development of stress. Karasek used a demand-control model to explain the situation of occupational stress. Ghosh developed a novel way of explaining stress and puts forwards a lifecycle model of stress.

There are many harmful effects of stress on the human body and mind. Some of these are: faster heart beats and respiration, high blood pressure, decrease in intestinal movements, deficiency in the immune system, increased cholesterol or fatty acids, and so on.

In the contemporary world, many gadgets are available to measure the levels of stress, but they have their own inherent limitations and the results should not be used for interpersonal comparison of stress. Stress can be managed using various ways such exercises for deep breathing (Pranayam), Yoga, time management, transcendental meditation, proper relaxation, regular prayers, listening to music, playing and exercise (Tai Chi). Consider everything as a passing phase (the advice given in *Bhagavad Gita*).

KEY TERMS

- General Adaptation Syndrome
- Burn Out Syndrome
- Karoshi
- Psychosomatic
- Illness
- Homeostasis
- Stressor
- Eustress
- Distress
- Murphy's Law
- Fourth Law of Thermodynamics
- Cognitive disequilibrium
- Transitivity axiom
- Transactional Model of Stress

T E S T Y O U R K N O W L E D G E

1. Elaborate on the various concepts of stress as used in different academic disciplines.
2. Do you agree with the view that stress is a cognitive disequilibrium phenomenon? Give reasons for your answer.
3. Analyse various models of stress. Which model is the best according to you and why?
4. Can stress be measured? Explain your views.
5. There are various methods of managing stress. Which method, according to you, is the best and why?

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Chapter Nineteen

Leadership

Rajeev Gupta

“The leadership instinct you are born with is the backbone. You develop the funny bone and the wishbone that go with it.”

— Elaine Agather

Leadership is a concept that is notoriously difficult to define. It has been said that leadership is like beauty; it is difficult to define but you know it when you see it. At the most basic level, a leader is someone who leads others and leadership is a process of directly inspiring others to perform a task. In fact, a leader is a person who has a vision, a drive, a commitment to achieve that vision, and the skills to make it happen.

When talking of organizational culture, some people get confused between leadership, management and supervision, and use the terms interchangeably. Although the definitions of the terms differ, an individual may have the ability to provide all three. *Supervision* means that an individual is charged with providing direction and oversight for other employees. A successful supervisor provides recognition, appreciation, training and feedback to reporting employees. *Management* means arranging and organizing the affairs of business. A successful manager provides direction, guides other employees, administers and organizes work processes and systems, and handles problems. A manager monitors and controls work while helping a group of employees to more successfully conduct their work than they would have without him or her. *Leadership* is a function of knowing yourself, having a vision that is well-communicated, building trust among colleagues and taking effective action to take your group, team or organization forward. A successful leader shapes and shares a vision, which gives a point to the work of others.

Leadership is the ability to get extraordinary achievement from ordinary people. Leadership is thus a process by which members of a group are empowered to work together synergistically towards a common goal or vision that will create change, transform an organization and improve the quality of life.

A good leader must have a mixture of qualities and should be tough enough to fight, tender enough to cry, human enough to make mistakes, humble enough to admit them, strong enough to absorb the pain, and resilient enough to bounce back and keep moving.

In management terms, leadership is the ability of a manager to induce the subordinates to work with confidence and zeal. In organizational terms, leadership is a process by which an executive can direct, guide and influence the behaviour and work of others towards accomplishment of specific goals in a given situation.



WHY IS LEADERSHIP IMPORTANT?

Very few things are more important to human activity than leadership. Without leadership, a group of human beings quickly degenerates into argument and conflict, because you see things in different ways and lean toward different solutions. Leadership helps to point you in the same direction and harness your efforts jointly. Leadership is the ability to get other people to do something significant that they might not otherwise do. It is energizing people towards a goal.

Effective leadership helps nations through times of peril and so does it for organizations and businesses. It makes a business organization successful and enables a not-for-profit organization to fulfil its mission. Without leadership, organizations move too slowly, stagnate and lose their way. The challenge of decision-making and it being timely, complete and correct depends on the leader. Further, leadership is crucial in implementing decisions successfully.

You recognize the importance of leadership when you vote for political leaders. Similarly, investors recognize the importance of business leadership when they say, “A good leader can make a success of a weak business plan, but a poor leader can ruin even the best plan.”

If Mahatma Gandhi, Nelson Mandela and Winston Churchill are examples of good political leadership, Richard Branson, Steve Jobs and Rupert Murdoch are examples of good business and organizational leadership.

The Dean of Harvard Business School, Kim B. Clark said, “Our primary purpose has always been to educate leaders, our students learn to be managers here, but they also learn that it is important to make a difference in the world—to bring commitment, integrity and a sense of values to their work.”



QUALITIES OF A GOOD LEADER

Author and speaker Stephen Covey says that a leader should follow the “7 Habits of Highly Effective People” (described elsewhere in this chapter) and enhance the four unique endowments that one has as human beings. The first endowment is: one has self-awareness and it gives one the power to understand. A leader should seek to understand the needs of his followers. Second, humans have a conscience and this gives them integrity and focus. It also helps one align one’s life and activities, and helps one to be in harmony with one’s purpose. The third endowment is imagination, which gives one a chance to decide

what is truly important and meaningful. The fourth endowment is independence. “You can swim upstream against powerful forces, cultural, genetic, and environmental forces that will take you downstream. You have the choice to exercise your willpower,” and this is very important for leadership, Covey said.

Good leaders exhibit a unique blend of charisma, vision and character traits that attract people to follow them.

Various authors, over several years, have proposed different qualities of a good leader. The author of this chapter has compiled 10 essential qualities of an outstanding organizational leader in a 3D model, which are depicted in Figure 19.1.

These essential qualities are:

1. Vision
2. Passion
3. Persuasion and influence
4. Communication
5. Integrity
6. Directing
7. Empathy
8. Strategy
9. Decision-making
10. Coaching and developing

Vision is central and combined with three other core qualities, that is, passion, influence and integrity make the central triangle at the heart of leadership.



Fig. 19.1 RG 3D Star Model of Essential Qualities of Leadership

Vision

A leader has vision, a good leader has clear vision and a great leader has vision entwined with action plan. This central quality of all leaders is therefore at the top and centre of the model. Leaders establish a vision for the future and set the strategy for getting there; they cause change. Leaders can see a problem that needs to be fixed or a goal that needs to be achieved. It may be something that no one else sees or simply something that no one else wants to tackle.

Whether the goal is to get freedom for the nation or double the company's annual sales, develop a product that will solve a certain problem, or start a company to make a dream come true, the leader always has a clear target in mind. This is a big picture sort of thing, not the process improvement. It is the new product that makes people say, "why didn't I think of that." There are plenty of things to improve and plenty to discover. Thomas Alva Edison did not set out to build a better candle; he wanted to find a whole new way to illuminate the darkness. That is the kind of vision a leader has.

Gandhi had a vision of getting freedom through non-violence, which had never been thought or tried before. He succeeded because he had clear vision and firm belief.

Henry Ford had a vision of manufacturing a car that an average person could afford (cars were very expensive those days). He decided to motivate others in the organization to see his vision and create a car that was inexpensive and appropriate for daily use.

A leader has a vision that excites and motivates people to follow and therefore, the vision must:

- ◎ Clearly set organizational direction and purpose
- ◎ Inspire loyalty and caring through the involvement of all employees or team members
- ◎ Display and reflect the unique strengths, culture and values of the organization
- ◎ Inspire enthusiasm, belief, commitment and excitement among employees or team members
- ◎ Help employees believe that they are part of something bigger than themselves and their daily work
- ◎ Be regularly communicated and shared
- ◎ Challenge people to outdo themselves, to stretch and to reach

In terms of management, leaders must have a clear idea where the organization and unit are headed, whether it is beyond this month's results or this year's budget. Where is it going in the long term? Even tactical leaders must be clear about this and need to refer frequently to the vision, mission and values of the organization in their communication with others.

Passion

Good leaders are focused and just drive through their vision. They know that it is not enough to only have a vision. Lots of people see things that should be done, things that should be fixed and great steps forward that could be taken. What brings the emotional leverage to perform a series of actions to accompany the goal? It is the passion for the idea, an inner sense of drive and some sense of commitment. Leaders move forward despite all obstacles; despite people saying that it cannot be done; that it is too

costly; that we tried that before; or a dozen other excuses. A true leader perseveres and moves forward.

Good leaders are always enthusiastic about their work or cause and also about their role as a leader. People will respond more openly to a person of passion and dedication. Leaders must be a source of inspiration and be a motivator towards the required action or cause.

Although the responsibilities and roles of a leader may be different, the leader needs to be seen as a part of the team that is working towards the goal. This kind of leader will not be afraid to roll up the sleeves and get dirty.

Because the leaders are so driven, they are also not afraid of what will happen if they fail. They see what will happen when they succeed and benefit a large number of people in the group, team or organization that they lead. Leaders decide that they want to provide others with a vision; direct the course of future events; and inspire others to success. Leadership requires the individual to practice dominance and take charge. If you choose to become a leader, whether in your workplace, community or during an emergency, think whether you have a passion to lead for a cause.

When the power of a vision of success is greater than the fear of failure, you can move ahead without hesitation, and succeed.

Persuasion and Influence

The ability to influence others and cause them to move in a particular direction is a highly important skill in leadership. In fact, leadership is often defined as the ability to persuade or influence others to do something that they may not have done without a leader's persuasion. Some say that a leader must be able to motivate everyone to contribute. Each of us has different 'buttons'. **A leader knows to press the right buttons on everyone to make them want to do their best to achieve the leader's goal.**

A good leader is clear, confident and persuasive. In order to lead and set directions, a leader needs to appear confident as a person and in the leadership role. Such a person inspires confidence in others and draws the trust and best efforts of the team to complete the task well. A leader who conveys confidence towards the proposed objective inspires the best effort from team members.

Your ability to be persuasive is directly related to how much people trust you and how good your communication and relationships are. A leader has the ability to inspire people to reach great heights of performance and success. Having a passion, purpose and meaning help to make a leader inspirational. The ability to communicate that passion, purpose and meaning to others helps to establish the inspirational culture of your leadership and organization.

It is said that a key leadership trait is the ability to inspire followership. In addition to supplying a shared vision and direction, leaders must develop a relationship with the people they inspire. Successful leadership relationship inspires people to become more than they may have been without the relationship. Following an effective leader, people accomplish and achieve more than they may ever have dreamed as possible.

Business tycoon Lakshmi Mittal has not only pioneered the development of integrated mini-mills and the use of Direct Reduced Iron as a scrap substitute for steel-making but also led and

persuaded the global steel industry to make use of it. As a result, Mittal Steel has become the largest steelmaker in the world.

Communication

The chief complaint of employees in nearly every organization, whether large or small, is the ‘lack of communication’. Communication, in the context of leadership, refers to both the interpersonal communication between the leader and followers, and the overall flow of the required information throughout the organization. Effective communication is more than just being able to speak and write. A leader’s communication must move people to work towards the goal that the leader has chosen.

Leaders thus need to learn to be proficient in both communication that informs and seeks out information (gives them a voice) and communication that connects interpersonally with others.

Listen to employees and appreciate them sincerely. Use powerful, positive language in your interaction with others. Say ‘please’ and ‘thank you’ and ‘you are doing a good job’. Say, “We could not have accomplished the goal without you” and “Your contribution saved the customer for the company.” Powerful, positive recognition makes people feel important. Powerful, positive recognition encourages employees to contribute more of the same work in the future.

Good leaders listen to the people in their organization. It is not enough for leaders to talk to people about their passion; they must allow the ideas and thoughts of employees to permeate and help to form the goals and action plan. No one is ever hundred percent supportive of a direction they had no part in formulating. People need to see their ideas incorporated, or understand why they were not.

