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COMMAND AND STAFF TRAINING INSTITUTE BANGLADESH AIR FORCE



Junior Command and Staff Course

MANAGEMENT MODULE

Management and Leadership

MGT-1

December - 2011

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SYLLABUS

MANAGEMENT MODULE

Total = 94 Periods

Marks: 400

Subj	Topic/Ex	Mode	Period	Remarks
Management & Leadership	An Introduction to Management	Lecture	1	
	Tools of Management	Lecture	1	
	Management Resources	Lecture	1	
	Management Theories	Lecture	1	
	Nuances of Organized System	Lecture	1	
	Self Management	Lecture	1	
	Test-1	Exam	2	50 Marks
	Motivation and Behavior	Lecture	1	
	Hierarchy of Needs	Lecture	1	
	Motivator-Hygiene Theory	Lecture	1	
	Immaturity-Maturity Theory	Lecture	1	
	Changing Maturity Through Behavior Modification	Lecture	1	
	Test-2	Exam	2	50 Marks
	Dimensions of Leadership	Lecture	1	
	Leadership Style and Factors influencing Styles of Leadership	Lecture	1	
	Skill of Leader	Lecture	1	
	Life Cycle Theory of Leadership	Lecture	1	
	Test-3	Exam	1	25 Marks
	Network Analysis	Lecture	2	
	Comments of Leadership	Lecture	1	
	Leadership in Air Force	Lecture	1	
	Morale in Air Force	Lecture	1	
	Grievance Handling	Lecture	1	
	Discipline in Air Force	Lecture	1	
	Reading Material (Group dynamics)	Lecture	-	
	Test-4	Exam	1	25 Marks
Office Management	Treatments of Files at Air HQ	Lecture	2	
	Filing System & Transmission	Lecture	2	
	Test-1	Exam	1	25 Marks
	JSI, AFI, AFO, AFL, AFM, AFB, AFS & Org Memo	Lecture	2	
	Forms and Publications	Lecture	2	
	Test-2	Exam	1	25 Marks

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Information Management	Introduction to Information Management	Lecture	1	
	Preservation of Files/Folder/Docu in Computer	Lecture	1	
	BAF LAN System	Lecture	2	
	Test-1	Exam	1	25 Marks
	E-mailing		1	
	E-working		1	
	E-working Security		2	
	Test-2	Assignment/Exam	1	25 Marks
Financial Management	National Budget and Defence Budget	Lecture	5	
	Test-1	Exam	1	25 Marks
	Financial Planning in BAF	Guest Lecture	2	
	Audit in BAF, Income Tax, Foreign TA/DA	Lecture	5	
	Procurement Procedure in BAF	Guest Lecture	2	
	Test-2	Assignment	1	25 Marks
Human Resource Management	Introduction to HRM	Lecture	1	
	Recruitment of Personnel	Lecture	1	
	Training of Personnel	Lecture	1	
	Career Planning/ performance appraisal	Lecture	1	
	Test-1	Exam	1	25 Marks
	Career of BAF Officers	Guest Lecture	2	
	Career of BAF Airmen	Guest Lecture	2	
	Functions of BAF Record Office	Guest Lecture	2	
	Career of BAF Civilian	Lecture	1	
	Training System in BAF	Guest Lecture	2	
	Welfare of BAF Personnel	Lecture	1	
	Test-2	Exam	1	25 Marks
Leadership Case Study	Assignment	Presentation	6	50 Marks
Visit to Civil Organizations		Visit	8	

MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP

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TOPIC-1

AN INTRODUCTION TO MANAGEMENT

1. One of the most distinctive features of our modern society is the predominance of organized group effort. Attainment of various objectives is seldom sought by individual efforts. Rather, groups of people combine their efforts to optimize the attainment of group and individual objectives.
2. This tendency is found in every phase of human life. Goods and services that satisfy our economic needs, for example, are principally produced and distributed by business units composed of more than one person. Again, the protection of our nation is a mission of a military organization consisting of millions of men. Similarly, our political parties, our religious affiliations, our unions, our charitable and welfare institutions, and our recreational and social activities are characterized essentially by group efforts and relationships.
3. Each organized group, whatever its major purpose, brings together technical skills in a way that accomplishes more than could be done by the individuals acting independently. But this “bringing together” of human technical skills is not accomplished automatically. For example, typists in an office do not automatically co-ordinate their efforts with those for whom they perform such services. Or production workers do not automatically synchronize their output with the efforts of salesmen. Nor do such staff specialists as engineers, accountants, or personnel managers automatically serve the needs of production units.
4. Instead, co-operation among, and co-ordination of, these specialists must be achieved through the efforts of another type of specialist. The latter is responsible for getting the technical experts to work together effectively. He must unite the technicians of production, distribution, politics, recreation, or whatever the particular field may be. And he is as significant in organized human effort as are the technical experts themselves.
5. This “co-ordinator” is known by many names. In the political field he may be called president, governor, or mayor, to mention but a few. In the religious field, he may carry such titles as cardinal, bishop, abbot, or pope. In recreational areas, he may be called coach, manager or director. In the business field are found such titles as executive, superintendent, supervisor ; and commanding officer or a chief of staff in the armed forces.

6. Common to all these terms is the implication of group leadership. The job of each is to get results from his group. Each should cause to be brought out of a group more than the group could accomplish without such leadership or more than the individuals there in could accomplish independently.

7. To repeat, the leader as a manager is a specialist leading a group of technical experts or specialists. The chief engineer, for example, “manages” a team of engineers just as the drill-press foreman “manages” a team of drill-press operators. Each must possess managerial attributes that will permit him to optimize various goals of his particular team. He must have a fund of managerial knowledge, a set of managerial skills, and acquaintance with managerial duties to lead his team of engineers or drill-press operators.

8. How is this complement of managerial capacities acquired ? For a long time it was felt that managers either were “born” or could become so only after long years of practical experience. Such an attitude is bound to result in managerial growth that is slow and expensive. There is a growing recognition, however, that managers, like engineers or accounts, can be trained. This is supported by the fact that there is a growing body of knowledge in regard to the skills, tools, and functions of management. And it is the purpose of this precis to present the basic principles and practices of management that can serve to help train managers.

TOPIC-2

TOOLS OF MANAGEMENT

Introduction

1. The overall job of any manager is to create within the enterprise an environment that will facilitate the accomplishment of its objective. To accomplish this job, he uses many tools. We will survey briefly the contents of the management tool box. We will observe them together. We will do this in an effort to avoid an error that is commonly made in the evaluation of management : the error of confusing the manager's tools with his work. We would never say that a carpenter's work is his hammer, but, somehow, we occasionally work it out that a manager's work is planning.

2. The manager is the craftsman. His tools are planning, organizing, directing, and controlling. These tools can be used on any job he manages, whether it be government, education, sales, production, or research. His tools must be in good condition, but the finest tools in the world will not make a craftsman of a clod.

Planning

3. Each person plans his work - sets objectives and determines how to take action. It sometimes appears that managers plan and workers do not. This appearance results from the fact that management's planning involves more variables and greater loss for mistakes. Management plans must be specific and clear enough to be communicated, whereas the line worker plots out his own approach and readjusts for failure.

4. Planning is, of course, decision making because it involves selecting from among established alternatives. It is not necessarily good planning simply to say what action will be taken. Good planning says what all the possible actions might be, then places' those courses in preferential order. A plan is incomplete if it lacks provisions for plan B and may be even plans C and D.

5. Planning and the responsibility for planning cannot be completely separated from managerial performance. All managers have responsibility for planning whether they are at the top, middle, or bottom of the organizational structure. They have the responsibility, but to plan without the counsel and involvement of those who will execute the plan.....is, in itself, poor planning.

Organizing

6. When planning has taken place, there exists an orderly explanation and description of the things that must be done to accomplish the overall objective. These may bot be on paper, but unless the component parts have been identified and clarified, good planning has not yet taken place and the operation is not yet ready to be organized.

7. Organization involves the arrangement of component jobs so they will get done in the most efficient way. Skill of organization include the grouping of the component jobs, the assignment of groups of activities of a manger, the delegation of authority to carry them out, and establishment of the relationship that shall exist between the working divisions.

Directing

8. Directing is the managerial function of running the organization as it actively carries out plans. This activity is comparable to that performed by the pilot flying a plane to an airport. The pilot is flying in accordance with a plan that had been prepared before take off. There is always a "carry out" phase in which an executive commands his organizational ship.

9. This active phase of management, as the term implies, "directs" the group toward goals established in an earlier phase of planning. The executive issues orders and instructions to his subordinates so that proper course is maintained or undesirable deviations are corrected. He senses the temper of his crew and takes needed action to curb faulty performance or to reward superior effort. He motivates his subordinates so that optimum action is stimulated.

Controlling

10. It is quite common for individuals to bear the title of manger even though they have no control over the task they have been given. In such cases, they are not managing but riding. And, they are at the mercy of whatever factors or people are really controlling the activity. Control is the practice of making sure that events go as planned. Control is the attempt to eliminate all surprises. Carrying out the plans that have been made means controlling all the activities of employees that could cause a variation in results. Here the manager walks a tightrope - in danger if he lets his employees get out of hand and equally in danger if his employees begin to feel too heavy a hand. The individual skill of the manager becomes most apparent at the point of control. For the skillful, direction is sufficient to communicate clearly and monitor the job in process. For other, control becomes almost a reactionary thing, involving expensive correction, discipline, and retrenching.

Conclusion

11. The tools of the manager craftsman are planning, organizing, directing, and controlling. All managers have responsibility for planning whether they are at the top, middle, or bottom of organizational structure. Organization involves the arrangement of component parts so that they will get done in the most efficient way. Control is the practice of making sure that events go as planned. Direction is advance control.

12. Coordination is perhaps the closest thing to a true synonym for management. The challenge of coordination is to capitalize on individual differences while maintaining control. What the manager craftsman is trying to accomplish with all his tools is coordination - he wants everybody to cooperate in reaching the group goal.

TOPIC-3

MANAGEMENT RESOURCES

Introduction

1. The resources a manager uses are time, space, money, material and personnel. Obviously they can be squandered, misdirected, or misplaced. A manager ought to be aware of poor utilization so he can avoid it, and of effective utilization so he can practice it. It is not quality versus quantity nor cost versus effectiveness a manager should seek but the best blending of them. Management resources are described below.

Time

2. The effective manager doesn't have any more minutes per day than anyone else. He simply wastes less than the ineffective manager. As an experiment, a manager could keep a notebook of how much time he spends each day on his various tasks. If he kept such a list up for a week; analyzed it, and then acted to eliminate wasted minutes and hours he would teach himself the value of efficient time usage. Most of us don't have to go to such lengths to be convinced of the value of time well spent. Suppose though, that we did keep a list, reorganized our tasks and assigned priorities properly – the savings might still only be a slight one. One central reason could well be, not how much time is spent, but which tasks we select to do and to what depth we carry them.

Space

3. Though you and your furniture and equipment occupy a given space, is it being efficiently used? How do you determine that some movement of supply bins or stands or machinery would better the operation? Certain areas may be hazardous or restricted and require special precautions. It's your area but the Safety Officer, Squadron Commander, Base Commander and others all seem to see things on it that you don't. What regulations apply and how does your unit measure up? Does complying with some of these regulations and AFOs cost you unreasonable time? If so, what can be done about it?

Money

4. You certainly, do not need no lecture on how costly our operation is. How much does an aircraft or flight line accident cost? How much money is wasted when the wrong part is ordered or is delivered? How about "rat-holed" bench stock? Pilfering? Equipment excess to needs? Your hot-rod tug drivers? Horseplay which incapacitates? Redoing paperwork? The elimination of these practices is your responsibility as a manager.

Material

5. We need tools, equipment, AGE, aircraft, parts, and buildings to accomplish the mission. Forecasting our needs accurately, insuring the proper usage, storage, and inventory of material are common problems associated with this resource. The manager has to become acquainted with what breaks, how often, how to prevent it, and how to repair it or where to send it for repairs, and how to replace it.

Personnel

6. There is an every present danger that a manager may underplay that most versatile, erratic, difficult to handle and important asset – personnel. Each airman represents big investment in terms of training, sustenance, and back-up facilities. The additional value of their collective years of experience and their growing expertise is literally impossible to assess in Tk. If an aircraft burns on the ramp it can be replaced for a stated sum of money. But how do you put a price on a really good mechanic or a seasoned crew chief ? How long does it take you to replace such a man ? A crew chief with his background can spot failure trends, hazards, and assess morale. He can train, advise and cajole a mixed batch of individuals into an effective team, a unit. Similarly, the same position occupied by another can cripple an outfit rapidly, no matter how well equipped or overmanned it is .

Conclusion

7. Carelessness, lax discipline, condoning or contributing to sloppy maintenance habits, cliques, discrimination, privileged treatment and similar faults can and do drag organizations down as effectively as an epidemic. Choosing, evaluating, and developing people for such key positions is the foremost challenge of any manger. Since people do the work, a unit will succeed or fail in direct proportion to how well they are employed. This production will be significantly affected by your key supervisor. Your people will range from the brilliant to the slow, dedicated to uncaring, energetic to listless, knowledgeable to ignorant, and versatile to highly specialized. Yet all of them have some degree of flexibility, and can learn, if properly motivated. You can quantify skill levels, number of people, rank, and time in service. But you cannot compute how well an untried crew chief will develop as a leader. Nonetheless you must fit your men into the job slots, always seeking to capitalize upon their past experience, current growth and demonstrated potential. The proper use of these resources will depend, in part, on how you, the manager, think and on what your general approach to management is.

TOPIC-4

MANAGEMENT THEORIES

1. Mc Gregor's Theory 'X' is based on the assumptions that the management of an organization is responsible for achieving its objectives. For that purpose management has to organize its activities which include procuring and making effective use of money, materials, machines, men etc. With regard to men, "X" theory states that they can also be managed in the same manner as other things. The human effort too can be manipulated to suit the organizational needs. In other words, the management believes that human behavior can be directed, motivated, controlled and modified for achieving the organizational objectives. This view in turn is based on the following hypothesis.

- a. The average man has a natural dislike for work.
- b. He works only because it helps him to satisfy his physiological and safety needs.
- c. He lacks ambition, has little urge for creativity and shuns responsibility.
- d. He is inherently self-centered and as such has no interest in the need of his organization.
- e. He works when closely supervised and guided to achieve organizational objectives.

2. McGregor's Theory 'Y', however, is based on the assumption that man is not a mechanical system, he is an 'organic' one. He is by nature motivated. No doubt, his behavior is primarily motivated by physiological and safety needs, but it is also motivated by the needs for belongingness, self-respect, status and recognition. Man inherently likes to take up jobs of responsibility. He wants to control his own activities. He likes to work for personal development and thereby increase his talents. In fact, there is an insatiable desire in him to work and win. It is not work as such which he dislikes, it is the compulsive nature of the present day work situation which he finds incongruent to his basic urges. McGrogor, therefore, postulated Theory 'Y' which is based on the following hypothesis :

- a. Work is as natural to man as play. If he is found indolent and passive, it is because of his experience of working in the present organisation..
- b. Man likes to be master of his own activities and surroundings. For achieving that objectives he does not mind assuming responsibility.
- c. Motivation is as much related to man's physiological needs as to his higher level needs of belongingness, self-esteem and self-actualization.
- d. It is wrong to assume that man works under close supervision. Provided with congenial work atmosphere, he can be self-directed and creative at work too.

3. To sum up, McGregor's Theory 'X' places exclusive reliance upon external control of human behavior, while Theory 'Y' relies heavily on self-control and self-direction. The former believes in manipulating human behavior with the help of "extrinsic" rewards and punishment, the latter advocates the importance of "intrinsic" rewards- the rewards which are inherent in activity itself. The former treats workers as immature children whose activities must be guided and controlled at every step, but the latter considers them as adults and mature persons who are quite capable of managing their own affairs.

TOPIC-5

NUANCES OF ORGANIZED SYSTEM

Introduction

1. Every organization has two systems in operation; the formal and the informal. The formal system is composed of the recognized and formalized lines of communication, authority and control. This system is frequently pictured on the official organization chart. The second or informal organization is an elusive mass of personal contacts, lines of communication, and interpersonal relationship which provides flesh around the skeleton formed by the official and formal structure. The two types of organization are described below.

Formal Organization

2. People create a formal organization because they expect to derive a certain utility, value or service from it. A formal organization's primary aim is to arrive at certain objectives. Secondly, it is the means by which the members of the organization satisfy economic, social and psychological needs. If the overall objectives of the organization are to be reached, management's wants individual worker's wants must be compatible. That is, while management goals can often be quantified and are generally attainable, fulfillment of worker need are not quantifiable and, at times, indefinable, and fluctuate somewhat erratically

3. The formal organization has certain distinguishing characteristics. It is usually well organized and pattern of communication (using the chain of command), are well established. It operates under definite policies and procedures. It has definite lines of authority and work is portioned out consistent with these lines. There are definable levels each with separate kinds of appropriate tasks. The levels are discussed below :

a. **Trusteeship Level.** This level provides general policy, establishes long range goals and the broad plans for reaching those goals. It is not executive in nature, in that, it is usually remote from the action center, and it deals with matters other than the day-to-day running of subordinate units. It maintains control by sending down inspectors as its eyes and ears". The Air Headquarters will set your overall mission and provide guiding policy and procedures.

b. **General Management Level.** This is the top executive level and is responsible for the running of a large unit, for example, a BAF Base. The base Commander often has a broad span of control and is himself remote from the working activities on his installation. He has communications problems and spends a lot of time in briefings, meetings, and in reading reports. He strives to maintain contact with the key workers at all levels. He has to maintain balance and arbitrate disputes between departments while higher levels influence what his unit is to do. He bears the bulk of responsibility for the actions of everyone in his Base.

c. **Departmental Level.** At this level specialized interests come into play and departments are created to fulfil distinct functions, ie, maintenance, operations, admin. The top man in maintenance, eg OC Maint Wg, is involved in making most of the plans and many key decisions that people at lower levels must carry out and live with. He bridges the gap between Base level concerns and the specialized area he dominates. To be effective, he must have a capable staff and be alert to trends. Close contact with the entire maintenance complex, enables him to anticipate problems before they reach unmanageable proportions.

d. **Middle Management Level.** This is where most of you find yourselves to-day. At this level we have a dual pivot; that is, you are the man between "higher authority" and the operative personnel who actually do the work. The position is characterised by considerable responsibility and yet a direct involvement with the action, the work itself. You are required to initiate action, follow given projects through to completion, respond to demands from above, direct a portion of the work force, uncover and correct on-going discrepancies, and keep your superiors informed. The job requires insight, resourcefulness, patience and creativity in addition to flexibility.

e. **Operative Supervisor.** Other levels are required to supervise managers, but this level supervises the workers. In the air force, the WOIC, the NCOIC and the many NCOs are the operative supervisors. Very often these NCOs have extensive, mixed backgrounds. The supervision they give requires leadership and common-sense in human relations, with a positive approach to teamwork.

f. **Operative Employee.** These people are those who can not re-delegate their work. The operative employee is at the bottom of a chain of command and must perform what he is assigned. Although lowest, it is a very important position because here is where the "product" is finally turned out. Many operative employees are highly skilled and extensively trained. Air Force mechanics work on engines, radar sets and aircraft worth millions of dollars. The quality of their work may mean life or death to a crew and their aircraft.

Informal Organization

4. The informal organisation is that network of personal and social relations which arises due to the interactions among working individuals and the varying groups of which they are members. To define it further, let's compare it to the formal organisation. The formal organisation has legal authority, an official hierarchy, established lines of communication, standards, official policies and procedures, funds, equipment, facilities, and it can be graphically portrayed on an organisational chart. On the other hand the informal organisation has no legal authority (just social sanctions), a fluid leadership and membership; a grapevine for communications; floating standards and taboos; no funds, equipment, or facilities; and no organisational chart, Its only identifiable element is the people. Multiple informal groups exist in a given unit and some people belong to several informal groups. The size of such groups tend to be small to keep within the limits of personal relationships.

5. Because the manager did not create the informal organisation, he cannot abolish it. It exists wherever people work. Furthermore, he will probably belong to one or more of these informal groups himself. Nor is the informal organisation necessarily in opposition to the formal organisation; it has potential benefits as well as disadvantages.

6. A major ingredient of the informal group is the communication network, the "grapevine." People have to communicate officially which provides an opportunity for talk about other matters as well. What bothers or interests us we often pass on, suitably embellished of course. Research has shown that as much as three quarters of grapevine information is factual. The other one quarter is rumour. Some managers tend to knock the entire grapevine because it carries an occasional rumour. They would rather see it abolished than use it. Abolishing it would be impossible since, in our society, there is no effective way to limit talk on the job to work-subjects only. People meet each other at work and interact and as long as this is true, the informal organisation will be with us.

7. Since they are made up of the people at all levels of an organization, the informal groups can, if so inclined, blend with that formal organization to make a workable system within which the job will get done. The formal plans and policies cannot control and guide every problem in a unit. These plans have gaps, are somewhat inflexible, are based on estimates, projections and unknowns or partial truths. The informal organization can and frequently does fill these gaps with information and action.

8. Another benefit is the lightening of the manager's workload. If the people know that the manager supports the informal organization they are more likely to respond to his ideas, to become motivated, to work without bothering him for constant guidance, and to exercise initiative.

9. The informal organization can smooth over work areas in an organization, voluntarily bolstering these weaknesses to improve the health of the unit. The informal group gives the members a feeling of satisfaction, friendship and some enjoyment in the working environment. It fosters a sense of belonging and involvement. It provides a safety valve for the frustrations and emotional problems that crop up in a work situation. The worker will talk readily to another who understands his situation and really shares the problem in a way his supervisors can not or will not.

10. In the Air Force as in any large enterprise, change is an inevitable, problem-causing reality. The rate of change seems to be on the increase. Ideas technological breakthroughs, human lifestyles and social demands are in a steady uproar. People, however, seem to be proceeding through life at a slower speed than this accelerating river of innovations and new ideas. They often resist change, even some which are, or would be, beneficial for them individually. This factor, resistance to change, confronts every manager. It can be overcome, or capitalized upon, or become a staggering problem, depending upon how it's handled.

11. Another problem with the informal group is that the quest for social satisfaction and reinforcement may become strong enough to lead the members away from organizational objectives. People tend to lose sight of why they were hired. The roles of the organization must focus on the job and not the social sidelights. The mission is flying aircraft, not running a country club where one works only for diversion.

12. Rumors are a third problem with the informal organization. Rumors are the injudicious, garbled, inaccurate or at times totally false information carried by the grapevine. Some people will accept rumors and act upon them. This may cause damage or loss of resources but usually only contributes to inefficiency, confusion, and the lowering of morale. Others, more mature and less easily stampeded, will attempt to check out or verify a suspected rumor with an authoritative sources, formal or informal.