Answer some of these questions in your daily life. How much and how willingly do you speak out and keep information flowing? Conversely, can you keep confidential information private? How often can and do you listen more than you speak

in your conversations with employees? How would you assess your communication skills with each of your employees? How do you handle “bad news” when you receive it?

Integrity

Leadership is doing what is right when no one is watching. Integrity means honesty and more. It refers to having strong internal guiding principles that one does not compromise. Yes, vision and passion are important, but employees must trust you to feel inspired. Your team members or employees look up to a leader who tells the truth, tries to do the right things, lives a ‘good’ life and does his or her best. Integrity is based on one’s guiding beliefs and values, and is an important example of an essential leadership quality. It is important to know that integrity (or its lack thereof) is reflected in thinking, attitudes and actions. People cannot directly see your level of integrity, but they judge it pretty accurately on a gut level based on your actions and words.

“The glue that holds all relationships together—including the relationship between the leader and the led—is trust, and trust is based on integrity.”

—Brian Tracy

Trust forms the foundation for effective communication, employee retention, employee motivation and contribution of discretionary energy, which is the extra effort that people voluntarily invest in work. Trust is not a matter of technique, but of character; you are trusted because of your way of being, not because of your polished exteriors or your expertly crafted communication.

It is understood that leaders should be accountable and trustworthy, and should recognize the need to attract followers. **To follow, people must feel confidence in the direction in which the leader is headed. They are enabled and empowered with a solid sense of right and wrong and strong guiding principles to do their part in accomplishing the stated objectives.**

Answer some questions here to test yourself. Have you identified your values? How deep are your convictions about the things you believe in? What do you believe in your work that you would stand up to anyone about it? To what extent

are you willing to compromise your important beliefs? To what extent do your behaviour and the choices you make align with your guiding values and principles?

Directing

A good leader empowers followers. If progress towards accomplishing goals ceases, the leader takes responsibility to analyse the problem—he does not search for people to blame. So people can have the confidence that their efforts will not be punished if they take reasonable and responsible risks. Leaders should be able to show the followers what they will get in the journey together. They communicate not just the overall direction, but any information that the followers may need to successfully and skilfully carry out their responsibilities.

A good leader ‘walks the talk’ and in doing so, earns the right to be responsible for others. He or she has an exemplary character. True authority is born from respect for the good character and trustworthiness of the person who leads. **Sergey Brin** developed and directed a team of people to build the multibillion industry **Google** of which he is the co-president. He, like many of the Google staff, often rides around work on roller skates and plays roller hockey during breaks. He keeps his communication channel open and keeps the company on the go.

The golden rule of leadership is that you treat others as you wish to be treated. The platinum rule is that you treat people as they wish to be treated.

He directs the team and team members to do things but he also listens and takes directions about where the team wants to go. It is known that no one person can do it all. That is why a team, which comprises members with different skill sets, is essential. A good leader thus knows how to build and nurture such a good team. The best leaders are good followers when needed.

Empathy

To experience inspiration, people also need to feel included and understood. Inclusion goes beyond listening and feedback; for real inclusion, people need to feel intimately connected to the actions and processes that are leading to the accomplishment of the goals or the decision. Empathy is the sine qua non of all social effectiveness in working life (Daniel Goleman, Richard Boyatzis and Annie McKee 2003). Leaders have always needed empathy to develop and keep good people, but whenever there is war for talent, the stakes are higher.

A good leader also understands when to lead and when to follow.

Listen to what your co-workers, peers and staff members have to say. Listen by giving full attention to the person seeking your attention. If you cannot pay full attention and listen actively, set a time with the person to meet when you can. You gain much information from the ideas and opinions of others. You make people feel special when you listen to them without distraction.

These are powerful, yet simple principles of understanding others, and are a powerful glue to get followers sticking to you. There are no leaders without followers. Remember, you can accomplish much more through your followers than by yourself. You can multiply your outcome by engaging and appreciating people. Always believe that people are important and act on that belief. Important people will think of you as a great leader.

Strategy

Leaders have a strategy to tackle problems and work in the direction of their vision. The strategy may be simple or complex but always involves making certain assumptions about the future and taking actions in the present to positively influence that future. To plan means to focus more strategically. Plans are important for guidance and focus, but plans can seldom be cast in stone.

Good leaders, in addition to keeping the main goal in focus, are able to think analytically. Not only do good leaders view a situation as a whole, but they are able to break it down into sub parts for closer inspection and to plan actions for clear progress. They have a clear vision, clear sense of direction and laser-like approach to cutting through obstacles. Good leaders have new ideas and they leverage people, policy and planning to achieve the results. They have a plan to achieve the goal. They do not get bogged down with details (that is what managers are for), but rather they use a high-level plan to keep everyone moving together towards the goal. It is also interesting to know that innovation is the most important part of strategy of good leaders.

An interesting example of this is **Bill Gates** who started working in a computing company, searched for bugs in the computer systems in exchange for free use of a more powerful computer to learn new languages. He developed an operating system called MS-DOS with his friend and subsequently Windows 3.0, which became very popular. Each new release of Windows has seen Microsoft gain more market share, and along with its popular applications such as MS Office, games and so on, Bill Gates has promoted his company and become the richest man in the world at an estimated worth of US\$46 billion. He was just an inventor who used his leadership qualities and strategy to make Microsoft the most successful software company in the world. Although in 1998, Bill Gates gave up his role as CEO, his leadership has managed to keep Microsoft going stronger.

Ask yourself some questions. Do you see where your group, team or organization is going? How often do you talk about the relevance of what you are doing in your area to the overall mission? Do you think and speak inspiring about what the organization is doing and about the future of the organization? How easy is it for you to put

together plans for activities and projects, including contingency plans (what will happen IF)? How easily can you focus your attention on and stick to your plan, yet not be rigid about it? How do you decide when to push ahead or, instead, to modify your plan?

Decision-Making

Decision-making is the crux quality and is at the bottom of the triangle in the leadership model because it finally germinates the action.

An organizational leader must be able to wade through information, comprehend what's relevant, make a well-considered decision, and take action based on that decision. Making decisions too quickly or too slowly will impede your leadership effectiveness. A leader also needs to function in an orderly and purposeful manner in situations of uncertainty. People look to the leader during times of uncertainty and unfamiliarity, and find reassurance and security when the leader portrays confidence and a positive demeanour.

When people honour each other, there is a trust established that leads to synergy, interdependence and deep respect. Both parties make decisions and choices based on what is right, what is best and what is valued most highly.

How comfortable are you with having to make the “final decision”? Do you have any tendency to decide too quickly without due consideration or, conversely, the tendency to gather data, analyze and

ponder endlessly and be unable to decide? Which areas do you struggle with while making firm decisions and standing up for what you believe?

Coaching and Development

Developing others is an important role for a leader. Encouraging others to expand their capabilities and take on additional assignments is part of the leader's responsibility. Leaders who feel threatened by the capabilities of others are challenged in this area. Coaching and development are essential skills that all leaders must cultivate. Networking, good relationship skills and good interpersonal and group communication skills help good leaders to develop others for achieving more not only for themselves but also for the team and the organization.

Leaders encourage and reward people and make them want to do it and do it right. Leaders are not negative persons and do not waste time and effort in telling everyone what they are doing wrong. They establish an environment of continuous improvement. Leaders who like dealing with people issues and who can initiate and deepen relationships with others, have a great leadership advantage. These leaders can build a powerful team and achieve impressive results. Good leaders understand the differences that make people unique and are able to use those individual skills to achieve the goal.

Answer some of these questions. How do you feel about developing others around you? How do you encourage, nurture and build the capacity of those you lead? How easy or hard is it for you to set your needs aside and share control with others? Can you or do you delegate well? How much do you achieve for the team through

the efforts of others? How valued do the team members feel in developing others? Have you introduced peer mentoring in your organization?

Leadership thus embraces many characteristics, skills and abilities.

Leadership quotient = vision × passion × persuasion / egocentric behaviour

“Trust men and they will be true to you; treat them greatly, and they will show themselves great.”

— Ralph Waldo Emerson

Some negative leadership attributes include being a loner, being ruthless, dictatorial, non-explicit and egocentric, whereas leadership, by nature, uses positive means to achieve positive outcomes (Northouse 2009).



LEADERSHIP AND POWER

Power refers to the capacity that a person possesses to influence the behaviour of another. The essence of leadership lies in the influence that a person has over others and power is the engine that drives the ability to influence. This power is a potential that need not be actualized to be effective. Power obviously is a pervasive reality in the life process of all modern-day organizations. Leaders regularly acquire and use power to accomplish specific goals and to strengthen their own positions.

To understand leadership effectiveness therefore, an analysis of the complex web of power relationships and influence processes in organizations is essential. You also need to think of the sources of power and the relationship of different power sources with leadership effectiveness. The influence of leaders depends on a variety of factors, including their personality and of those around them. If you consider that the leader is managing the followers, the influence of the leader over his or her followers is often referred to as power.

Power is a critical dimension of leadership and is a social process of interpersonal influence. There is a concept that a leader is someone with power and powerful individuals are leaders (Huczynski and Buchanan, 2001). Leaders have a variety of power.

○ Coercive Power

This is traditional power based on fear. Individuals with coercive power can make things difficult for others. This power is based on leaders having control over what happens if followers do not act as required. If followers do not undertake the action required, the leader will impose a penalty. Penalties take a variety of forms, including simple withdrawal of privileges, symbolic gestures of disdain, delayed or loss of promotion, physical or psychological injury, demotion, unwanted transfer, withdrawal of resources, job losses, verbal abuse and so on.

Coercive powers should be used carefully; overuse can lead to unhappy employees or followers. Unhappy followers can be negative or unmotivated; they may resign or adopt a “work to rule” attitude. Work to rule is where employees refuse to undertake any duties (or adopt working practices) that are not stated in their contract.

○ Reward Power

This type of influence is created when leaders are able to offer rewards to their followers for completing tasks or behaving in a certain manner. Rewards at the workplace can take a variety of forms, from a symbolic gesture of praise, public appreciation, name in the newsletter or a gift in the form of chocolates, gift vouchers and holidays, to promotions, commission and pay rises. This reward will be effective only if:

- The reward appeals to the followers. As you are aware, there is no point in offering chocolates as a reward to somebody who is overweight or who likes collecting pens. This is because they will not view the chocolate as a reward; so, there is no incentive to completing the task.

- The followers believe that the leader will give them (or arrange for them to receive) the reward that was promised after the task is completed
- The reward is proportionate to the task that the follower must complete. For example, it would be disproportionate to reward an employee with a promotion for making a cup of tea. Similarly, followers would feel undervalued if they are rewarded with a £5 gift voucher after spending six months doing their manager's job without a pay rise.

This type of power must be used carefully to prevent followers from becoming accustomed to rewards and refusing to complete routine tasks without a reward. Generally, rewards should not be offered to employees for completing duties that are a normal part of their roles. This is because, as employees, they are under a contractual obligation to complete these tasks and they are already rewarded for this through their salary.

Bill Gates has carefully used reward power for getting new releases of Microsoft products and capturing massive proportions of computers in the globe.

The other reason why rewards should be offered carefully is that frequent use can reduce the impact or influence that offering a reward initially has on the follower. Followers will soon tire of the reward, especially if the reward is small, for example, chocolates or flowers.

◎ Legitimate Power

This is the power that leaders have as a result of their position in the formal hierarchy of an organization and as a result of the belief among followers that the leaders have "a right" to instruct them and that they have an obligation to follow instructions. Sometimes, legitimate power is created by the leader's job title (such as captain, doctor or area manager), combined with the follower's belief that the job title gives the leader the right to give them orders.