13. A significant problem with the informal groups is conformity. The group puts pressures, some subtle and some direct, on the individuals to go along with everyone else. If such pressures lead a member away from organizational goals, they pose obstacles for a manager. Being in with the crowd may stifle initiative and creativity. At times, a young, ambitious man may really want to work hard and try out some of his ideas to improve the work scene. His peers may work on his or against him to get him calmed down so he doesn't "rock the boat."

Conclusion

14. There are similarities and notable contrasts between the formal and informal organizations. The formal unit is designed for a specific purpose, has a well-defined structure and recognizable characteristics. It operates under definite policies and procedures and functions through an established system of communication. It is built to reach organizational goals and provide for the fulfillment of personal, social and economic satisfaction of its members.

15. The informal group arises out of the social interactions of people at work. It has its own unique communications, rewards; sanctions and goals which are usually intangible. Its leaders are selected by the group and are subject to the group's manipulation. These groups cut across many lines or levels and are found to contain managers and workers alike. The needs of these groups cause actions which are sometimes contrary to, and sometimes compatible with, the formal organization's objectives.

TOPIC-6

SELF MANAGEMENT

1. The effectiveness of executive behavior is also affected by the skill with which an executive manages his own efforts and resources. In short, the success with which an executive plans organizes, directs, and controls the work of others is dependent in no small measures upon how well he plans, organizes, directs and controls himself. Self-management must be effective if the management of others is to be effective. Of particular significance is the need to utilize available time effectively, to work out a priority scale of projects, and to restrict oneself to managerial activities.
2. Such a plan does three major things. First, it serves to make certain that no major tasks are overlooked. Second, it serves to develop good habits of performing each task. And, third, it serves to remind other executives and subordinates to respect the time divisions.
3. The next major step in good time utilization is to stick as closely as possible to the planned schedule. At the outset this may be difficult. Interruptions and “emergencies” may provide convenient excuses to depart from the schedule. And until the new habits are firmly established, there is always the temptation to revert to the old ways of doing things. Indeed, it is interesting to let events as they occur, and people as they come in, determine what is to be done from hour to hour. But nothing seems to get finished under this plan. Under the work-schedule plan, however, not only is time used most effectively, but the jobs are completed before they are left.
4. Self-management will be improved if an executives takes time to evaluate the importance of his tasks. He can establish a classification in advance and then check out his work on that basis every day. Such a classification might well consist of the following :
 - a. Tasks that must be done personally.
 - b. Tasks that can be delegated but must be supervised closely.
 - c. Tasks that can be delegated and supervised casually.
 - d. Tasks that can be delegated, with the request that no report be made unless some exceptional deviation occurs.
5. Each afternoon the executive could review and classify the tasks for the next day according to the foregoing grouping. This would give not only him but also his subordinates a better picture of what will be on their desks the next day. It also gives the “unconscious” mind a list of problems and projects upon which to work during the evening and night. Then the next morning the executive can schedule the times during which he will take up the particular tasks, and make such notes on each as may have occurred to him since the preceding evening.
6. In a sense, the major criterion in establishing priorities is the nature of managerial activities. Each executive should be sure that he does not do the work of his subordinates. To be able to restrict himself to managing, he must be sure he knows what management duties are. This may sound like a silly statement and it would be silly were it not for the fact that many executives really don't manage.

7. If an executive is restricting himself to his managerial functions, he still can make himself more effective by using some simple devices. Use of a simple notebook, for example, is a good way to avoid burdening the mind with "things it should not forget". Some executives pride themselves on their memory for little details. All they are doing is employing an expensive device for doing jobs that a cheap tool could do better. Similarly, tabular charts, lists, and outlines of policies, personnel, reports, or procedures are excellent devices for summarizing information to which constant reference must be made; and, of course, a good secretary, executive assistant, or clerk is also an instrument upon which an executive can rely to help with details that are important to the proper performance of his major managerial duties.

TOPIC-7

MOTIVATION AND BEHAVIOUR

Introduction

1. The study of motivation and behaviour is a search for answers to perplexing questions about the nature of man. Recognizing the importance of the human element in organizations, we will attempt in this chapter to develop a theoretical framework that may help managers to understand human behaviour, not only to determine the “whys” of past behaviour but to some extent to predict, to change, and even to control future behaviour.

Motivation

2. Motivation is an incitement of the will to do something, organic state that prompts to an action or that which incites or tends to incite to determination or action. Human behaviour is generally motivated by a desire to attain some goal. This goal may or may not be consciously known to the individual.

Behaviour

3. Our behaviour is generally motivated by a desire to attain some goal. The specific goal is not always consciously known by the individual. All of us wonder many times, “Why did I do that ?” The reason for our action is not always apparent to the conscious mind . The drives that motivate distinctive individual behavioural patterns are to a considerable degree subconscious and therefore not easily susceptible to examination and evaluation.

4. The basic unit of behaviour is an activity. In fact, all behaviour is a series of activities. As human beings we are always doing something: walking, talking, eating, sleeping, working, and the like. In many instances we are doing more than one activity at a time, such as talking with someone as we walk or drive to work. At any given moment we may decide to change from one activity or combination of activities and begin to do something else. This raises some important questions. Why does a person engage in one activity and not another ? Why does he change activities ? How can we as managers understand, predict, and even control what activity or activities a person may engage in at a given moment in time ? To predict behaviour, managers must know which motives or needs of people evoke a certain action a particular time.

Motives

5. People differ not only in their ability to do but also in their “will to do,” or motivation. The motivation of a person depends on the strength of his motives. Motives are sometimes defined as needs, wants, drives, or impulses, within the individual. Motives are directed towards goals, which may be conscious or subconscious.

6. Motives are the “whys” of behaviour. They arouse and maintain activity and determine the general direction of the behaviour of an individual. In essence, motives, or needs, are the mainsprings of action. In our discussions we shall use these two terms- motives and needs- interchangeably. In this context, the term need should not be associated with urgency or any pressing desire for something. It simply means something within an individual that prompts him to action.

Goals

7. Goals are sometimes referred to as “hoped for” rewards toward which motives are directed. These goals are often called incentives by psychologists. However, we prefer not to use this term since many people in our society tend to equate incentives with tangible financial rewards, such as increased pay, and yet most of us would agree that there are many intangible rewards, such as praise or power, which are just as important in evoking behaviour. Managers who are successful in motivating employees are often providing an environment in which appropriate goals (incentives) are available for need satisfaction.

Motive Strength

8. We have said that motives, or needs, are the reasons underlying behaviour. Every individual has many hundreds of needs. All of these needs compete for his behaviour. What, then, determines which of these motives a person will attempt to satisfy through activity ? The need with the greatest strength at a particular moment in time leads to activity. Satisfied needs decrease in strength and normally do not motivate individuals to seek goals to satisfy them.

Categories of Activities

9. Activities resulting from high strength needs can generally be classified into two categories: goal-directed activity and goal activity. These concepts are important to practitioners because of their differing influence on need strength which can be useful in understanding human behaviour.

10. Goal – directed activity, in essence, is motivated behaviour directed at reaching a goal. If one’s strongest need at a given moment is hunger, various activities such as looking for a place to eat, buying food, or preparing food would be considered goal directed activities. On the other hand, goal activity is engaging in the goal itself. In the case of hunger, food is the goal and eating, therefore, is the goal activity.

11. An important distinction between these two classes of activities is their effect on the strength of the need. In goal directed activity, the strength of the need tends to increase as one engages in the activity until goal behaviour is reached or frustration sets in. Frustration develops when one is continually blocked from reaching a goal. If the frustration becomes intense enough, the strength of the need for that goal may decrease until it is no longer potent enough to affect behaviour a person gives up.

12. The strength of the need tends to increase as one engages in goal directed activity; however, once goal activity begins, the strength of the need tends to decrease as one engages in it. For example, as one eats more and more, the strength of the need for food declines for that particular time. At the point when another need becomes more potent than the present need, behaviour changes.

TOPIC-8

HIERARCHY OF NEEDS

Introduction

1. We have argued that the behaviour of an individual at a particular moment is usually determined by his strongest need. It would seem significant, therefore, for managers to have some understanding about the needs that are commonly most important to people.

2. An interesting framework that helps explain the strength of certain needs was developed by Abraham Maslow. According to Maslow, there seems to be a hierarchy into which human needs arrange themselves, as noted below :

Physiological Needs

3. The physiological needs are shown at the top of the hierarchy because they tend to have the highest strength until they are somewhat satisfied. These are the basic human needs to sustain life itself food, clothing, shelter. Until these basic needs are satisfied to the degree needed for the sufficient operation of the body, the majority of a person's activity will probably be at this level, and the other levels will provide him with little motivation.

Safety Needs

4. Once physiological needs become gratified to some extent the safety, or security needs become predominant. These needs are essentially the need to be free of the fear of physical danger and deprivation of the basic physiological needs. In other words, this is a need for self-preservation. In addition to the here and now, there is concern for the future. Will an individual be able to maintain his property and job so he can provide food and shelter tomorrow and the next day ? If a man's safety or security is in danger, other things seem unimportant.

Social Needs

5. Once physiological and safety needs are fairly well satisfied, social or affiliation will emerge as dominant in the needs structure. Since man is a social being, he has a need to belong and to be accepted by various groups. When social needs become dominant a person will strive for meaningful relations with others.

Esteem Needs

6. After an individual begins to satisfy his need to belong, he generally wants to be more than just a member of his group. He then feels the needs for esteem both self esteem and recognition from other. Most people have a need for a high evaluation of themselves that is firmly based in reality recognition and respect from others. Satisfaction of these esteem needs produces feelings of self confidence, prestige, power, and control. One begins to feel that he is useful and has some effect on his environment.

7. There are other occasions, though, when persons are unable to satisfy their need for esteem through constructive behaviour. When this need is dominant an individual may resort to disruptive or immature behaviour. To satisfy his desire for attention a child may throw a temper tantrum, an employee may engage in work restriction or arguments with his co-workers or boss. Thus, recognition is not always obtained through mature or adaptive behaviour. It is sometimes garnered by disruptive and irresponsible actions. In fact, some of the social problems we have today may have their roots in the frustration of esteem needs.

Self-Actualization Needs

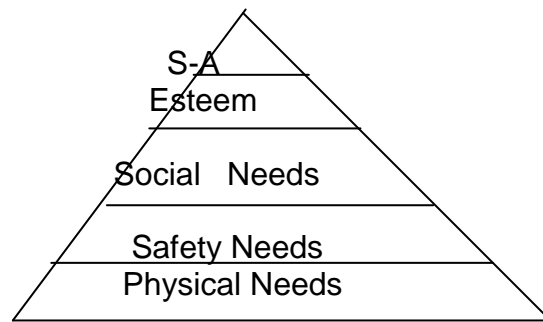
8. Once esteem needs begin to be adequately satisfied, the self-actualization needs become more proponent. Self-actualization is the need to maximize one's potential, whatever it may be; A musician must play music, a poet must write, a general must win battles, a professor must teach. As Maslow expressed it, "What a man can be, he must be." Thus self-actualization is the desire to become what one is capable of becoming. Individuals satisfy this need in different ways. In one person it may be expressed in the desire to be an ideal mother; in another it may be expressed in managing an organization; in another it may be expressed athletically; in still another, by playing the piano.

9. In combat, a soldier may put his life on the line and rush a machinegun nest in an attempt to destroy it, knowing full well that his chances for survival are low. He is not doing it for affiliation or recognition, but rather for what he thinks is important. In this case, you may consider the soldier to have self-actualized to be maximizing the potential of what is important to him.

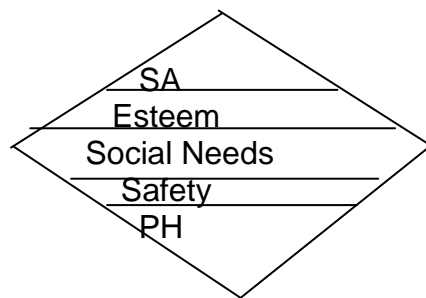
Need Mix

10. In discussing the preponderance of one category of need over another, we have been careful to speak in such terms as “if one level of needs has been somewhat gratified, then other needs emerge as dominant.” This was done because we did not want to the impression that one level of needs has to be completely satisfied before the next level emerges as the most important. In reality, most people in our society tend to be partially satisfied at each level and partially unsatisfied, with greater satisfaction tending to occur at the physiological and safety levels than at the social, esteem and self-actualization levels. For example, people in an emerging society where much of the behaviour engaged in tends to be directed toward satisfying physiological and safety needs still operate to some extent at other levels. Therefore Maslow’s hierarchy of needs is not intended to be an all or none framework, but rather one that may be useful in predicting behaviour on a high or a low probability

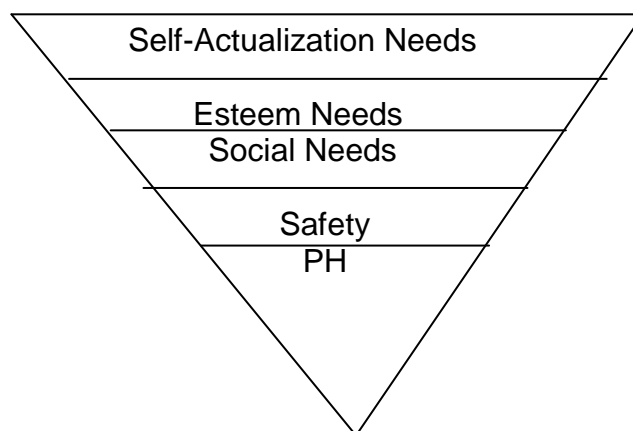
basis. Figure drawn below attempts to portray how people in an emerging nation may be categorized.



11. Many people in our own society at this time might be characterized by very strong social, or affiliation needs, relatively strong esteem and safety needs, with self-actualization and physiological needs somewhat less important, as shown in the following diagram.



12. Some people, however, can be characterized as having satisfied to a large extent the physiological, safety, and social needs, and their behaviour tends to be dominated by esteem and self actualizing activities, as shown below. This will tend to become more characteristic if standards of living and levels of education continue to rise.



TOPIC-9

MOTIVATOR –HYGIENE THEORY

1. The motivator-hygiene theory resulted from the analysis of an initial study by Herzberg and his colleagues at the Psychological Service of Pittsburgh. This study involved extensive interviews with some two hundred engineers and accountants from eleven industries in the Pittsburgh area. In the interviews, they were asked about what kinds of things on their job made them unhappy or dissatisfied and what things made them happy or satisfied.
2. In analyzing the data from these interviews, Herzberg concluded that man has two different categories of needs which are essentially independent of each other and affect behaviour in different ways. He found that when people self dissatisfied with their jobs, they were concerned about the environment in which they were working. On the other hand, when people felt good about their jobs, this had to do with the work itself. Herzberg called the first category of needs 'hygiene factors' because they describe man's environment and serve the primary function of preventing job dissatisfaction. He called the second category of needs 'motivators' since they seemed to be effective in motivating people to superior performance.
3. **Hygiene Factors.** Company policies and administration, supervision, working condition, interpersonal relations, money-status, and security may be thought of as hygiene factors. These are not an intrinsic part of a job, but they are related to the conditions under which a job is performed. Herzberg relates his use of the word "hygiene" to its medical meaning (preventative and environmental). Hygiene factors produce no growth in worker output capacity; they only prevent losses in worker performance due to work restriction.
4. **Motivators.** Satisfying factors that involve feelings of achievement, professional growth, and recognition that one can experience in a job that offers challenge and scope are referred to as motivators. Herzberg used this term because these factors seem capable of having a positive effect on job satisfaction often

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resulting in an increase in one's total output capacity. The two sets of factors can be listed as follows :

HYGIENE FACTORS	MOTIVATORS
Environment	The job itself
Policies and administration Supervision Working conditions Interpersonal relations Money, status, security	Achievement Recognition for accomplishment Challenging work Increased responsibility Growth and development

TOPIC-10**IMMATURITY-MATURITY THEORY**

1. Even though management has on the assumptions of Theory X is perhaps no longer appropriate, it is still widely practiced. Consequently, a large majority of the people today are treated as immature human beings in their working environments. It is this fact that has produced many of our current organizational problems. Chris Argyris examined industrial organizations to determine what effect management practices have had on individual behaviour and personal growth within the work environment.

2. According to Argyris, seven changes should take place in the personality of an individual if he is to develop into a mature person over the years. He postulates that these changes reside on a continuum and that the healthy personality develops along the continuum from immaturity to maturity. The continuum is shown below :

Immaturity -----Maturity	
Passive	Active
Dependence	Independence
Behave in a few ways	Capable of behaving in many ways
Erratic & shallow interests	Deeper and stronger interests
Short time perspective	Long time perspective (past and future)
Subordinate position	Equal or super-ordinate position
Lack of awareness	Awareness and control over self

3. These changes are only general tendencies, but they give light to the matter of maturity. Norms of the individual's culture and personality inhibit and limit maximum expression and growth of the adult, yet the tendency is to move toward the "maturity" and of the continuum with age, Argyris would be the first to admit that few, if any develop to full maturity.

4. In examining the widespread worker apathy and lack of effort, Argyris questions whether these problems are simply the result of individual laziness. He suggests that this is not the case. Argyris contends that, in many cases, when people join the work force, they are kept from maturing by the management practices utilized in their organizations. In these organizations, they are given minimal control over their environment and are encouraged to be passive, dependent, and subordinate; therefore, they behave immaturely. The worker in many organizations is expected to act in immature ways rather than as a mature adult.

TOPIC-11

CHANGING MATURITY THROUGH BEHAVIOUR MODIFICATION

1. In the normal work environment, managers often feel that either pressure or permissiveness is the only way to focus a subordinate on his task or change patterns of behaviour. Even when these methods prove unsuccessful, managers use them because they are unaware of better techniques. At one time, managers were too structured, rigid, and punishing. Now there seems to be a swing to the overly permissive, unstructured manager. Both these strategies when inappropriate have created problems. Another alternative is Behaviour Modification, which can accomplish the shifting of a leadership style to stimulate changes in maturity. To illustrate the difference between these three strategies high task, high relationships and behaviour modification we can compare how a manager using each might handle a potential problem worker.
2. Behaviour modification is based on observed behaviour and not internal unobserved feelings or attitudes. Its basic premise is that behavior is controlled by its immediate consequences. Behavior can be increased, suppressed, or decreased by what happened immediately after it occurs. If the consequence is positive, the probability of that behaviour occurring again increases.
3. Positive reinforcement is anything that is rewarding to the individual whose behaviour is being reinforced. For a desirable behaviour to be obtained, the slightest appropriate behaviour exhibited by the individual in that direction must be rewarded as soon as possible. This is called reinforcing positively successive approximations of a certain response. For example, when an individual's performance is low, one cannot expect drastic changes overnight, regardless of changes in expectations or reinforcers.
4. Similar to the child learning some new behaviour, we do not expect polished performance at the outset. So, as a parent, teacher, or supervisor we use positive reinforcement as the behavior approaches the desired level of performance. The manager must be aware of any progress of his subordinate, so that he will be in a position to reinforce this change appropriately.
5. This strategy is compatible with the concept of setting interim rather than final performance criteria and then reinforcing appropriate progress toward the final goal as interim goals are accomplished. In setting these goals it is important that they be programmed to be difficult but obtainable. So that the individual proceeds along a path of gradual and systematic development. Eventually he reaches the point of a polished performance.
6. The type of consequence an individual experiences as a result of his behaviour will determine the speed with which he approaches the final desired performance. Behaviour consequences can be either positive (money, praise, award, promotion), negative (scolding, fines, layoffs, embarrassment), or neutral.
7. An example of Behaviour modification in a hypothetical situation may be helpful. Suppose, for instance, a manager reprimands Ali, one of his subordinates, for sloppy work, rather than giving him usual praise. If Ali becomes just anxious enough to find out what he did wrong, and then he does it right to get his boss' praise, the unpleasantness of the reprimand can be seen to have operated as positive punishment. In this case, when the boss punished him, Ali immediately stopped his sloppy work and began to work more carefully. The disruption of an activity is produced by punishment such as a reprimand. When Ali responded to this reprimand by working carefully, the manager was given a change to use positive reinforcement once again. By praising Ali he now increased the probability of Ali's working carefully in the future.

8. Let us imagine that Ali's supervisor is less understanding. Suppose that instead of giving a reprimand to Ali for sloppy work, he fines him Tk.100 for such behaviour. Immediately Ali settles down, figures out what is wrong, and begins working carefully. The boss notices this and says, "If you don't continue working carefully, you will be fired. " Now Ali is nervous. He doesn't want to be fired, so he is very careful. When the boss fined Ali, he used negative punishment by removing something positive (Tk-100) from Ali, Notice that Ali's sloppy performance was disrupted sloppiness became suppressed. Then, the supervisor instituted negative reinforcement in the fear of a threat. The threat of job loss is removed only so long as Ali works neatly; therefore, Ali's neat working behaviour increases in frequency.

9. The important thing to notice is the basic difference between reinforcement and punishment. Reinforcement as a behavioural consequence results in an increase in the rewarded behaviour in the future. Punishment merely disrupts or suppresses ongoing behaviour. It has neither a lasting nor a sure effect on future behaviour.

10. Finally, let us consider the role of withholding an expected consequence after behaviour occurs (This is sometimes called Extinction because it gets rid of a behaviour) Imagine that Ali has adjusted pretty well to his setting. He works carefully and neatly, because that is what pays off. But suddenly, the boss stops rewarding him for neat work. Ali goes for may be a week, may be two weeks working neatly with no reward. He may not be able to tell us what is different, but gradually his behaviour gives us a clue. He soon begins to try other behaviours. He becomes less careful and neat. If the former consequences of punishment are also withheld, we see that within days he has reverted to his earlier behaviour pattern. In essence, neatness and carefulness have extinguished.

11. People seldom continue to do things that do not provide positive reinforcement. This is even true sometimes when they are behaving well as in Ali's case. Parents often get into this bind when they tend to pay attention to their kids only when they are behaving poorly. When the children are behaving appropriately, they may pay little or no attention to them, which in a sense puts that behaviour on extinction. If a child wants attention from his parents (it is rewarding to him), he may be willing to endure what the parent thinks is punishment for that attention. So, in the long run, the parents might be reinforcing the very behaviour they do not want and extinguishing mere appropriate behaviour.

12. An additional aspect of extinction, which illustrates its impact on stable behaviour, is emotional in nature. We could predict with an excellent chance of being correct, that Ali will likely become surely, he may complain more than before, or he may have problems getting along with his co-workers. Emotional behaviour usually accompanies extinction in performance when expected reinforcement or former consequence of punishment are withheld.