◎ Expert Power

Influence is based on the special skills or knowledge that leaders have and that is valued by others. Leaders earn respect by their experience and knowledge. Expert power is most strongly and consistently related to effective performance. Often, an experienced member of the team or staff in an organization can have expert power even though they are not a supervisor or manager. Unsolicited expertise, however, creates barriers and expertise offered condescendingly is considered coercive.

◎ Referent Power

This power is based on leaders possessing desirable personal traits or characteristics, sometimes based on the perception of charisma; or reciprocal identification based on friendship, association and sharing interests. Followers like leaders and enjoy doing things for them. As referent power is dependent on how followers view the personality of their leaders, leaders will not have referent power over every follower they lead. Some leaders will have referent power over just a few, whereas others, such as Gandhi, can lead millions through their personality and charisma.

Most leaders use a variety of powers depending on the situation, and interestingly, each of the powers is created by the belief that the followers have; if the followers do not hold the requisite belief, the leader would not be able to influence them.

- ◎ Coercive power needs followers to believe that the leader will punish them.

- ◎ Reward power needs followers to believe that the leader will reward them.
- ◎ Legitimate power needs followers to believe that the leader has the right to instruct them.
- ◎ Expert power needs followers to believe that the leader is an expert.
- ◎ Referent power needs followers to believe that the leader has the desirable qualities.

There are some other varieties of powers, such as affiliation power, which is due to followers believing that the leader has connections with a powerful figure; information power due to leaders having access to knowledge that is not public; group power due to leaders having collective support from a team or group.

It is irrelevant whether the follower's beliefs are correct; the beliefs alone will determine the type of power leaders have over the followers. Each of the leadership powers can be used, individually or in combination, so that leaders have maximum influence. Power lies in one's capacity to link one's will with the purpose of others, to lead by reason and by a gift of co-operation. Leaders will therefore need to think carefully about which power to use.

Leaders must remember that though mastering others is strength, mastering yourself is true power.



LEADERS AND MANAGERS

In general, management and leadership are two of the most important positions for anyone to have in an organization. Both these positions come with a great deal of responsibility; however, they both serve different purposes and responsibilities in an organization.

Whereas leaders tolerate chaos and lack of structure, managers seek order and control and are problem-solvers primarily. Some people say, "it takes neither genius nor heroism to be a manager, but rather persistence, tough-mindedness, hard work, intelligence, analytical ability, and perhaps the most important, tolerance and goodwill." Leadership is having a vision and the ability to motivate people to work towards the vision. Leadership is the ability to have followers. Table 19.1 compares management with leadership.

Table 19.1 Management vs Leadership

Management Is	Leadership Is.
Coping with complexity	Coping with and promoting change
Planning and budgeting	Setting a direction
Organizing and staffing	Aligning people
Controlling and problem-solving	Motivating and inspiring people
Effective action	Meaningful action

Both the management and leadership are necessary and important.

Managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right thing.

There are fundamental differences between the way of thinking and executing things. Managers try to get maximum benefits with the available resources. They rely on high efficiency and productivity of the existing resource. Leaders, on the other hand, have a creative mind. They are inventors and are constantly thinking of changing

and improving the way things are done. They can sacrifice efficiency or productivity for some time to promote creativity and therefore, find novel and unconditional ways. Leaders are more risk-savvy than managers. Leaders are always on the lookout for new ideas. They look at their resources, such as people, machinery and computer systems, in a different way than managers. Managers aim to extract maximum value from these resources, unlike leaders who aim to get different and more valuable output from the same resources.

An organization or a society needs both leaders and managers. Too many leaders and too many innovators can create a risky scenario. It could also lead to instability and often mutual clashes. Managers, on other hand, are stabilizers who ensure smooth and routine functioning.

Leaders dream, are hopeful and pursue things on their own. Managers execute, are good planners and are persuasive. Both leaders and managers can make history. If their ventures fail, leaders can feel badly hurt and often temporarily or permanently go into oblivion. Managers are often at the risk of getting jaded and exhausted. They have a linear rise and fall. The world needs both. Stability and creativity need to go hand in hand.

Managers and leaders have distinct traits. The difference may be summarized as activities of vision and judgement—effectiveness—versus activities of mastering routines—efficiency. The following plan indicates keywords that further make the distinction between the two functions:

- ◎ Managers administer; leaders innovate.
- ◎ Managers maintain; leaders develop.
- ◎ Managers accept reality; leaders investigate it.
- ◎ Managers focus on systems and structure; leaders focus on people.
- ◎ Managers rely on control; leaders inspire trust.
- ◎ Managers have a short-range view; leaders have a long-range perspective.
- ◎ Managers ask how and when; leaders ask what and why.
- ◎ Managers have their eyes always on the bottom line; leaders have their eyes on the horizon.
- ◎ Managers get their authority by virtue of their position in the organization; leaders get their authority from their followers.
- ◎ Managers imitate; leaders originate.
- ◎ Managers follow the organization's policies and procedure; leaders follow their own instinct.
- ◎ Managers accept status quo; leaders challenge it.
- ◎ Managers do things right; leaders do the right thing.

The most dramatic differences between leaders and managers are found at the extremes: poor leaders are despots, whereas poor managers are bureaucrats in the worst sense of the word. Whereas leadership is a human process and management is a process of resource allocation, both have their place and managers must also perform as leaders. All first-class managers turn out to have quite a lot of leadership ability.

It is essential to understand that leadership is an essential part of effective management. As a crucial component of management, remarkable leadership behaviour emphasizes building an environment in which each and every employee develops and excels. Managers must have the traits of a leader, that is, they must possess leadership qualities. Leaders develop and promote strategies that build and sustain

competitive advantage. Organizations require robust leadership and robust management for optimal organizational efficiency.

Seven Personality Types of Leaders

You know that leadership is the art of getting someone to do something that you want done. Leaders establish a vision for the future and set the strategy for getting there; they cause change. They motivate and inspire others to go in the right direction and they, along with everyone else, sacrifice to get there. The personality type of leaders determines the followership. There are seven major types.

- **Influencer:** Someone who loves to have fun, be with people and get them excited. These are the social butterflies, the life of the party; they are charismatic leaders, who have the power to motivate others.
- **Responder:** Someone who ‘just cares.’ These are people who are very loving, nurturing and aware of others’ feelings.
- **Doer:** Someone driven by action, generally by the lists of tasks. These individuals feel

fulfilled by getting through those lists, often behind the scenes.

- **Shaper:** Someone who is a planner and strategist. These are individuals who work at a high level and are great at dissecting an objective into measurable steps and goals.
- **Contemplator:** Someone who is a thinker, observer and reflector. These individuals can be very quiet at first, but they also can come up with a genius idea out of nowhere.
- **Mover:** Someone who is dominant, direct and demanding, and is a motivator. These individuals are flag-bearers and leaders; often though, because of their desire to keep moving, they encounter a lot of conflict.
- **Producer:** Someone who is a patient planner and entrepreneur. These individuals are good at making money on many occasions.



LEADERSHIP THEORIES

Leadership is a concept and way of managing people. Interest in leadership increased during the early part of the 20th century. Early leadership theories focused on what qualities distinguished leaders and followers, whereas subsequent theories looked at other variables, such as situational factors and skill levels. Although many different leadership theories have emerged, most can be classified as one of 11 major types.

Great Man Theories

Great Man theories assume that the capacity for leadership is inherent—that great leaders are born, not made. These theories often presume leaders as extraordinary persons and portray great leaders as heroic, mythic and destined to rise to leadership when needed (Exploring Management, Open University 2010). It is a concept of the 19th century and the term ‘Great Man’ was used because, at the time, leadership was thought of primarily as a male quality, especially in terms of military leadership or kingship.

Trait Theories

These are similar in some ways to the ‘Great Man’ theories and assume that people inherit certain qualities and traits that make them better suited for leadership. Trait theories often identify particular personality or behavioural characteristics that are shared by leaders. There is however, a question—if particular traits are key features of leadership, how do you explain people who possess those qualities but are not leaders?

Power and Influence Theories

These theories indicate that people with power and influence, such as the CEO or individuals holding higher positions, become leaders. They develop leadership abilities and followership on the way up. These theories have been questioned because they confuse authority with leadership.

Situational Theories

Situational theories propose that leadership is determined less by the personality of the leader than the requirements of the given situation. It says that leaders choose the best course of action based on situational variables. Different styles of leadership may be more appropriate for certain types of decision-making. It says that you can maximize leadership effectiveness by being aware of the relationship between ‘people to behaviour’ and ‘task to behaviour’ and therefore, help people to be more productive and fulfilled in their roles.

Contingency Theories

Contingency theories of leadership can be called a refinement of situational leadership theories. They focus on particular variables related to the environment that may determine which particular style of leadership is best suited for the situation. According to these theories, no leadership style is best in all situations. Success depends on a number of variables, including the leadership style, qualities of the followers and aspects of the situation.

Behavioural Theories

Behavioural theories of leadership are based on the belief that great leaders are made, not born. Rooted in behaviourism, these leadership theories focus on the actions of leaders, not on mental qualities or internal states. According to these theories, people can learn to become leaders through teaching and observation.

Transactional Theories

Transactional theories (also known as ‘management theories’) focus on the role of supervision, organization and group performance. These theories base leadership on the relationship and mutual benefit of leaders and followers, that is, the system of rewards and punishments. Managerial theories are often used in business; when employees are successful, they are rewarded; when they fail, they are reprimanded or punished.

Transformational Theories

Transformational theories (also known as ‘relationship theories’) focus on the connections formed between leaders and followers. Transformational leaders motivate and inspire people by helping group members see the importance and higher good of the task. These leaders are focused on the performance of group members, but also want each person to fulfil his or her potential. Leaders with this style often have high ethical and moral standards.

Participative Theories

Participative leadership theories suggest that the ideal leadership style is one that takes the input of others into account. These leaders encourage participation and contributions from group members and help group members feel more relevant and committed to the decision-making process. In participative theories, however, the leader retains the right to allow the input of others.

Distributed Leadership Theories

These theories are from new schools of thought. They are also called shared leadership, team leadership or democratic leadership theories. It essentially means decentralization of power and indicates that leadership practice is distributed in the interaction of leaders, followers and the situations. There is flattening of hierarchy. The New York City-based Oepheus Chamber Orchestra, which is one of the world’s finest orchestras, has its leadership roles shared and rotated. This unleashes the talent, vision, creativity and leadership of each member of the group.

Servant Theories

These theories are suitable to the modern world and involve leaders who focus on the needs of the followers and shift their authority to those who are being led. They say that a good leader is a good servant and some organizations achieve more by using this concept.

There are some other theories, such as the ‘skills leadership theories’ (framing leadership as capability of skills) and ‘path-goal leadership theories’ (leader motivating employees, mapping and clarifying paths to high performance), which are not so widely in use.

It may just be theoretical knowledge for you but it may be useful to see what type of leadership prevails in your organization or team and how you perceive the behaviour of the leadership role.



TYPES OF LEADERS

There are a variety of leaders who have become successful due to their personal traits and styles. The bottom line is—a leader must have followers. There are thus, a large number of leaders typified to be followed by a number of their followers. In addition, different types of leaders were successful in different eras and times, as well as different cultures. Some leaders may fit into multiple types because they adapt their styles for better functioning in different circumstances. Although ordering people to do what was to be done worked for Adolf Hitler, today good leadership skills and effective leadership styles

are based more on the principle of collaborating and servant leadership—serving the needs of others, making their path straight and their way easy. Leaders instil in their people a hope for success and a belief in them. Positive leaders empower people to accomplish their goals.

There are seven different leadership types that are discussed here in order of preference, (most preferred style of leadership first).