13. A leader or manager has to be careful in using punishment. He does not always know what a person will do when he is punished. One person, like Ali, may shape up. Another may become completely incompetent. Furthermore, the use of withholding is uncertain. Among the thousands of potentially dangerous emotional behaviours a person can engage in, it would be just your luck to touch off an extremely disruptive episode. Lying, manipulation, and other kinds of undesirable behaviour may be resorted to by a person seeking to avoid punishment. If the supervisor is unobservant, he could actually be reinforcing these rather than behaviours he considers important.

14. Behaviour modification is a useful tool for supervisors because it can be applied in most environments. Although it may involve a reassessment of traditionally used methods for obtaining compliance and co-operation, it has relevance for persons interested in accomplishing objectives through other people.

TOPIC-12**DIMENSIONS OF LEADERSHIP**

1. The leadership studies initiated in 1945 by the Bureau of Business Research at Ohio State University attempted to identify various dimensions of leader behaviour. The staff, defining leadership as the behavior of an individual when he is directing the activities of a group toward a goal attainment, eventually narrowed the description of leader behavior to two dimensions: Initiating Structure and Consideration. Initiating Structure refers to "the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself and members of the work-group and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure." On the other hand, consideration refers to "behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of his staff."

2. In studying leader behavior the Ohio State Staff found that Initiating Structure and Consideration were separate and distinct dimensions. High on one dimension does not necessitate being low on the other. The behavior of a leader could be described as any mix of both dimensions. Thus it was during these studies that leader behavior was first plotted on two separate axes rather than on a single continuum. Four quadrants were developed to show various combinations of Initiating Structure (task behavior) and Consideration (relationships behavior), as shown in the following illustration.

High Relationship Low Task	High Relationship High Task
Low Relationship Low Task	Low Relationship High Task

Structure (Task Behavior)

3. The leader personality, or style, of an individual is the behavior pattern he exhibits when he is involved in directing the activities of others. The pattern generally involves either tasks behavior or relationships behavior or some combination of both. The two types of behavior, task and relationships, which are central to the concept of leader personality, are defined as follows :

- a. **Task Behavior.** The extent to which a leader is likely to organize and define the roles of the members of his group to explain what activities each is to do and when, where, and how tasks are to be accomplished; characterized by endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting jobs accomplished.

- b. **Relationship Behavior.** The extent to which a leader is likely to maintain personal relationships between himself and the members of his group by opening up channels of communication, delegating responsibility, giving subordinates an opportunity to use their potential; characterized by socio-emotional support, friendship, and mutual trust.

TOPIC-13

LEADERSHIP STYLES

Introduction

1. Each person has an individual style of leadership. Each style can be seen as one of the following types: authoritarian, democratic, or free-rein. We will discuss these three so-called leadership styles in some details.

Authoritarian Leadership

2. **Characteristics.** The authoritarian leader delegates no authority. He makes decisions himself and is usually iron-fisted and inflexible. He structures the complete working situation for his followers and allows little or no participation in the thinking by subordinates. They are to do what they are told and nothing more. The leader exercises full authority and takes full responsibility for everything that goes on in his organization. He uses his own solutions to satisfy employee needs, rather than group decisions and maintains very tight control of his subordinates often fostering fear and insecurity in order to get them to maintain organizational standards. At times he punishes subordinates who make decisions and thereby encourages dependency and discourages new ideas. In his attempts to do this, he often stifles communication among group members. The leader becomes the focal point of the group and thus destroys lines of communication between subordinates.

3. **Strengths.** Authoritarian leadership is very effective in combat situations where stringent security measures and immediate reaction to orders is necessary. In this type of situation, authoritarian, control is the most efficient, time-saving, and secure method for directing an organization. Subordinates who have a well developed sense of mission understand the necessity for it and willingly accept authoritarian methods. This leadership style is very effective when time is a major factor in making decisions. It is used to make quick, on the spot decisions without the necessity of calling his peoples together to discuss the situation and come up with suggestions.

4. **Weaknesses.** In a military situation, the authoritarian leader can function very effectively for short periods of time. This time period may be extended if there is a good reason and the reasons are recognized and accepted by the followers. Conversely, during peace time and when there is no apparent reason for handling people with this style of leadership, a more democratic approach is usually more effective. Generally people respond better when they have a chance to participate in decisions. The authoritarian style of leadership has other weaknesses in that most organizations that employ this style extensively tend to collapse when the leader is absent because he has not delegated his authority, developed his personnel, or kept his people informed. As a result, morale is often low and people generally do only what they are required. Suggestions are not encouraged, creativity is usually stifled, and the leader does not accept change. A lot of good talent and ideas are wasted in an organization that is predominantly authoritarian.

Democratic Leadership

5. **Characteristics.** The authoritarian leader uses his own ideas and ability to run his organization. The democratic leader magnifies his own abilities through his followers. Democratic leadership does not decentralize managerial authority; the leader's decisions arise from consulting with his followers, but the decisions are his and his alone. The followers have a part in arriving at decisions which affect both personnel and organization policy. Under this type of leadership, the subordinates are kept informed and are encouraged to submit ideas and make suggestions. Whereas the authoritarian leader keeps full control of his authority, the democratic leader exercises control by delegating his authority and using the forces within the group for the betterment of the organization.

6. **Strengths.** The strength in the democratic organization is the strength of the group as a whole. People are usually better informed and they know that their leader encourages them to make suggestions and contribute their ideas. Most people prefer working under this style of leadership. The democratic leader develops his people, thus when the leader is away, his organization tends to operate normally. The people know what to do because they have been well trained and have participated in developing the organization. If everything runs smoothly without the presence of the leader he has done an effective job in developing his subordinates. In the long run the democratic leader has higher morale and high productivity in his organization.

7. **Weakness.** Democratic leadership takes time to arrive at group decisions, and there are always certain individuals who won't respond to this style. Some leaders start off by employing this style of leadership; but, soon find themselves afraid to make a decision on their own. They resort to conferences every time a problem comes up, so that their people can make the decision. In this manner the leader is always hiding behind the decisions of subordinates. When used as a crutch, rather than as a tool, democratic leadership becomes a method of shirking responsibility or "passing the buck."

Free-rein Leadership

8. **Characteristics.** The free –rein leader primarily depends upon subordinates to establish goals and work out problems. Group members are also responsible for their training and motivation. The leader acts as a contact man with outside persons in order to bring his group the information and resources needed to accomplish the mission.

9. **Strengths.** This style of leadership is very effective in certain situations. In supervising several men who are top producers and who are self-directed without close control the free rein approach usually obtains the best results. This style often gets good results in a creative atmosphere where people with specialized talents and creative skills are allowed to work at their own pace. Many individuals when tightly controlled, produce less work or work of poorer quality than when left to themselves. Many of our greatest scientists, scholars, doctors, artists, musicians, writers and engineers have produced their best work at times when they were completely free of control. This style also becomes necessary when the group is too large or spread over a large area.

10. **Weakness.** Unfortunately, many of the free-rein leaders who we see in operation today are not free rein because they are afraid that their people, having individual differences might perform too well under this style of management. Some use the free-reign approach because they find it easier. They don't have to worry about motivating their people, conducting meetings and conferences, etc. They also don't have to spend as much time in planning, organizing, etc. However, they usually get their reward of confusion and chaos. The leader who fails to provide his people with motivation and clearly defined goals is often asking for trouble.

Factors Influencing Styles Of Leadership

11. The style of leadership will vary with the situation as well as the individual differences of subordinates. The following factors will influence the choice of style :

- a. Time Available.
- b. Experience of Followers.
- c. Familiarity with Situation.
- d. Acceptance of Followers.

12. **The Time Available to Accomplish a Certain Job.** Time is an important factor in determining what style of leadership should be used. As a leader, you have to be realistic and use common sense in determining which style is best for the situation. It would be foolish to call a conference to determine whether or not a man who is bleeding to death should be sent to the hospital. It would be just as ridiculous to make a snap or authoritarian decision to double the wing flying commitment without first determining if adequate time and equipment are available to support the load.

13. **The Experience, Age, and Training of Followers.** Generally older, more experienced, and capable men such as higher ranking NCOs resent tightly controlled, iron-fisted supervision (especially from inexperienced junior officers). They do, however, enjoy working for a boss who allows them to share their background and experience to help make improvements in the organization. With these individuals, the democratic and sometimes even the free-rein approach is usually preferred. However, there will always be someone who is the exception to the rule, who will only do his job well if he is handled in an authoritarian manner.

14. **Your Familiarity With the Situation.** When the new officer arrives in the field, he is usually not familiar with everything that is going on. From his background he has learned something but he does not have sufficient knowledge to jump right in and immediately start employing authoritarian methods. He usually does better by starting with the democratic or free-rein approach. Later on as he learns more about the job he may select the style that he finds most effective.

15. **The Degree of Acceptance of the Mission by the Followers.** When men readily accept responsibility and are reasonably satisfied with the mission, they generally perform best under the democratic style of leadership. Occasionally, an individual is dissatisfied and methods of positive motivation should first be employed to get the individual on the right track. This may take the form of counseling session. If this doesn't work, authoritarian methods should be applied. If this ends in failure, more severe means of handling the individual should be considered.

Conclusion

16. Of the three leadership styles, democratic leadership has the maximum potential for achieving maximum productivity and job satisfaction. However, in certain situations the authoritarian and free-rein approaches have advantages. The flexible leader will most likely use all three approaches in a single day when faced with different situations. A leader's main goal should be to get familiar with his people and to know what style to use with each. He should also have a good feel for which style to use when directing the group as a whole. When a leader is aware of individual differences and also knows how his group responds as a whole, he is well on his way toward successful leadership. Of course, there are other factors that may influence one's style of leadership.

TOPIC-14

SKILLS OF A LEADER

1. **Introduction.** Previously we mentioned that a leader should constantly strive toward self-improvement and work toward refining his skills. A skill may be defined as “the ability to translate knowledge into action.” A leader does not really possess a skill unless he uses it. The military officer should be concerned with developing certain basic skills, to satisfactorily perform his job. These skills are : technical, human and conceptual. In practice they are inter-related, but for instructional purposes, we will consider them separately.

2. **Technical Skill.** This skill is defined as the ability to use knowledge, methods, techniques and equipment necessary for the performance of tasks. Throughout your career you have been learning many technical skills. At times you have probably felt that if you were to be a manager, why must you learn a lot of technical details? You have a point, your main job is to manage, and it is more important that you manage effectively and not know all of the technical niceties. However, you will be more effective as a leader in you have a good common core of knowledge with your men and understand them when they describe a particular malfunction. You will also save yourself a great deal of embarrassment when asked to inspect aircraft forms for errors if you know when they are filled out properly, Chances are that you may never be required to use much of the technical knowledge that you have learned; however, being familiar with it will give more insight into the mission from the men’s point of view.

3. **Human Skill.** This skill is defined as the ability and the judgement in working with and through people, including an understanding of motivation and an application of effective leadership. You have been working at developing the human skill all of your life; almost everyone has. But isn’t it funny that some people never learn to use it properly ? The leader who develops the human skill has the ability to interact effectively with people and build teamwork. If a person never develops the human skill he may hold a leadership position but will never earn the respect of his subordinates.

4. **Conceptional Skill.** This skill is defined as the ability to understand the complexities of the overall organization and where one’s own operation fits into the whole system. This skill enables the manager to see overall relationship in his organization and to utilize these relationship in creative thinking. Conceptual skill deals with ideas, whereas the technical skill deals with things, and the human skill is concerned with people. Conceptual skill helps the manager to set up plans, devise models, and to see their relationships among the various working groups. The manager who applies conceptual skill is in a much better position to apply his human skill.