Visionary Leaders

Visionary leaders have visions, articulate the visions, passionately own these visions and relentlessly drive them to completion. All those who have accomplished great things have had great visions and have fixed their gaze on goals that were high, some that at times seemed impossible. When people are engaged, they share the dream and move to the goal with the leader, and achieve great success.

Coaching Leaders

What makes leadership is the ability to get people to do what they do not want to do and like it? A coaching leader connects individual needs and wants with the organization's goals. Coaching explores the person's life and values beyond just work. Such leaders help employees forge long-term goals and develop plans to meet those goals. Paradoxically, though this style does not focus specifically on the bottom line, it delivers bottom-line results. It is said to be the second most effective best practice style in achieving results.

Collaborating Leaders

Collaborating leaders connect people to each other, thereby creating teamwork and harmony. This style promotes collaboration and relationships, which indirectly drive better performance, loyalty and commitment. As a leader, you should always know what people want and then put together all those who can work together for a better outcome.

Democratic Leaders

Democratic leaders offer guidance to group members, but they also participate in the group and allow input from other group members. Inclusion and participation show that each member is valued by this leader. This is particularly effective when the leader is genuinely looking for ideas or seeking to secure buy-in for a potential change. At some point, however, if consensus cannot be reached, the leader must make the decision and move ahead.

Pacesetting Leaders

Brave persons confront fear and move towards it. It then gets smaller. Leaders face fear and move forward. They set and achieve challenge goals. This style is often executed in a highly competitive way; thus, it is less effective in most situations because it promotes the good of one person or department with little regard for the good of the entire organization. It can be useful sometimes, with a confident and highly motivated team, but this style should be used sparingly.

Commanding Leaders

These leaders are also known as authoritarian leaders or autocratic leaders. They set clear expectations for what needs to be done, when it should be done and how it should be done. There is also a clear division between the leaders and the followers. Authoritarian leaders make decisions independently with little or no input from the rest of the group. It can be useful temporarily in a crisis, to jumpstart a new initiative or with a problem employee, but routine use of this style should be very limited in 21st century due to minimal effectiveness.

Delegating Leaders

In contrast to commanding leaders, delegating leaders (also called Laissez-Faire) give freedom to the group without any participation from themselves. They offer little or no guidance to the group members and leave decision-making to the group members. Although this style can be effective in situations where group members are highly qualified in an area of expertise, it often leads to poorly defined roles and a lack of motivation.

The most effective styles for the demands of the present-day world are visionary, coaching, collaborative and democratic types of leadership.

Ghosh (2011) has described seven different types of leadership that help to understand how different organizational leaders perform.

- Proactive (taking action without waiting for a situation to arise)
- Reactive (doing something by way of reaction or solving the problem that has risen)
- Creative (doing something new for the organization)
- Creatively destructive (destroying the old habits, culture or practice and creating something new)

- Benevolent dictator (working like a dictator but for the good of an organization and its stakeholders)
- Collaborate-co-operative (deciding everything on the basis of co-operation and collaboration. It is more democratic in orientation.)
- Radical transformer (doing things in a radical way to improve the status of the organization by making structural changes)

In the initial stages of management experience, it is useful to learn all you can to develop skills that align with these styles. This can help to greatly improve your effectiveness and have good management as well as leadership skills.

Seven Functions of a Management Leader

The ability to summon positive emotions during periods of intense stress lies at the heart of effective leadership, said Jim Loehr, and this has been true for most effective leaders. The role of an organizational leader is quite immense and complex. There are at least seven functions that are relevant to organizational leaders that need to be undertaken to ensure effective outcomes.

Providing Overall Direction

Businesses need to be able to visualize where the business will be three to five years down the line. In theory, this process of creating a vision may appear simple. However, you need to be mindful not only of competitors but also of technological changes, changes in tastes and your current standing in the marketplace, to name a few.

Selecting the Right Strategies

When you are clear on where you are headed in terms of your vision, you need to start selecting strategies to get you there. This may be viewed as how you get from now to the future. It may be through acquisitions, expansions, moving into new geographical markets or technological changes.

Making Things Happen

The difference between the impossible and possible lies in a person's determination. One of the important functions of a leader is to keep moving and to make things happen. There is a careful balance that needs to be struck, especially if you are at board level in a larger organization. You need to be able to make things happen without taking on all the execution yourself. This may seem hugely simple to achieve in theory but is incredibly difficult in practice.

Getting the Right Structure

A good leader gets success based on service to others, not at the expense of others. You need a structure that allows you to divide your work into many smaller streams, which can be managed by others. The structure that you put in place needs to support your goal and the organizational goal without compromising integrity. It is also important to remember that complex strategies fail more often than simple ones. The larger the organization, the more difficult this becomes. A good leader, however, can see it through.

Motivating Others

Nothing limits achievement like small thinking. Nothing equals possibilities like unleashed thinking. A leader with clear vision can make others achieve what seems impossible. Having clarity of vision is the key factor in motivation. Whether the goal is achieved or not will depend on the ability of the leader to encourage and inspire those in the organization to make it happen. Encouragement is the oxygen to the soul. In any organization, there will be a number of cynics who you may need to convince; however, it is worthwhile to spend more energy on those who want to progress than on the cynics.

People Development

If you want to get the best out of someone, you must look for the best that is in them and develop it further. If an organization is to continue to prosper, people development must be high on the agenda. The best organizations have processes for identifying the most talented people and making sure that they are developed for major roles in the future. Ensuring that there is a continued stream of talent developed is a key factor in sustainable progress and achievement.

Achieving Personal and Organizational Progress

According to Gordon Parks, an individual who takes a chance, who walks the line between the known and the unknown, who is unafraid of failure, will succeed. Great leaders walk beyond the comfort zone, believing their vision and creating followers. A leader must grow as a person and make the group, organization, or nation grow to the highest potential of freedom in assets, productivity, professionalism, perfection and action.

John Adair (2007) divided the functions of a leader into achieving the task (defining the task, planning, briefing and controlling), building and maintaining a team and developing an individual (both these include evaluating, motivating, organizing and providing an example).

LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR

A leader must follow all the seven habits of highly effective people as described by Stephen Covey.

Habit 1: Be Proactive – Take initiatives in life by realizing your decisions (and how they align with life's principals). This would be the primary determining factor for effectiveness in your life. Take responsibility for your choices and the consequences that follow.

Habit 2: Begin with the End in Mind – Self-discover and clarify your deeply important character values and life goals. Envision the ideal characteristics for each of your various roles and relationships in life.

Habit 3: Put First Things First – Plan, prioritize and execute your week's tasks based on importance rather than urgency. Evaluate if your efforts exemplify your desired character values, propel you towards goals and enrich the roles and relationships elaborated in Habit 2.

Habit 4: Think Win-Win – Genuinely strive for mutually beneficial solutions or agreements in your relationships. Value and respect people by understanding that a 'win' for all is ultimately a better long-term resolution than if only one person in the situation got his or her way.

Habit 5: Seek First to Understand, and then to be Understood – Use empathetic listening to be genuinely influenced by persons, which compels them to reciprocate the listening and have an open mind to being influenced by you, which creates an atmosphere of caring, respect and positive problem-solving.

Habit 6: Synergize – Combine the strengths of people through positive teamwork, so as to achieve goals that no one person could have achieved alone. To draw the most prolific performance out of a group of people, encourage meaningful contribution, and model inspirational and supportive leadership.

Habit 7: Sharpen the Saw – Balance and renew your resources, energy and health to create a sustainable, long-term and effective lifestyle.

These seven habits aim both to add to the original and to form a cohesive philosophy on personal, principle-based leadership. Habits 1, 2 and 3 deal with self-mastery. They move an individual from dependency on others to independence. Habits 4, 5 and 6 deal with teamwork, co-operation and communication. These habits deal with transforming a person from dependency to independence to interdependence. Interdependence simply means mutual dependence. Habit 7 embodies all the other habits to help an individual work towards continuous improvement.

Management is efficiency in climbing the ladder of success; leadership determines whether the ladder is leaning against the right wall.

— Stephen Covey

Every person who wins in any undertaking must be willing to cut all sources of retreat. Only by doing so can one be sure of maintaining that state of mind that is known as a burning desire to win, which is one of the essentials to success.

Leadership is not a one-day thing. It is a constant commitment to excellence, a habit—a daily practice.

Leaders do not wait. They shape their own frontiers. The bigger the challenge, the greater the opportunity. They refuse to let anyone or anything get in the way of achieving their dreams. They are realistic, but unrelenting. They are polite, but insistent. They constantly and consistently drive forward towards their goal. You can be a leader. You will be, when it matters enough to you. Challenge yourself on all days of your life. Plunge boldly into the thicket of life. Half-heartedness never won a battle. You can show your leadership in the organization you are working for—challenge people, challenge yourself and ask questions. Your well-placed questions will be your way to progress.

S U M M A R Y

This chapter explored, developed and enhanced the innate leadership qualities that are hidden in the readers of this book. Leadership is a critical management skill; it is the ability to motivate a group of people towards a common goal. It has been said that leadership is like beauty; it is hard to define but you know it when you see it. Leaders are individuals who have a vision, a drive and a commitment to achieve that vision, along with the skills to make it happen. A good leader must have a mixture of qualities and should be tough enough to fight, tender enough to cry, human enough to make mistakes, humble enough to admit them, strong enough to absorb the pain, and resilient enough to bounce back and keep moving.

It explained the different dimensions of leadership and that leadership, in management terms, is the ability of a manager to induce the subordinates to work with confidence and zeal; in organizational terms, leadership is a process by which executives can direct, guide and influence the behaviour and work of others towards the accomplishment of specific goals in a given situation.

Without leadership, a group of human beings quickly degenerates into argument and conflict, because each person sees things in different ways and leans towards different solutions. Leadership helps to point you in the same direction and harness your efforts jointly. Leadership is the ability to get other people to do something significant that they might not otherwise do. It is energizing people towards a goal.

The chapter explained and engaged the reader in understanding the value of the 10 essential qualities of a leader, that is, vision, passion, persuasion, communication, integrity, direction, empathy, strategy, decision-making, coaching and developing through a 3D model. A leader has a vision, a good leader has a clear vision and a great leader has a vision that is entwined with an action plan. Leaders establish a vision for the future and set a strategy for getting there; they cause change.

Leaders can see a problem that needs to be fixed or a goal that needs to be achieved. A good leader, in addition to keeping the main goal in focus, is able to think analytically. Not only do good leaders view a situation as a whole, but they are able to break a situation down into parts for closer inspection and for planning actions for clear progress. They have a clear vision, clear sense of direction and laser-like approach for cutting through obstacles. New ideas occur in the minds of leaders and they leverage people, policy and planning to achieve results.

260 Managing Soft Skills for Personality Development

Good leaders empower followers. If progress towards accomplishing the goals ceases, leaders take the responsibility to analyse the problem—they do not search for people to blame. So people can have confidence that their efforts will not be punished if they take reasonable and responsible risks. Leaders should be able to show followers what they will get in their journey together. They communicate not just the overall direction, but any information that followers need to successfully and skilfully carry out their responsibilities. Remember, you can accomplish much more through your followers than by yourself. You can multiply your outcome by engaging and appreciating people. Always believe that people are important and act on that belief.

KEY TERMS

- Leader
- Leadership management
- Organization
- Qualities of a leader
- Success

TEST YOUR KNOWLEDGE

1. What are the essential qualities of a good leader and which one of these are your strengths?
2. What is the glue that holds all the relationships together?
3. Who does the good leader empower?
4. What is the difference between transactional and transformational leadership?
5. What is the platinum rule of leadership?
6. Which types of leaders are more successful in the modern era and who in your organization or environment fits that leadership type?
7. Which of the functions of a leader do you perform in your day-to-day life?
8. What does Stephen Covey's Habit 7 "Sharpening the Saw" mean and how does this affect management leadership?
9. Why do you think leadership is important?

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Chapter Twenty

Developing Emotional Intelligence

Parvesh K. Chopra

“It is not the strongest of the species that survives, or the most intelligent, but the one most responsive to change.”

— Charles Darwin (1809–1882)

The concept of emotional intelligence has received a lot of attention in recent years, mainly after the publication of Daniel Goleman's, *Emotional Intelligence: Why it Can Matter More than IQ*, in 1995. We live in a world that has seen an upsurge from band societies to the modern age of communication, information and globalization. Moreover, this modern world is ever-changing, interconnected and complex. In order to attain a happy, peaceful and healthy living style, we will have to learn to face new challenges, to obtain benefits from new opportunities and to live with the rapid past and future changes in this world, without getting frightened or worried about it.

In order to do so, one needs to learn not only new cognitive abilities and skills but also a new set of capabilities called emotional intelligence or emotional quotient (EQ). It is a key to relating to oneself and others with awareness and consciousness in order to achieve certain goals. Achieving success at work and in life not only depends on the intelligence quotient (IQ) but also significantly depends on the phenomenon of emotional intelligence. Effective performance of individuals, political leaders, corporate leaders, managers, the sales force, organizations, students, teachers and others is increasingly

being connected with improving one's emotional intelligence. This world is divided into two groups of people: those with high emotional intelligence and those with low emotional intelligence. The first group of people are seen to be successful because they ‘think before acting’ when they experience a feeling. The second group consists of those who ‘act without thinking,’ which results in sudden actions as a result of bad judgements because they do not allow enough time for thought.

The six universal emotions are anger, happiness, surprise, sadness, disgust and fear. However, intelligence is related to logic, reasoning, planning, learning, thinking and problem-solving.



WHAT IS EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE?

The concept of ‘emotional intelligence’ is paradoxical, because it consists of two opposite words. Emotions are subjective and intelligence is objective. Emotions are defined as biologically driven cross-cultural responses to an environmental stimulus. The words ‘emotions’ and ‘feelings’ are used interchangeably although in reality, feeling is the response part of emotion. The results of human emotions, such as surprise, love, happiness, fear, anger, affection, shame, disgust, lust, sadness, elation, anxiety, pain, empathy, frustration, failure, achievement, and such, determine and control human behaviour, feelings and thoughts. It is a very general mental capability that, among other things, involves the ability to reason, plan, solve problems, think abstractly, comprehend complex ideas, learn quickly and learn from experience.

Emotional intelligence is defined as the ability to manage one’s own and others’ emotions and feelings. It is about how you manage your own behaviour (actions) and your behaviour with others when you feel emotions, such as fear, anger, or any other. Emotional intelligence is a type of intelligence that is related to the emotional side of an individual. It is a set of capabilities to acquire knowledge from one’s own emotions and the emotions of others, to use emotions to make choices and to effectively recognize, control and manage one’s own emotions and the emotions of other people. Although emotional intelligence is a complicated phenomenon, it is, in simple words, an intelligence to manage your emotions and other’s emotions. Reuven Bar-On defines “emotional intelligence as being concerned with effectively understanding oneself and others, relating well to people, and adapting and coping with the immediate surroundings to be more successful in dealing with the environmental demands. Broadly speaking, emotional intelligence addresses the emotional, personal, social and survival dimensions of intelligence, which are often more important for daily functioning than the more traditional cognitive aspects of intelligence.”

Martinez-Pons (1997) defines emotional intelligence as “an array of non-cognitive skills, capabilities and competencies that influence a person’s ability to cope with environmental demands and pressures.” Dulewicz and Higgs (2002) define emotional intelligence as an overall concept to encompass the concepts of social intelligence, interpersonal intelligence and personal intelligence. Jack Nayer and Peter Salovey (1997) view emotional intelligence as “the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth.”

Daniel Goleman (1997) defined emotional intelligence as “knowing what you are feeling and being able to handle those feelings without them having to swamp you; being able to motivate yourself to get jobs done, being creative and performing at your peak; and sensing what others are feeling and handling relationships effectively. It is the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships.”

Tim Sparrow and Amanda Knight (2006) have given three definitions of emotional intelligence. The first is the general or abstract definition that defines emotional intelligence “as a habitual practice of

thinking about feeling and feeling about thinking when choosing what to do.” The second is the process definition that defines emotional intelligence as “an act wherein we need to notice feelings, pay attention to them, give them significance, think about them and take them into account in choosing what to do.” The third is the working definition that defines applied emotional intelligence as “the habitual practice of using emotional information from ourselves and other people, integrating that with our thinking and using these to inform our decision-making to help us get what we want from the immediate situation and from life in general.” Petrides et al. (2000) defined emotional intelligence as “a constellation of emotional-related self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality. It refers to individuals’ self-perceptions of their emotional abilities.” They later (2009) reinterpreted emotional intelligence as a collection of personality traits being prominent in the scientific literature.



A BRIEF HISTORY OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The idea of emotional intelligence is not new. The phenomenon of emotional intelligence has evolved with mankind. It is as old as time.

The ancient Greek philosophers—Socrates, Plato and Aristotle—acknowledged the role of emotions in determining why human beings act the way they do. Aristotle, as far back as 384–322 BC, clearly understood the importance of anger

management: “Anyone can be angry—that is easy. But to be angry with the right person, to the right degree, at the right time, for the right purpose and in the right way—that is not easy.”

Charles Darwin (1809–1882), the English biologist who discovered evolution by natural selection and wrote the *Origin of Species* in 1859, discussed the importance of emotional expression for survival and second adaptation. In the 20th century, Edward Lee Thorndike (1911) talked about something he called ‘social intelligence’. Sigmund Freud (1921) asserted that ideas are repressed only because they are connected with the liberation of emotions. Louis Leon Thurstone (1927) formulated a model of multiple intelligences. The work of R.W. Leeper (1948) on emotions is a good source of information. David Wechsler (1940), the father of IQ, discussed the non-intellective aspects.

Humanistic psychologist, Abraham Maslow, in his 1954 book, *Motivation and Personality* described how people can build emotional strength. However, the term ‘emotional intelligence’ was first used by a literary criticism book in 1961, which proposed that some of Jane Austen’s characters, in her novel *Pride and Prejudice*, displayed an “intelligence, which informs the emotions” (Hein, 2003). In 1966, Leunen published a paper on emotional intelligence and emancipation (Sparrow and Knight, 2006). In 1974, Claude Steiner published his first article on Emotional Literacy. Howard Gardner introduced the concept of multiple intelligences in 1983 in *The Shattered Mind*. In the same year, Reuven Bar-On began a study of emotional intelligence as part of his doctoral program at Rhodes University, South Africa. The concepts of ‘emotional work’ and ‘emotional labour’ were first introduced by Arlie Hochschild in the same year. Six years later, research began looking at emotional expression and its importance in organizational psychology.

In 1985, John D. Mayer and Peter Salovey began collaboration on the relationship between cognition and effect. In 1986, Wayne Leon Payne, then a graduate student at an alternative liberal arts college in the US, used the phrase ‘emotional intelligence’ in an unpublished thesis. This appears to be the first academic use of the term ‘emotional intelligence.’ In next five years, no one else seems to have used the term ‘emotional intelligence’ in any academic papers. In 1987, in an article published in the *Mensa Magazine*, Keith Beasley used the term “emotional quotient.” It is suggested that this is the first published use of the term, although Reuven Bar-On claimed to have used the term in an unpublished version of his graduate thesis.

The year 1990 saw Peter Salovey and Jack Mayer announce their Emotional Intelligence theory in first articles about emotional intelligence in academic journals and presented their work at several scientific conferences. The concept of emotional intelligence was popularized after the publication of psychologist and *New York Times* science writer Daniel Goleman’s book (1995) *Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ*. According to the article by Annie Paul, Goleman asked them permission to use the term ‘emotional intelligence’ in his book and that permission was granted provided he told people where he heard the term. Before then it seems that his book was to focus on ‘emotional literacy.’

In 1997, Reuven Bar-On published the first assessment tool to measure emotional intelligence. It measures “an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competences and skills that influence one’s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures” (Bar-On, 1997, p. 4). Mayer and Salovey later refined their definition to: “Emotional intelligence involves the ability to perceive accurately; to appraise and express emotions; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and, the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth” (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Robert K. Cooper and Ayman Sawaf published *EQ: Emotional Intelligence in Leadership and Organizations*. This includes the ‘EQ Map’.

In 1998, Daniel Goleman published *Working with Emotional Intelligence*. He defined emotional competencies as “a learned capability based on emotional intelligence that results in outstanding performance at work” (Goleman, 1998). In this book, he widened the definition of emotional intelligence even farther by saying that it consists of 25 ‘skills, abilities and competencies.’ In 1999, rewritten format for Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) was published by Hay/McBer. In 2000, Linkage Incorporated had an International Summit on Emotional Intelligence in Chicago where the leading spokespersons (except for Reuven Bar-On) for emotional intelligence at the time were brought together.

K. V. Petrides and colleagues proposed a trait-based model of emotional intelligence (Petrides et al., 2001, 2003 and 2007). Trait EI is “a constellation of emotion-related self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality.” In lay terms, trait EI refers to individuals’ self-perceptions of their emotional abilities. This definition of EI encompasses behavioural dispositions and self-perceived abilities, and is measured by self-report, as opposed to the ability-based model, which refers to actual abilities that have proven highly resistant to scientific measurement. Trait EI should be investigated within a personality framework. Chopra and Kanji (2010) developed and validated a model of measuring emotional intelligence based on holistic approach and systems thinking.



SALIENT FEATURES OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The phenomenon of emotional intelligence has many crucial aspects that can be discussed by following salient features.

- **Emotional Intelligence is Unique.**

The very first salient feature of emotional intelligence is that it is unique in nature. Each individual is unique in his or her own way. Individuals have their own unique patterns of feelings and relationship due to own experiences, views, beliefs and attitudes. One type of motivation or stimulus will have different impact on different people who will subsequently have different emotional reactions.

- **Complexity of Emotional Intelligence**

Emotional intelligence is a complex phenomenon. It is an interwoven web of motivations, feeling of emotional experiences, thoughts, intelligence and resultant human behaviour. It lies in the complex psychosocial emotional environment. The art for an emotionally intelligent person lies in seeing through the complexity at the underlying structures that generate the change in emotions.

- **Emotional Intelligence is Multidimensional**

The phenomenon of emotional intelligence has multiple dimensions. It is a network of interdependent and interconnected components or dimensions that work together with each other and with the overall psychosocial emotional environment so that they form a whole. There are four separate but related dimensions of emotional intelligence: self-emotional skills, human capabilities, management excellence and individual social capital. Thus, whenever the term ‘emotional intelligence’ is used, it denotes these four inter-related and unified dimensions that together personify human behaviour. It means that individuals, who assimilate their feelings with their thinking when deciding something or taking any action or reacting, are using their emotional intelligence skills and abilities.

- **Emotional Intelligence and Social Intelligence**

According to the original definition of Edward Thorndike, social intelligence is “the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls, to act wisely in human relations.” There is a close connection between emotional intelligence and social intelligence. It has been asserted that emotional intelligence has its roots in social intelligence that describes the skill of understanding and managing other people. However, emotional intelligence is a much broader term than social intelligence. It subsumes self-emotional skills, human capabilities, management excellence and individual social capital.