5. **Skill Mix.** The appropriate mix of these three skills varies as an officer advances in his career from supervisory to top management positions. To be effective, less technical skill tends to be needed as one advances from lower to higher levels. Managers at supervisory levels need considerable technical skill because they are to guide and develop operators. At the other extreme, top managers do not need to know how to do all the specific tasks at the operational level. While the technical and conceptual skills needed at different levels of management varies, the common denominator that appears to be crucial at all levels is human skill. This illustrated in the following diagram.

Top Management Level	Tech Skill	Human Skill	Conceptual Skill
Middle Management Level	Technical Skill	Human Skill	Conceptual Skill
Supervisory Management Level	Technical Skill	Human Skill	Conc Skill

6. **Conclusion.** As the officer moves up in higher positions of management and authority, he must be able to apply this conceptual skill to a much higher degree. This is necessary because he will be dealing with long-range plans and broad relationships. Various studies conducted in civilian organizations, for example, have reported that successful higher level managers definitely scored better than lower level managers on tests designed to measure ability to work with concepts and human relations problems. In this same respect, higher level managers who failed, usually failed primarily because they were unable to apply conceptual skill. Analysis of this type may help to explain why an outstanding OIC of a Flt may make a poor OC of a Wing or a Base. Different functions and different levels of management often require different combinations of leadership skills. The different needs and different skill mixes should be a warning to all leaders not to try to force all people into a stereotyped skill pattern. In reality, the technical skills are most important for the men at the lowest level; and the conceptual skill becomes increasingly more important to higher levels managers.

TOPIC-15

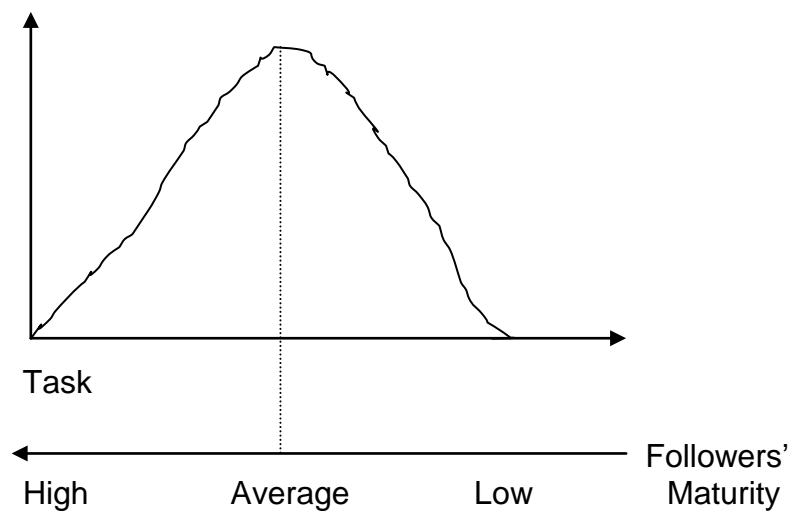
LIFE CYCLE THEORY OF LEADERSHIP

Life Cycle Theory

1. Hersey and Blanchard developed a model of leadership effectiveness that attempts to relate the maturity of the subordinate and the prescribed leader behaviors. As in the earlier theory, the important leader behaviors are defined by the two Ohio State dimensions of task and relationship.

2. Hersey and Blanchard hold that leaders must modify their behaviors as the maturity of their group changes. By maturity is meant the group's capacity to set high and attainable goals, the group members' willingness and ability to assume responsibility for their actions and group's training or level of experience. Although the authors do not prescribe how to operationalise these maturity dimensions, life cycle theory predicts a curvilinear relationship between group maturity and appropriateness of the leader's behavior. As can be seen in the figure, with an immature group (perhaps a newly formed one with little or no training, which shows an unwillingness to assume responsibilities and an incapacity to set its own goals), the appropriate behavior of the leader is to be very directive and authoritarian with very little concern for interpersonal maintenance. As the group begins to learn its job and mature along the listed dimensions it is hypothesized that the leaders just maintain their concern with the task but must also begin to increase considerate behaviors. As maturity increases even further, the need for both structure (tasks behavior) and consideration (relationship behavior) decreases until, when the group is fully mature, the need for both in theory, subsides completely.

3. In this last case, the leader's function is primarily that of a linking pin, a point of contact between echelons, planning future group activities and coordinating with various outside agencies or peers in order to facilitate the smooth functioning of the group. Such organizational phenomenon as personnel turnover, a reorganization or a change of mission may, of course, reduce the group's maturity again requiring leader-specific action.



TOPIC-16

NETWORK ANALYSIS

Introduction

1. All manager have something in common, whatever their jobs and wherever they are employed. They all have to plan and run projects in their work. That's why it is worth looking at a technique for actually handling projects, one which has considerable advantages over the old rule-or-thumb methods. Sometimes it is called CPA, PERT or Project Network Analysis.

2. Critical path analysis can be applied to any kind of project, that is, any combination of jobs with a definable start and a definable finish. In essence, what it does is provide a network of the project, showing the jobs that have to be done and the order in which they should be done. Other information can be added too, like timing and costs and who would do what. That why, when we come to look at the project as a whole, the network shows a complete picture of what we plan to do.

3. In particular, the network shows the sequence of jobs which determines the shortest time needed to complete the project, the really critical jobs where any delay means the whole project is delayed. this sequence or path of jobs is called the Critical Path. When fully applied, the technique offers five distinct benefits which result in considerable savings of time and money. They occur in the following areas :

a. **Planning.** The first benefit at the very beginning, when we sit down to plan the jobs that need to be done and the order in which they should be done. The very act of drawing the network means that each new step must be a logical progression from the last; and this means that any illogical thinking will show up right away, rather than as expensive mistakes later on.

b. **Scheduling.** Having drawn the network we go on to estimate a time for each job in the project. From this, we can work out a time for the project as a whole. More important, we shall identify the jobs where there is time to spare, and those, the really critical jobs, where any delay means the whole project is delayed.

c. **Allocating Resources.** Resources are a factor in any project, whether they are expendable, like money and materials, or reusable, like men and machinery. Knowing what spare time we have enables us to work out the most economical allocation of resources; and that's an ingredient in any good plan.

d. **Controlling.** The fourth benefit occurs when we translate the plan into action. That's when the control function comes into play. It's made a whole lot easier when we can check our progress against a network, the overall picture of the project. In the same way, by recording our actual costs against our planned costs as we move along the network, we can compare the variances at any point in time.

e. **Communicating.** Finally, there is the biggest benefit of all better communication. The network is a picture of the complete project. It gives-clearly and concisely the information that every one needs. Everyone knows the part he has to play and how that part interacts with others.

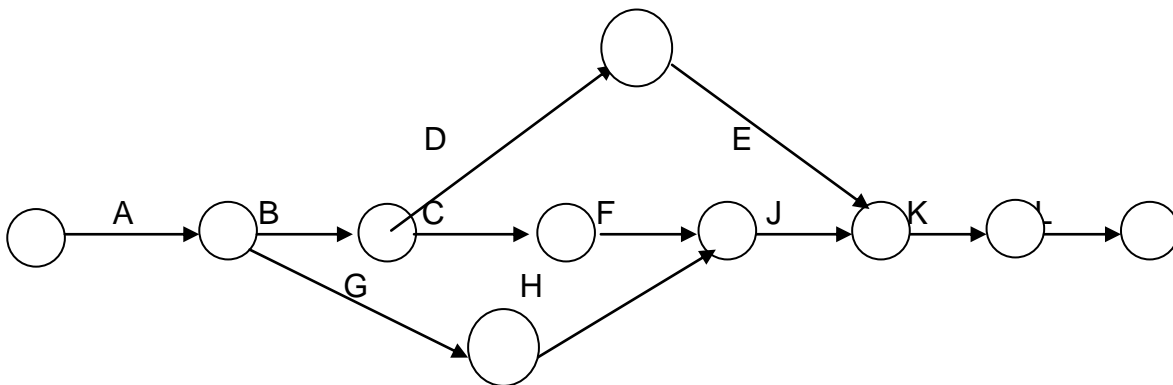
Developing a Network

4. Following steps are necessary to develop a network :

- a. Identify and list all distinctive parts of a project. the parts are termed 'activities'.
- b. Find out and indicate which activities depend on completion of which other activities. Completion of activities are termed 'events'.
- c. Draw the network using an arrow for an 'activity' and a circle for an 'event'.

5. To illustrate these steps we will develop a network of a project called 'going to the office'. This familiar project involves following activities : you get up from bed and wake up wife; she wakes up servant, prepares and serves breakfast; servant irons uniform; you shave, ;shower dress up, eat and drive to office. the network of this project is drawn here after listing the activities and showing their dependencies.

Code	Activities	Depends on
A	Get up	-
B	Wake up wife	A
C	Wake up servant	B
D	Prepare breakfast	B
E	Serve breakfast	D
F	Iron uniform	C
G	Shave	A
H	Shower	G
J	Dress up	F, H
K	Eat	E, J
L	Drive to office	K



Analysing the Critical Path

6. Determining the critical path of a project is nothing but finding out a series of 'activities' that will take longest time to complete. Following steps are required for the analysis :

- a. Find out time required to complete each 'activity'.
- b. Point out one link or 'activities' that add up to the longest time.

7. To illustrate these two steps we will assume that the time required to complete the all 'activities' of our project are given (in minutes) as follows : A-1, B-1, C-1, D-10, E-2, F-3, G-3, H-4, J-3, K-5 and L-6. The network has three links or paths; they are ABCFJKL, ABDEKL, and AGHJKL. These three paths require 20, 25 and 22 minutes respectively. The second path ----ABDEKL--is therefore the critical path.

ILLUSTRATIONS :**Go to CSTI**

	Activities	Depends on	
A	Wake-up	Nothing	-
B	Pack Bag	Waking	(A)
C	Polish Shoe	Waking	(A)
D	Eat	Waking	(A)
E	Dress-up	Polishing	(C)
F	Drive	Packing, Eating & Dressing	(B,D,E)

BUILD NEST

A	Buy Land	-
B	Design	A
C	Lay Foundation	B
D	Obtain Loan	B
E	Make Wall	C
F	Cast Roof	D,E
G	Do Finishing	F
H	Wall up	F
J	Make in	GH

REPLACE FLAT

A	Bring Tool	-
B	Bring Spare	-
C	Jack Up	A
D	Remove Flat	C
E	Fit Spare	BD
F	Jack Down	E
G	Store Flat	D
H	Store Tool	F
J	Drive on	GH

Task 1

3A -

4B -

2 C A

5 D A

3 E BC

2F DE

6G BC

2H GF

Task 2

1A -

2B A

5C A

6D A

2E B

1E E

3G DF

5HC

1J GH

Task 3

1A -

2B -

3C -

2DA

1EB

4F C

2G F

1H DEF

2G H

1K GJ

Task 4

1A -

2 B A

3CA

1DB

2EB

3FC

5G CD

4H E

3J F

2K EG

TOPIC-17

COMMENTS ON LEADERSHIP

A Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness

1. A contingency model of leadership effectiveness attempts to combine elements of both trait and situational theories. Accordingly to this model, developed by Fred Fielder, certain elements of a leadership situation moderate the effectiveness of certain leadership traits. To put it in another way, the relative effectiveness of leadership traits is determined by how favourable the situation is for the leader.

Elements of the Situation

2. The contingency model states that there are three elements of situation which determine the favourableness of the situation for the leader; leader-member relations, task structure and position power of the leader.

3. **Leader-Member Relations.** Whether the leader's relations with the rest of the group are good or bad is considered by key element in determining how favourable a situation is for the leader. If he gets along well with the group, if they hold him in high regard, if he is accepted as the leader, then this element of the situation is quite favourable for the leader. If he does not get along with the group, is not held in high regard or is not accepted, then this element of the situation is unfavourable. It is argued that a well-liked and respected leader can exert influence over the group far beyond the extent of his legitimate, reward and coercive power.

4. **Task Structure.** The more a task is structured, the more favourable is the situation for the leader; it becomes relatively easy for the leader to determine what should be done, by whom and for what purpose. There are four characteristics of structured tasks :

- a. Decisions about the tasks can be evaluated objectively.
- b. The goal is clearly understood by the group.
- c. There are few, rather than many, ways to accomplish the task.
- d. There are few, rather than many, correct solutions to the problems.

5. **Position Power of the Leader.** The leader's position power consists of four of the five basic types of power discussed earlier-legitimate, expert, reward and coercive (the exception is referent power). A position such as that of an infantry battalion commander in combat carries a great deal of authority, reward and co-ercive power. Such a position, which would be labelled strong in terms of the model, is considered very favourable for the leader. A position such as that of the welfare officer would be labelled weak in terms of the model. It has little authority and less reward and coercive power over the other personnel on whom the leader must relay. This kind of position would be relatively unfavourable for the leader.

6. **Overall Favourableness of the Situation.** The combination of these three elements determines the favourableness of the situation for the leader. The model describes eight different situations which range from very favourable to very unfavourable for the leader. A very favourable situation would be one in which the relationships between situation with the leader and the rest of the group are good, the task is structured and the leader's position power is strong. An example of such a situation would be a well-respected commander of a fighter Squadron where the tasks (carrying commitments) are structured and the CO's authority, reward and coercive power are all strong. A very unfavourable situation would be one in which the relationship between the leader and the rest of the group is poor, the task is unstructured and the leader's position power is weak. An example of such an unfavourable situation would be an unpopular PMC of Officers's Mess.

The Leader's Traits

7. The key aspect in this contingency model, traits of the leader himself, is measured by a questionnaire which asks the leader to describe his least preferred co-workers(LPC). The description includes such dimensions as co-operative V unco-operative, friendly V unfriendly, self-assured V hesitant and inter-rested V board. Some leaders describe their least preferred co-workers in very negative terms (low LPC); others describe them in both good and bad terms (high LPCs). Research suggests that high-LPC leaders are concerned with maintaining good relationships in the, work situation and seek status and esteem. High LPC leaders are described as more cognitively complex than low-LPC leaders, whose basic goal is to accomplish the task. High LPC leaders show great variability in their behavior as the situation changes.

Group Effectiveness

8. The final component of the contingency model is the relative effectiveness of the group. The effectiveness criterion perse depends on the group's task. Some that have been used are the bombing range score of B-52 crews, the won-lost records of basket ball teams, the work output of BRD sales and inventory control of canteens and ratings on a variety of decision-making and problem solving group tasks.

Validity of the Model

9. The contingency model predicts that leaders with certain traits will be relatively more effective than other leaders in certain situations. The evidence obtained through various studies suggests this might be true. In some kinds of situations (very favourable for the leader), groups with low LPC leaders are more effective than groups with high-LPC leaders. In other situations (moderately favorable for the leader), the reverse is true; groups with high LPC leaders appear to be more effective.

10. Field studies of the model generally support the proposition that the relationship between the leadership styles and group effectiveness is moderated by the favourableness of the situation for the leader. Although the model is an extremely promising vehicle for resolving much of the confusion over leadership effectiveness, there is a need for further research.

Conclusion

11. The various theories described so far show a progression in our understanding about leading. Part of the complexity in studying leadership lies in the psychological implications of both leaders and followers. Since human behavior tends to be stable over time, distinct style of leadership appears to be part of one's personality. However, as Fielder's model revealed, effectiveness of a particular style of leadership depends on the environment and specific situations. Also behavior modification for the purpose of using a leadership style appropriate to a situation is possible. Awareness to subordinate and organization training and self discipline will prepare an individual as a successful leader.

12. In BAF, leadership is a very complex, challenging and deals with a variety of groups-officers, airmen and civilians staff. Among officers and men there are various sub-groups and members of each group have their own perceptions about tasks and commitments. An individual sense of usefulness to organization, the importance of his job and his own future prospects do affect his work, whosoever is the leader.

13. Secondly, there are war-time activities which differ from peace-time activities. Peace-time tasks are generally procedure bound, structured and provide stable levels of motivations. War time activities are goal-oriented with less emphasis on structure and procedures. The motivation levels fluctuate varying from low to high depending on the progress of operations. Keeping the past experiences in mind we can presume that war-like periods are very brief and few and far between. Thus we do find that the BAF, like any Govt organisation operates on well established procedures, rules and conventions.

14. Still, leadership styles does affect the functioning of the Units and stations to a great extent. It is because of the vast power that is vested with the Commander, through which he can influence the task-orientations of the Units under him considerably. The limitations to performance are mainly his ability, his own motivation, his style of functioning and the support he receives from his superiors.

15. Leadership at all levels can be effective by placing officers of right caliber through objective selection and training procedures. Conducive organizational environment will enhance their performance as leaders.

TOPIC-18

LEADERSHIP IN AIR FORCE

Introduction

1. The Air Force defines leadership as the “art of influencing and directing people in a way that will win their obedience, confidence, respect, and loyal cooperation in achieving a common objective.” This definition is necessarily broad, because it was designed to be valid for every Air Force leader ranging from the junior non-commissioned officer up to the senior commander. Your own definition may differ in the choice of words, but if valid, it should include the need for influencing people to achieve a common objective.

2. By analyzing certain words and phrases in the Air Force definition. We can gain a better understanding of Air Force leadership. In every situation, you must seek out the ways and means of influencing others to secure best results with what is available. Everyday, in hundreds of ways, you can influence others towards greater accomplishments. You may be in command or you may only serve as an example to others, but your actions, dedication, and position attitude can influence others to do their job better than even they thought possible. It is your responsibility, to direct as well as influence your men.

3. Leadership should operate “ in a way that will win their obedience, confidence, respect and loyal cooperation”. These words simply mean that you must make an effort to obtain these reactions. Leadership just doesn’t automatically happen.’ In the process of leading, the first prerequisite is to understand men both individually and in groups. Why do men obey ? Is it through habit or through fear ? How are confidence and respect created ? Are they purchased by reward or are they created by a reaction to the leader himself, his qualities, competence, and capabilities ? the answer is that action here is two way. The key to effective leadership and mission accomplishment lies primarily in understanding your men and in your ability to apply this understanding to a given situation. However, it also lies in your men’s recognition of your desirable qualities and abilities, and in your control of your less desirable qualities.

4. The phrase “achieving a common objective” identifies the goal of leadership: mission accomplishment. The common objective is not the goal of any one man, but of many men working together as a team. The leader should be mission-minded if he wants his men to possess this same desirable quality. However, his responsibility does not end here. He must have the necessary influence and communicative skills to express and interpret the mission clearly so that it can be understood and accepted by his followers.

5. The Air Force definition states that leadership is an art. It is also a skill which may be acquired through experience, study, and observation. The alert leader can develop this skill by being sensitive to everything that is going on around him and by sharpening his powers of observation. By observing, he is able to learn about the human personality, principles of organization, controlling techniques, and communicative skills.

6. Leadership must be recognized as the key to mission accomplishment. It is the means of welding men and material resources together into action. It has been accurately stated that despite all our push-button technology, it is still the man that counts, not the button. You can't design a circuit to take the place of courage. You can't enclose dedication to freedom in a magic black box. No matrix of tubes and wires can give us leadership. As an officer you have certain obligations, and you hold a position of great authority and responsibility.

7. As a leader, your men are always looking to you for counsel and advice. They also expect you to be an example to them and to display certain desirable qualities. Among these are integrity of character, sense of responsibility, professional competence, enthusiasm, emotional stability, human relations attitude, self confidence, and pride in personal appearance.

Integrity of Character

8. A leader who believes in and follows an accepted morale code earns the respect of his men. It is best expressed in such terms as morale soundness, trustworthiness, dependability, honesty, loyalty, and courage (both mental and physical). These traits have always been recognized by society as desirable characteristics that merit allegiance, respect, and confidence. Men are constantly searching for the security offered by leaders possessing such traits. A man of integrity is consistent, and his people know what he expects. Honor, moral soundness, and courage enable the leader to uphold the principles that he believes to be right and to go forward unhesitatingly in the face of all disorder. Honesty, trustworthiness, and dependability are characteristics that are expected and required of those who lead.

Sense of Responsibility

9. Responsibility is the driving or motivating force within the leader that gives him the awareness to recognize, and do, what must be done. It enables him to stay with a task until it is completed. It impels him to accept his assignments, whether pleasant or unpleasant, large or small, with a minimum of griping. The leader who possesses a sense of responsibility realizes the need for decisiveness. He uses his best judgement and good command sense in arriving at timely and logical decisions. This is truly a basic trait of all good leaders.

Professional Competence

10. It is essential that the maintenance officer know his job or his men will not look up to him as a leader. He will be considered as the "boss" only because of his position; remember that subordinates seldom respect the leader who constantly relies on others to make his decisions. Subordinates usually have patience with newly assigned leaders, but they quickly lose faith in a leader who fails to learn his job within a reasonable period of time. A leader, you should make every effort to maintain proficiency in your specific job or field of endeavor. Failure to keep current invites loss of confidence on the part of the men. However, if you don't know something, always find out. Although experience does help, a leader should not limit his training to on-the-job situations, but should also study at home and talk to others so that he can do a better job now and in the future.

Enthusiasm

11. A leader's attitude is transferred to his men, therefore, it is very important that the leader possess genuine enthusiasm. Interest and sincerity in a leader generates diligence, perseverance, and aggressiveness in his men. Enthusiasm is contagious and is one of the most desirable qualities of leadership. Success is often directly proportional to enthusiasm.

Emotional Stability

12. Emotional stability, self-control resulting from emotional maturity, is a necessity for the leader. Instability places the leader in a precarious position with regard to his men. Faulty decisions, improper treatment of men, and loss of leadership can result if a leader is not in complete control of himself at all times. Therefore, an officer must understand his own personality, develop endurance and train himself so that he is able to face new and difficult situations calmly. The leader who is disturbed or upset by every minor difficulty can hardly be expected to face major crises with calmness. As a leader you should think positively of all the ways in which you can improve. You must guide your men by example.

Human Relations Attitude

13. Human relations is an essential management area for the skilled leaders of today. Men are human beings not just airmen or sergeants, therefore, treat these people with dignity. You should not have a bleeding heart” for your men, but rather an intelligent and sincere regard for them as fellow human beings . Do your best for your men an they will trust you as a leader.

Self-Confidence

14. Self-confidence,faith in one’s self, gives a leader the inner strength to overcome obstacles. Self-confidence is quickly sensed by your men and reinforces their own confidence. A confident leader has pride and poise, and can make decisions quickly.

Pride in Personal Appearance

15. Many officers forget what they learned in regard to personal appearances. As soon as they get deeply involved in their primary disciplines some people tend to forget about the importance of good grooming. A common occurrence is a disregard for physical condition. Sometimes decreased productivity goes along with this and there is a tendency to tire easily. Physical fitness experts say that a person in good physical condition adds about three additional hours of productivity to his normal work day and feels better. People are happier and more productive when their bodies are in good condition. The officer who is neat in personal appearance and is in good physical condition sets a good example for his men, which is the most effective form of leadership.