- **Emotional Intelligence Predicts Performance by Using Systems Thinking**

A system is a network of interdependent components that work together to try to accomplish the aim of the system. The main components of performance prediction are necessarily inputs, processes, outputs and outcomes. Systems thinking lies in seeing through the complexity at the underlying structures that

generate the change in emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence works within the system of psychosocial environment to predict performance on all jobs as they involve emotional intelligence, that is, managing one’s own and others’ emotions, like in the case of a salesman. Sometimes, a very brainy and educated person has a shambled life, whereas people who cannot be doctors or scientists are very successful and happy.

Emotional intelligence predicts performance improvements in individuals, teams or organizations by using systems thinking.

• Emotional Intelligence is Measurable

The emotional intelligence of an individual, group of individuals, of teams or of organizations can be measured by using a holistic and system modelling approach. This approach measures the phenomenon of emotional intelligence by constructing and using a latent variable structural equations model within certain boundaries of the psychosocial emotional environment. It will provide you with an index of emotional intelligence that indicates the extent to which a particular individual or organization is emotionally intelligent and in which areas it lacks this intelligence, if any. The model also measures all aspects or components of emotional intelligence related to an individual, because each person is different in the pattern of emotional intelligence. After offering a programme to develop the emotional intelligence of an individual, you can measure it again to find out what has been developed and what areas of emotional intelligence need additional tackling. The same is applicable for leaders, teams, organizations, students and so on.

• Holistic Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence is holistic in nature. From a holistic perspective, there is a functional relationship between the different components of emotional intelligence and the whole psychosocial emotional environment. No dimension of emotional intelligence can be studied and understood in isolation. However, the perspective is that understanding emotional intelligence requires understanding how its different aspects or dimensions are interrelated with each other and with the whole. Thus, emotional intelligence necessarily involves a process wherein a system must be managed as a whole, rather than addressing the individual components that make it function.

• Emotional Intelligence and the Individual

Emotional intelligence is an integral part of an individual. If any dimension of emotional intelligence changes in a human being, it results in a different person to that degree. When you develop a new skill or ability to manage your feelings better and you have more controlled actions, it means that your emotional intelligence has developed and you are not the same person any more. You not only feel and cope better at work but also at home, with relations, friends, at a public gathering and in the society. When you feel happy and satisfied inside, you tend to reveal that to the outside world.

• EI is Always Evolving Over Time: Can Be Learnt and Developed

Emotional intelligence is always evolving with time and age, and it can be learnt and developed. It has been researched in many parts of the world and found that after training and other experiences, emotional intelligence scores change and improve (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2004). Nature and nurture play a great part in the development but research and practice suggest that it can be learnt as well. It is not static over time and can be learned and developed.

• Emotional Intelligence is Broader Than IQ

Advocates of the emotional intelligence concept argue that Intelligence Quotient (IQ) or conventional intelligence is too narrow than emotional intelligence to dictate and enable how successful you are. Success requires more than IQ that ignores essential behavioural and character elements. Sometimes, you meet people who are academically brilliant but who are socially and interpersonally inept. Thus, success does not automatically flow by possessing a high IQ rating.

• Emotional Intelligence and Human Needs

Abraham Maslow (1908-70) developed a hierarchy of human needs theory in 1954, which is also relevant to the notion of emotional intelligence. People who struggle to meet the lower level of biological and physiological needs tend to have lower emotional intelligence. Arguably, even people who are unable to meet the middle order needs, such as safety needs, belongingness and love needs, also tend to have lower emotional intelligence than people with higher levels of needs, such as esteem needs and self-actualization. Thus Maslow's original five-stage Hierarchy of Needs theory explains that all needs, other than self-actualization, are deficiency drivers, which suggests, in other words, some emotional intelligence development potential or weakness.



MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCES THEORY, IQ AND EQ: A COMPARISON

Recent developments in brain science have revealed that both the emotional (feeling) and thinking (logical) brains, although separately located, are completely intertwined and interwoven in the sense that a decision or action cannot be taken without engaging the emotional brain (Sparrow and Knight, 2006). This is the natural reason why emotional intelligence is so important in everyday life for every individual. Emotional intelligence works through different mental processes, namely perception (perceiving and identifying emotions), assimilation (integrating emotions into the thought processes), understanding (understanding one's own and others' emotions) and managing (managing emotions). Thus, an intelligent individual is one who can achieve a right balance between work, home and recreation life.

Psychologists have identified a variety of intelligences over the years. Therefore, human intelligence is not one single unitary factor but it encompasses various interconnected abilities, such as the capacities to reason, to plan, to solve problems, to think abstractly, to comprehend ideas, to use language, to learn and so on. As a result, you have multiple human intelligences situated within different parts of the human brain. However, intelligences can be broadly grouped into one of three clusters: abstract, concrete and social intelligence. Abstract intelligence is the ability to understand and manipulate verbal and mathematical symbols, whereas concrete intelligence is the ability to understand and manipulate objects. Social intelligence is the ability to understand, relate to people and act wisely in human relations. Researchers believe that emotional intelligence has its roots in social intelligence (Young, 1996).

Emotional intelligence links strongly with the 'multiple intelligence' theory, which illustrates and measures the range of capabilities that people possess, and the fact that everybody has a value. There is basically an interconnection between feeling and thinking—that is, 'feeling about thinking' and 'thinking about feeling'. Howard Gardner's Multiple Intelligence Theory was first published in Howard Gardner's book, *Frames of Mind* (1983), and quickly became established as a classical model by which to understand and teach many aspects of human intelligence, learning style, personality and behaviour—in education and industry. Howard Gardner initially developed his ideas and theory on multiple intelligences as a contribution to psychology; however, Gardner's theory was soon embraced by the education, teaching and training communities, for whom the appeal was immediate and irresistible—a sure sign that Gardner had created a classic reference work and learning model. Gardner (1983) broke intelligence down into at least seven different components: logical, linguistic, spatial, musical, kinesthetic, interpersonal and intrapersonal. Later on, he suggested three possible additions

to the categories of intelligences, such as naturalist, spiritual/existential and moral. Table 20.1 shows Howard Gardner's categories of intelligences.

Table 20.1 Categories of Multiple Intelligences

Intelligence Type	Capability and Perception
Linguistic	Words and language
Logical-Mathematical	Logic and numbers
Musical	Music, sound, rhythm
Bodily-Kinesthetic	Body movement control
Spatial-Visual	Images and space
Interpersonal	Other people's feelings
Intrapersonal	Self-awareness
Naturalist	Natural environment
Spiritual/Existential	Religion and 'ultimate issues'
Moral	Ethics, humanity, value of life

Interpersonal (effective relationship management) intelligence and intrapersonal (effective self-management) intelligence together form emotional intelligence. Thus, broadly emotional intelligence can be grouped into two parts: interpersonal (outer world) and intrapersonal (inner world) intelligence. Intelligence Quotient (IQ) is a number that signifies the relative intelligence of a person; the ratio multiplied by 100 of the mental age as reported on a standardized test to the chronological age. IQ is primarily used to measure one's cognitive abilities, such as the ability to learn or understand new situations; to reason through a given problem/scenario; and the ability to apply knowledge to one's current situations. It involves primarily the neo cortex or the top portion of the brain. Emotional Quotient (EQ) is an emotional intelligence concept that argues that IQ, or conventional intelligence, is too narrow; that there are wider areas of emotional intelligence that dictate and enable how successful you are. Success requires more than IQ, which has tended to be the traditional measure of intelligence, ignoring the essential behavioural and character elements. Gardner was one of the first to teach that one should not judge and develop people (especially children, young people, and people at the beginning of their careers) according to an arbitrary and narrow definition of intelligence. One must instead rediscover and promote the vast range of capabilities that have a value in life and in organizations, and then set about valuing people for who they are, what they can be and helping them to grow and fulfil their potential. Think of all the people you have met who are academically brilliant, yet are socially and interpersonally inept. So you know that despite possessing a high IQ rating, success does not automatically follow.

Intelligence Quotient (IQ) involves primarily the neo-cortex or the top portion of the brain, whereas emotional intelligence is defined as the capability to use both emotional and cognitive thought. For example, appealing and using emotions to convince someone rather than using facts and cognitive capabilities or logic alone. It is the difference between knowing how and why against knowing what. It is the difference between knowing how to motivate separate individuals as opposed to treating everyone the same way. It is about understanding and controlling your emotions in order to use

It is commonly believed that IQ will get you through school and university, but emotional intelligence gets you through the University of Life.

them for something, in comparison to letting your emotions control you because you do not know how to deal with them.



WHY IS EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IMPORTANT?

Emotional intelligence has received enormous amount of attention and popularity in various academic and non-academic circles in the last two decades. Emotionally intelligent skills, capabilities and capacities are increasingly becoming significant and inevitable for effective leadership, globe-spanning network of communication and development of human potential and performance. In this dynamic and integrated international economy, tomorrow's leaders will have to facilitate others to develop their own leadership and potential with the help of emotional intelligence. Current research on emotional intelligence measured as ability suggests that it may have some use in predicting important outcomes such as reduced rates of emotional and behavioural problems. Thus, emotional intelligence has immense significance and relevance for the following:

- (a) Self-emotional awareness and management
- (b) Better assessment of others' behaviour
- (c) Development of human potential and performance
- (d) Successful relationship management at home, work and society
- (e) Effective teamwork
- (f) Inspirational leadership
- (g) Job satisfaction
- (h) Organizational development and performance excellence
- (i) Creativity and innovation
- (j) Whole educational development
- (k) Stress reduction and management
- (l) Thinking skills development
- (m) Conflict handling

Emotional intelligence is increasingly relevant to organizational development and developing people, because the principles of emotional intelligence provide a new way to understand and assess people's behaviours, management styles, attitudes, interpersonal skills and potential. Emotional intelligence is an important consideration in human resources planning, job profiling, recruitment interviewing and selection, management development, customer relations and customer service, and more.

Charles Darwin's quotations hold true: "It is not the strongest of the species that survives, or the most intelligent, but the one most responsive to change" and "the highest possible stage in moral culture is when we recognize that we ought to control our thoughts".

It is easy for people to assume that one's success in life is related to one's IQ—smarter individuals are bound to triumph over those who are less intelligent. However, it is possible for a person with average IQ to be more successful than a person with high IQ, but only if the person in question has higher levels of EQ.

Social scientists are only just beginning to uncover the relationship between EI and other phenomenon—for example, leadership

(Ashforth and Humphrey, 1995), group performance (Williams & Sternberg, 1988), individual performance, interpersonal and social exchange, managing change, conducting performance evaluations (Goleman, 1995), social norms (Greenspan, Patricia, 1995), literature, music and art (Budd, 1985; Robinson, 2005), job performance (Cote and Miners, 2006) and musical representation (Nussbaum, 2007). According to Goleman (1995; 160), "Emotional intelligence, the skills that help people harmonize, should become increasingly valued as a workplace asset in the years to come." To sum up, emotional attachment is very important in daily life as our body talks through emotions. Therefore, happiness and joy may guide us what is good for our mental, emotional and physical health.

Scope of Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence is considered synonymous with self-awareness, self-management and emotional empathy, but actually, a whole range of feelings and behaviour come under the umbrella of emotional intelligence. Some key factors that collectively explain the scope of emotional intelligence are given as follows:

1. **Sense Self-Emotions:** Awareness of one's own emotions, the ability to put oneself in another person's shoes whilst understanding his or her emotions and the ability to gauge other's moods and respond accordingly.
2. **Regulate Self-Emotions:** Ability to gain control over one's emotions and manage one's moods better.
3. **Intrapersonal development:** Ability to develop personal cognitive and non-cognitive skills.

4. Respond and Manage Appropriately at the Workplace:

The capability to feel, express and manage genuine emotions such as happiness, sadness, fear or even anger, as the situation warrants at the workplace.

5. Social Adeptness:

Being courteous and considerate, being able to communicate effectively and not rubbing people the wrong way.

6. Economic Awareness:

Being able to regulate emotions in making economic decisions.

7. Political Awareness:

Being able to regulate emotions in making political decisions by understanding the prevailing political environment and the political process in the country.



COMPONENTS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The Kanji-Chopra emotional intelligence model (2010) identified the following four components or dimensions of emotional intelligence.

Self-emotional Skills

Self-emotional skills are the capabilities of an individual related to innate emotional intelligence, which can be very high or low from birth in a person. These are related to understanding yourself, your goals, intentions, responses, behaviour and such. Although most of the previous models of emotional intelligence have included these abilities, they have missed dimensions such as self-confidence, self-discipline and intentionality and so on. The KCEI model includes the following eight self-emotional

Emotional self-management is a process to skilfully deal with emotions. It is simply defined as managing one's own emotions.

skills that are indispensable for self-consciousness and self-awareness in an individual in order to develop emotional intelligence—emotional self-awareness, emotional discipline, emotional assertiveness, emotional independence, emotional resilience, intentionality and self-regard.

Creativity is an act of making something new. The multi-dimensional nature of creativity involves the generation of new ideas, concepts, thinking, problem-solving, approaches, actions, etc. and is fuelled by the process of either conscious or unconscious insight. Creativity is a starting point of innovation.

Emotional self-awareness is the fundamental foundation of emotional intelligence. It refers to the awareness of the self by recognizing one's emotions or feelings as it happens. What makes one happy or sad? It is the basis of personal identity. It is looking inside and is related to knowing one's inner circle, internal state, emotions and their effects. It includes paying attention to oneself by becoming one's objective evaluators, recognizing one's personality, one's likes and dislikes and strengths and weaknesses.

Self-awareness means that one is in touch with one's body and emotional state at the moment. A person who is self-aware has a better life and developing self-knowledge or awareness can help to recognize the fact when we are stressed/under pressure or relaxed. Numerous studies have been conducted on the physiology of emotions and the profound positive influences that people can have on their lives by learning to manage their own emotions.

Emotional discipline, also called self-regulation, refers to the power that one gains through the choices that one makes about how one feels. It is the ability to control one's emotions and desires by keeping disruptive emotions and impulses in check. People with low or without emotional intelligence lack self-regulation and would act on their impulses, and as a result suffer from moral deficiency (Goleman, 1995). *Emotional assertiveness* refers to a situation where individuals express their true feelings. It is closely connected with self-awareness. Lack of 'emotional assertiveness' results in a person being shy, inclined to timidity or lacking in self-confidence. Emotional assertiveness is all about standing up for yourself, expressing your true feelings and not letting others take advantage of you, while at the same time taking care to consider others' feelings. Assertiveness is about finding the middle way. Assertiveness is a trait of self-regard (accepting and valuing oneself) and regard for others while thinking and doing. It is linked to self-esteem and is considered an important communication skill. Individuals communicate assertively by not being afraid to speak their minds and by trying to influence others, but also by doing so in a way that respects the personal boundaries of others. They are also willing to defend themselves against aggressive incursions (not aggressive, not passive).

Emotional independence, also called emotional autonomy, is the capability to be self-directed and self-controlled in one's thinking and actions, and to be free of emotional dependency. You are emotionally

independent when you can choose not to react to or desire outside objects. *Emotional resilience* refers to the interplay between positive emotions and resilience while coping with stress or tragedy. It is a two-dimensional construct indicating the emotional exposure to adversity, failure or stress and the positive adjustment outcomes of that adversity. *Intentionality* is the ability to act deliberately. This means to say what you mean and to mean what you say. It explores how consciously you are able to make decisions that are consistent with your personal and professional goals and values. Intentionality

In simple words emotional resilience indicates the positive easiness to pick oneself up and bounce back when things go wrong such as stressful daily life events such as divorce, death, poverty, joblessness to name a few).

includes, and is sometimes taken to be equivalent to, what is called ‘mental representation.’ *Self-regard* can be considered as the capability to accept oneself as basically being good. There is a positive two-way relationship between emotional intelligence and self-regard. Emotional intelligence can influence your life in a positive way.

Emotional intelligence does not include agreeableness, optimism, motivation, happiness and calmness because these are only personal qualities and have nothing to do with emotions, intelligence or emotional intelligence.



INTRAPERSONAL DEVELOPMENT

Emotional intelligence can be learned, developed and enhanced. Intelligence is *potential* capabilities. This dimension of emotional intelligence is related to developing the human potential and performance. Human performance and potential are very much dependent on what you perceive yourself to be, because your outer world depends on your inner cosmos. Your ability to acquire and perceive human capabilities to improve performance depends on your emotional intelligence. Intrapersonal development capabilities encompass the capability to take responsibility and initiative for personal performance and development (conscientiousness), ability to realize one’s potential and capabilities (self-actualization), to make something new that involves the generation of new ideas, concepts, thinking, problem-solving, approaches and actions, (creativity¹), to acquire knowledge with reason; to identify the gut feeling and to believe and act on it (intuition), skills to understand non-verbal clues (facial expression and body language) in people (body intelligence), to reflect on experiences and to learn from it (reflective learning), wisdom and maturity from real life experiences; logical knowledge and skills through formal education, training and experience (human capital and cognitive intelligence), and the ability and skills to struggle for superiority or victory among rivals and competing persons (human contestability²). Thus, the human intrapersonal development capabilities dimension of emotional intelligence includes various interdependent factors and the relationships of these factors vary from individual to individual.



MANAGEMENT EXCELLENCE

Management excellence is related to relationship management. It is concerned with regards for and awareness of others. It comprises conflict handling, developing other people’s potential, objectivity, inspirational leadership, team building, collaboration and co-operation, change catalyst, emotional adaptability and leveraging diversity. Management excellence consists of knowing and handling other people’s emotions, feelings and concerns; the ability to motivate, influence and inspire others; team building; skills of leading and confronting others; helping others to develop their abilities and taking care of their developmental needs; ability to bond (sharing hopes, fears and vulnerability), collaborate and facilitate with others; skills and knowledge in conflict management and objectivity (adopting a third person’s perspective), the ability to appreciate or criticize others’ actions; and compassion, tolerance of differences and commitment. Thus, all these factors are interconnected and they overlap in the development of emotional intelligence and in its use to handle relationships successfully in personal life, at work and elsewhere.

By developing one’s emotional intelligence, one can manage one’s relationship skills effectively and efficiently.



KEY SOCIOECONOMIC FACTORS

The key socioeconomic factors are the collection of resources, assets or capabilities owned by an individual in a personal socioeconomic network, which become available as an investment in social relations, economic and political awareness. It is an individual level ability to make weak and strong ties with others within a socioeconomic political system. Social skills are the most important set of abilities that a person can have. It is related to sociability, social understanding and social intelligence. It is being emotionally intelligent at home and in society at large. Communication is necessary to access and use the social capital through exchanging information, identifying problems and solutions and managing conflict. It is understood as the networks that individuals possess and that they may use for social integration purposes. It is more the disposition to create, maintain and develop such networks that constitutes the real social capital (Gaag, 2005). Individual social capital can be *bonding social capital* and *bridging social capital*. (Putnam, 2000) Social capital is observed as being created by the formation of relationships, which in turn are determined by conditions on the individual level (personality traits, personal resource collections and investments in relationships), the macro-level (political climate and geography), and the interaction of both, that is, the position of the individual in society. Aggregated to the macro-level, these conditions lead to an unequal distribution of social capital over the population, which, for the individual actor, lead to specific ‘access to socioeconomic resources’.

The dimension of socioeconomic factors includes empathy (ability to understand and appreciate other people's feelings), social self-management ability (remaining relaxed, building rapport with other people and knowing the extent of self-disclosure while in social situations), individual social capital (capability to make sustainable and strong ties with others in a society), social responsibility (concerns about the broader harm to communities, the society and the nation; for example, environmental health, global warming, poverty and such.), social consciousness (to be aware of the problems that different societies and communities face on a day-to-day basis), economic awareness (transferable skills and understanding of the fundamental economic forces and activities that shape lives), political awareness (skill and capability to understand politics, to be aware of the political environment of a country and its political activities, factors and forces) and the communication skills of openly listening and speaking (receiving and sending effective messages).



STRATEGIES TO DEVELOP EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The brain and body are superbly and complexly interwoven and interconnected to meet the demands of the present world. The nature of experience of feelings, thoughts and actions depends on how the brain processes the inner and outer (environmental) information through its complex system. American neurologist and emotional intelligence pioneer, Paul Donald MacLean (1990) developed the intriguing theory of the ‘triune brain’ to explain its evolution and to try to reconcile the rational human behaviour with its more primal and violent side. He became interested in the brain’s control of emotion and behaviour. MacLean calls these three brains as the neo-cortex (neo-mammalian, cerebrum or thinking or rational brain), the limbic system (paleo-mammalian, old mammalian or intermediate or emotional brain) and the reptilian brain, containing the brainstem and cerebellum (archipallium or primitive [reptilian] brain or the ‘Basal Brain’, called by MacLean as the R-complex). This is shown in **Figure**

20.1. Georgii Ivanovitch Gurdjieff, for example, referred to man as a ‘three-brained being’. There is one brain for the spirit, one for the soul and one for the body, according to him.

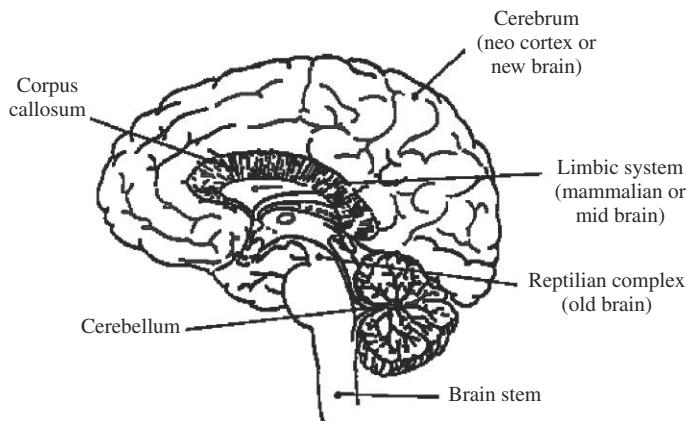


Fig. 20.1 Human Brain and Triune Brain Theory

Neo-cortex (thinking brain) and limbic system (emotional brain) are two parts of the brain that determine intelligence—both IQ and EQ. The neo-cortex grasps the concepts, reasoning and logic. So it governs the analytical and technical abilities. The limbic system, the middle part of the brain, is concerned with emotions, instincts, impulses and drives. This part of the brain is the seat of value judgements, instead of the more advanced neo-cortex. It decides whether the higher brain has a ‘good’ idea or not, whether it feels true and right. Brain functions are not purely limbic or purely cortical, but a mixture of both, because these two brains are interwoven and interconnected with each other. It is important to know that IQ is generic—it changes little from childhood; and the conventional training programmes, which, in effect, concentrate on the neo-cortex may enhance technical skills but will make little or no impact on the emotional intelligence. Therefore, it is important to include and focus on the limbic system in order to improve emotional intelligence. It is worth mentioning that emotional intelligence develops with maturity and it can be learnt, but it takes time, effort and training. Some of the strategies to develop emotional intelligence are as follows.

Neuro-linguistic Programming (NLP)

Neuro-linguistic Programming (NLP), developed jointly by Richard Bandler and linguist John Grinder, is a system of alternative therapy that seeks to educate people in self-awareness and effective communication, and to change their patterns of mental and emotional behaviour. NLP is a toolkit to find ways to help people have better, fuller and richer lives. NLP is based on the belief that there is a strong connection between the neurological processes ('neuro'), language ('linguistic') and the behavioural patterns that have been learned through experience ('programming') and that can be organized to achieve specific goals in life. As a science of excellence, NLP is based on the belief that each person's concept of reality is actually his or her subjective interpretation, because the mind is a filtering mechanism. People learn to programme their reactions to others, and develop unconscious strategies for interacting

with them. NLP helps people to identify these strategies and involves thinking of the outcome required in a situation and identifying the personal resources needed to bring about that outcome. Thus, NLP is a toolkit of skills that focuses on the way you think about what you are doing that already works, what you are doing that does not work and what you need to do differently. The bottom line is that if you change the way you think, feel and believe, you will alter the results you get and it will lead to the development of emotional intelligence and performance.

Emotional Literacy

All individuals have some degree of emotional literacy. It is the degree to which you are emotionally literate; therefore, it reflects the degree to which you are able to recognize, understand, handle and appropriately express your emotions. Emotional literacy is defined as the practice of thinking individually and collectively about how your emotions shape your actions, and of using emotional understanding to enrich your thinking. So emotional literacy is the ability to experience and productively manage emotions. This term is most commonly used in the UK. There is a positive correlation between emotional literacy and emotional intelligence. The higher the level of emotional literacy, the higher will be the level of emotional intelligence and vice versa. In educational context, the ideal learning environment, therefore, should combine both ‘tech skills’ and ‘soft skills’ (people skill as opposed to academic facts). The UK government’s School’s programme for Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning (SEAL) for primary,

and more recently in 2007 extended to secondary schools, highlights the commitment to address the social and emotional skills that underpin effective learning. Emotional literacy is more concerned with ‘how’ you learn and not ‘what’ you learn. The inability of a learner to manage emotions or communicate effectively often has led to unresolved and repetitive conflict among learners, low morale and diminished productivity. Thus, the most successful strategy to promote emotional intelligence is to promote emotional literacy in schools and classrooms.

There is a positive correlation between emotional literacy and emotional intelligence. The higher the level of emotional literacy, the higher will be the level of emotional intelligence and vice versa.

Language of Emotions

For most people, it is very hard to express true feelings when they feel fear, nervousness or even happiness, because people try to cover up and act ‘normal’. People even feel embarrassed, ashamed or afraid to talk about feelings publicly due to various reasons such as not wanting to hurt somebody’s feelings or being afraid of consequences and such. Most people find it hard to put in words what they feel. Lack of knowledge of the appropriate language of emotions may also lead one to misidentify one’s emotions. For example, a shy person can easily be misunderstood because he or she will not initiate conversations and often people can perceive him or her as being conceited and treat him or her differently. Therefore, there is a strong need to teach the language of emotions in schools, adult education or even at the workplace. The language of emotions can lead to the development of emotional intelligence because people will be more aware of what they are feeling and can share and discuss their true feelings. At school, workplace or in society, people must feel emotionally secure and physically safe so that they have plenty opportunities to discuss their feelings openly and truly.

Establishing Caring and Supportive Relationships

In a modern world of broken families and relationships, there is a strong need for establishing caring and supportive relationships. By nature, human beings desire closeness and prefer acceptance and approval over rejection and disapproval. Trust building is at the core of establishing caring and supportive relationships among people that lead to the development of emotional intelligence because it results in the fulfilment of emotional needs. In a relationship, a person must feel valued, cared for, appreciated, supported, respected and a part of it. Caring and supportive relationships foster emotional intelligence in many ways such as increasing self-awareness, learning self-control, enhancing personal motivation, increasing empathy by seeing the world through another's person's viewpoint and increasing relationship skills.

Emotional Validation

Emotional validation refers to the acknowledgement and acceptance of one's feelings, unique identity and individuality. Validation includes acceptance without passing judgement, empathy, understanding others' feelings and respecting those feelings. Thus, emotional validation is an important skill to be learnt in order to develop emotional intelligence and to have better relationships with people. On the contrary, emotional invalidation is to reject, ignore or judge the feelings and/or the identity of others. It includes making others feel inadequate, inferior, insignificant or useless, which leads to bitterness in relationships. Being aware of the different forms of emotional invalidation also helps to develop one's emotional intelligence. Emotional validation can be verbal (saying something, such as 'I understand what you felt') and non-verbal (listening or nodding to somebody). Emotional validation allows one to interpret accurately the emotional triggers for different types of behaviours in different situations and helps one to respond in a manner that addresses the feelings with reassurances, understanding and such.

Active Engagement

Active engagement refers to any instrumental method that engages people actively in the relationship process at home, at work, in a classroom or in different occasions in a society. It requires people to do meaningful activities and think about what they are doing. Effective communication is the foundation of active engagement in which the people involved share information, views, ideas, questions, goals, motivations and so on. The human brain learns by being actively involved in things and making connections between different experiences and what is meant by those experiences. If the quality of questions is better, the brain is challenged and actively engaged to a greater extent. Critical and interpretive questioning engages the brain more than just factual or ordinary questions. Thus, active engagement fosters emotional intelligence by making people more aware of their strengths and weaknesses, by keeping emotions in check, by seeing the end result and achieving satisfaction, by empathizing with others' feelings and conditions and by listening, communicating and problem-solving in a group situation.

Active engagement is a processing act that causes learners or participants to pose questions, manipulate information and relate the new learning to what they already know. Questions result in the engagement of the whole brain to find answers.

Higher-order Thinking Skills

Thinking is a systematic cognitive process of using what you know to find out what you do not know. It is a gateway to understanding and effective learning. Thinking skills facilitate the transformation of information into meaningful conclusion or interpretation. Lower-order thinking skills refer to the thinking process that occurs when a person simply receives or recites factual information. On the other hand, higher-order thinking skills refer to the thinking that requires a person to manipulate information and ideas in ways that transform their meaning and implications. Emotions play a significant role in the thinking process. If you are happy with situations, you move to higher-order thinking with higher levels of processing. Higher-order thinking skills foster emotional intelligence in many ways. They help people to discover who they really are and what they really believe in, thus enhancing self-awareness. They help people to stay ‘in check’ so that they are looked upon positively. Thinking skills also boost the development of people’s communication skills, including the art of listening and problem-solving.

Empowerment through Feedback

Feedback refers to information about how you performed in the light of a particular goal. It is value-neutral and simply describes what you did or did not do in terms of reaching your goal. The brain needs immediate feedback on its activities for optimal learning and growth. The quality of feedback and the opportunities to use it provide empowerment to people that in turns leads to the development of emotional intelligence. Friends, family members, colleagues and peers must give continuous feedback to the brain so that it gets fed and survives. It is only through being open to receiving and understanding feedback that people can become aware of their strengths and areas for development. Thus, it fosters self-awareness, self-control, personal development, empathy, management excellence and relationship and social skills.

Developing Regards

Regards are the prerequisite for health, happiness and success. Regards include self-regard, regard for others and relative regard, which are interdependent. Self-regard is required for all aspects of emotional intelligence. A higher level of self-regard teaches one to have regard for others that helps one to understand and accept others even if they are different. Thus, having regard is a direct measure of your level of emotional intelligence. If individuals have low regard for others, they are likely to come across as judgemental, critical, rejecting and having mistrust and disregard for others.

Body Awareness

Self-emotional skills facilitate body awareness. Human bodies are like barometers that communicate through emotions. By becoming more bodily aware, you can tune in to what your body is trying to tell you. Therefore, it is extremely important to be aware of the messages that your body sends. Body

Body awareness refers to self-awareness and being in touch with your own state of feeling.

awareness can be increased through regular exercises, meditation, yoga, spiritual training and coaching in body language. These methods help to develop body awareness more directly. One must listen to one’s body messages; otherwise, it can lead to unhappiness and misery. For example, the emotion of sadness encourages one to

grieve, which in turn helps one to value what one has lost and appreciate what one has left. Emotions guide one to stay away from bad and violent people. Thus, the more bodily aware one becomes, the more emotionally intelligent one is and the more information one receives through one's physiology.

SUMMARY

Achieving success at work and in life depends not only on the intelligence quotient (IQ) but also significantly on the phenomenon of emotional intelligence. The effective performance of individuals, political leaders, corporate leaders, managers, sales force, organizations, students, teachers and others is increasingly connected with improved emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence is a type of intelligence that is related to the emotional side of the life of an individual. It is a set of capabilities to acquire knowledge from one's emotions and the emotions of others, to use emotions to make choices and to effectively recognize, control and manage one's emotions and the emotions of others.

Emotional intelligence is as old as time. Ancient Greek philosophers, including Socrates, Plato and Aristotle, as well as Charles Darwin, Edward Lee Thorndike, Sigmund Freud, David Wechsler, Abraham Maslow, John D. Mayer and Peter Salovey, Daniel Goleman, Chopra and Kanji and many others have acknowledged the role of emotions in determining why human beings act the way they do.

The salient features of EI are: (1) EI is unique, (2) EI is a complex phenomenon, (3) EI is multidimensional, (4) EI has its roots in social intelligence, (5) EI predicts performance improvements in individuals, teams or organizations by using systems thinking, (6) EI is measurable, (7) EI is holistic in nature, (8) EI is an integral part of a complete individual, (9) EI is always evolving over time; it can be learnt and developed, (10) EI is broader than IQ and (11) EI is linked with the hierarchy of human needs.

Emotional intelligence has strong links with the 'multiple intelligences' theory. There is basically an interconnection between feeling and thinking, that is, feeling about thinking and thinking about feeling. Howard Gardner (1983) divided intelligence into at least seven components: logical, linguistic, spatial, musical, kinesthetic, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences. Interpersonal (effective relationship management) intelligence and intrapersonal (effective self-management) intelligence together form emotional intelligence. Thus, broadly emotional intelligence can be grouped into two parts: interpersonal (outer world) and intrapersonal (inner world) intelligence.

EI has immense significance at work and in the life of everyone. It helps in self-emotional awareness and management, better assessment of others' behaviour, development of human potential and performance, successful relationship management at home, work and in society, effective teamwork, inspirational leadership, job satisfaction, organizational development and performance excellence, creativity and innovation, complete educational development, stress reduction and management, thinking skills development and conflict handling.

The scope of EI includes self-emotional awareness, regulation of self-emotions, intrapersonal development, responding and managing appropriately at the workplace, social adeptness, economic awareness and political awareness. There are four dimensions of EI, such as self-emotional skills, intrapersonal development, management excellence and key socioeconomic factors. EI develops with maturity and it can be learnt, but it takes time, effort and training. Some of the strategies to develop emotional intelligence are: (a) Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP), (b) emotional literacy (c) development of the language of emotions, (d) by establishing caring and supportive relationships, (e) emotional validation, (f) active engagement, (g) use of higher-order thinking skills, (h) empowerment through feedback, (i) by developing regard for others, and (j) body awareness.

KEY TERMS

- Emotional intelligence
- Non-cognitive skills
- Capabilities
- Competencies
- Self-emotional skills
- Management excellence
- Social intelligence
- Multiple intelligences
- IQ
- Intrapersonal Development
- Socioeconomic factors

TEST YOUR KNOWLEDGE

1. What do you mean by emotional intelligence?
2. Can emotional intelligence be measured?
3. Briefly describe the history of emotional intelligence.
4. What are the salient features of emotional intelligence?
5. Compare and contrast multiple intelligences theory, IQ and EQ.
6. Discuss the importance and scope of emotional intelligence.
7. What are the components of emotional intelligence?
8. Can emotional intelligence be developed? If so, how?

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Notes

- 1 The multidimensional nature of creativity and is fuelled by the process of either conscious or unconscious insight. Creativity is the starting point of innovation.
- 2 The concept of 'human contestability' was developed and applied first by Parvesh K. Chopra (2003 and 2007) in order to identify the characteristics of the poor in contrast to the non-poor.

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