TOPIC-19

MORALE IN AIR FORCE

Introduction

1. "Never under estimate the power of morale." One of the surest signs of a deteriorating organization may be wrapped up in to little words- "low morale," in its more sinister forms, low morale may be seen in the form of low productivity, numerous grievances, tardiness, absenteeism, accidents, etc. "High morale," on the other hand, lifts up the hearts of the people and inspires men to do greater things.

2. Though there are probably a great many different definitions of morale, most managers are practical and consistent in their definitions of morale; and probably their hunch is better than theories. When they refer to morale they usually mean the "attitudes of individuals and groups toward their working environment." Major emphasis from the manager's point of view should still be placed upon the ideas that men should do good work, rather than just receive contentment.

3. In peace time, high morale may be marked by cheerfulness, not by hilarity or exuberance of spirit necessarily, but by confidence and willingness to accept duty and performing it without inward hostility. This should be true of unpleasant duties also. In an airman is detailed to extra duty and creep about his tough luck, but pulls the duty without further complaining, we can still say that his morale is high. If on the other hand, he curses not his luck but someone whom he personally blames for his misfortune and rages against the cause that robbed him of his all-too-little free time; his morale is low. He is doing his work not because of the spirit of teamwork or responsibility, but because he feels that a worse vengeance may be wrought upon him if he fails to do so. When men or groups continue in a condition like this the leadership in the organization requires correction, and immediate steps should be taken to alter the situation.

4. During times of conflict or adversity, cheerfulness may not necessarily be found, yet morale can still be excellent. It will be found in an individual's or group's determination to accept the situation and to make the best of it. Morale does not have to be based on justifiable hope of victory, material comforts, or even expectation of bettering one's state. History shows us many instances where high morale has flourished even in the face of terrible misery or disaster.

Factors Influencing Morale

5. Although morale consists of many separate attitudes in each person, there are certain areas that must be in harmony for an organization to have high morale. We will refer to these areas as morale factors. The following are significant morale factors in the Air Force structure. They are not listed in order of importance, for if they were the list would probably vary in sequence from one person to next.

6. **Adequacy of the Leadership.** The leader is important because he is the point of contact between the goals of the organization and is concerned about their well-being. They have respect for the leader who insures that his men are well trained, adequately informed, have a good chance for advancement, and are in good physical and mental condition. They appreciate the leader who provides for their recreation and entertainment, and recognizes when the men do good work. The men hold in high regard the leader who recites high morale leadership, who has high standards of discipline, dress, housekeeping, maintenance, etc. They respect the leader who provides them with the proper tools and equipment that they need to perform their jobs. They enjoy working for a boss who insures that they receive proper medical attention when necessary. They appreciate the leader who is concerned about the conditions of their living quarters, the food in the dining halls, and whether or not the mail delivery service is as efficient as it should be. From some of these examples, we can see that morale in the organization actually starts with the leader and his attitude.

7. **Satisfaction With the Job.** Most men enjoy doing a job they like. If they can do it well, and feel that it gives them the opportunity to use their talents, or grow personally, they find their work even more rewarding. Unfortunately, there are many jobs in the Air Force that are routine or repetitions; hence, not too much fun-yet must still be done. In these cases jobs often have to be assigned on a volunteer or share-the-responsibility basis. Nevertheless, the leader should be sensitive to the needs of his men and make an effort to assign men to certain jobs that he feels they will enjoy.

8. **Teamwork.** The typical worker finds his job more satisfying when he feels wanted or feels like a member of team. If teamwork isn't present, workers spend their time laboring against one another. The leader should strive to get everyone in his organization to "swing in the same direction."

9. **Satisfaction With the Organization's Purpose.** As mentioned previously, people rarely enjoy their work if they are not satisfied with organization's purpose. A violinist may really enjoy playing the violin, but if he is forced to play in a "rock and roll" band, and doesn't particularly care for "rock and roll" music, chances are very good that he may not enjoy his work. People also like to work in an organization which they consider has a worthwhile purpose. They want to believe in their work and to play an important part in helping their unit achieve its goals. They get satisfaction from their job if they know they are one a number one team.

10. **Communication.** Sometimes when men are depressed or are under heavy tension or pressure, they need a special quality of communication to help cheer them up. The leader should sense the mood of his men, think of some creative form of communication to raise their spirits, and be able to put forth this message when it will be most effective. May be a joke at the right moment may do the trick. Invariably such a joke, no matter how corny, often causes noticeable relaxation. The right kinds of communication at the right time is a very important factor in influencing morale. Some leaders have the natural ability to think of the right kind of communication on the spot. Other leaders learn through practice and hard work. It doesn't really matter how the leader plans his communication as long as he uses it to the best of his ability and is aware of the fact that a high quality communication at the right time gets results. Good, effective communication is a significant morale factor.

11. **Satisfaction With Economic and Related Rewards.** Money, prestige, and status are important to everyone in some respect. If a man does not have enough money to take care of his personal expenses such as food, family, medical problems, housing, clothing, etc, it is very difficult for him to have high morale, even if he enjoys the nature of his work much. This creates one of the major morale problems in the military, especially with the young airman, and, believe it or not, some of the young officers.

12. **General Physical and Mental Health.** We will discuss both of these areas together as they are so often very closely related. Morale in an organization is often low when everyone comes down with a bad cold. This is one reason why supervisors should make sure their people receive the proper medical treatment when they are sick. All it takes to put a whole organization bed is to have one man running around with a bad cold. Morale in an organization is also lowered when poor or dangerous working conditions have produced a problem that has damaged the physical or mental health of the workers. An example of this is individuals losing their hearing because they work in a noise environment (jet engines etc). This still happens today even when men are supplied with the proper safety equipment and are instructed in its proper use. The fault usually falls on the leader who does not insist that his men observe the proper safety procedures. It is easy to see why certain conditions on the flight line may be very dangerous when men work on highly sophisticated weapon systems for long periods of time. A slip-up at any point causing an accident may lower the morale of an entire organization. A person's mental and physical activities away from the job may also affect an individual's morale as a whole. This is often found when a man has family, financial, personal, or emotional problems. These conditions are common to people from all walks of life. This will be a problem that you, the leader must contend with. It usually involves counseling or other forms of guidance.

Indications of Morale in Air Force

13. Three methods may be used by the officer to get indications of the morale in his organization. He may use the 'Face-to-Face' method or he may 'Check Existing Conditions' or he may prefer to use 'Morale Surveys'. Sometimes it is a good idea to use all three approaches. Each has certain strengths and weaknesses. We will cover each one individually.

14. **Face-to-Face.** Probably one of the best ways to get an indication of morale in an organization is to use the face to-face approach. Simply ask your men questions. For example, 'Sgt Habib, how are things coming along in your section? How are your men acting to the increase in the workload? What do the men think of the new safety regulations? Are you having any problems?' In the face to face method, you can actually hear, word for word, how different individuals feel about the organization. The sensitive officer can often read between the words. Just by observing the way his people react to questions, he may get a very accurate indication of morale. The face-to-face approach also has certain drawbacks. Sometimes the person being interviewed likes to paint a rosy picture of how things are, or he may tell the interviewer what he thinks the interviewer wants to hear, which isn't always necessarily the truth. Another drawback is that the face-to-face method is very time consuming, especially when the manager wants to get the story or receive a sampling of interviews from a large number of people. He often has to make the choice between spending a long of his time getting the information, or restricting his interviews to a limited number of people.

15. **Check Existing Conditions.** Officers can also learn about the morale of an organization by checking several morale indicators. An occasional, unannounced tour through his sections may give a good indication of the house keeping. Sometimes good housekeeping may be a sign of high morale, for in most organizations where morale is low, people are usually not concerned about scrubbing down walls or mopping floors. On the other hand, good housekeeping may be used by a supposedly wise NCO as a cover-up to hide a more serious problem. As the manager continues his unannounced tour he should observe his people. Do they seem to be productive, happy and satisfied with their work ? Are they neat in their appearance, well groomed, etc or do the men just act like they are working, or even worse, are they standing around looking for do ?

16. The manager should exercise his observational powers. Does there appear to be a lot of waste and scrap material lying around ? What is the condition of the machinery and tools. A lot of scrap material, broken and damaged tools and equipment are indications that something is wrong. All of these things tell the officer something. While checking existing indications it is a very good idea to pay particular attention to production records, quality reports, absenteeism, tardiness, counseling reports, grievances, accident reports, medical records, training reports and the suggestion box. By considering all of these different factors and carefully analyzing each, the officer can get a very accurate indication of the morale level. The chief advantage of checking the existing conditions is that the information is readily available.

17. **Morale Surveys.** Morale surveys, whether by questionnaire or personal interview, are of two general types, objective and descriptive. These types are classified according to the form of the question asked. Occasionally the manager may want to pass out a morale survey to his men. He can use the feedback to figure out where management stands and what improvements should be made. At other times he may be asked by higher headquarters to distribute a survey which they designed; he then gets the results and returns them to higher authority. Whether he intends to administer a survey of his own or to conduct one for another party, it is a good idea for the manager to have an understanding of the different types of surveys that are commonly used along with the strengths and weaknesses of each. Objective surveys present both a question and a choice of answers in such a way that the individual taking the survey has to mark the answer of his choice. Descriptive surveys present the questions but allow the worker to answer in his own words.

18. **Objective Survey.** There are several varieties of objective surveys, but the most popular one uses multiple choice questions such as the one below :

“When you have a complaint or grip, is it fairly heard and satisfactorily handled by your immediate super visitor ?” (Check the appropriate box).

- (1) I never have any complaints.
- (2) My complaints are well handled.
- (3) Some effort is make, but not enough.
- (4) Complaint handling is unsatisfactory.

19. In this type of survey a person checks the answer which best expresses his feelings. Usually several answers are given, however, research has shown that the number of responses given has a lot to do with the type of responses on this particular survey. When three of five choices are given the respondent often tends to check the choice in the middle. His choice is more difficult, yet more realistic when he has four choices with no "middle of the road" answer. This forces him to choose above. Or below the middle. An even simpler form of the objective survey is one that can be answered "yes or no, "or" true or false." In his situations the results are easy to tabulate, but it is not a very accurate device for measuring a wide range of worker attitudes.

a. **Strengths of the objective Survey.** Pro sides of this survey are listed below :

(1). This survey is easy to administer. All it requires is that an individual hand out the survey to each who is required to take it. He monitors the group and analyzes the results.

(2). This survey is easy to evaluate. It does not required a skilled or qualified person to count how many goods or superiors," trues or falses, "etc where checked for each question.

(3). This survey is the least expensive because the organization does not have to hire an outsider to administer or score the survey. This survey also takes little time away from the job, and the equipment is simple. The survey consists of the survey itself and a pencil.

b. **Weaknesses of the Objective Survey.** Contra sides of this survey are listed below :

(1) The chief objection to taking this types of survey is that management writes the answers to the questions. The only thing the worker can do is check the box that is closest to how he feels. Often this is a grossly inaccurate expression of his real feeling.

(2) Another common objection found in this type of survey is that management has been known to slant the answers to questions so that management and the organization tend to "look good", regardless of how had the organization really is. An example of this built in bias follows.

What is the quality of food served in the dinning halls? (Check the appropriate box).

- (a) Pretty good
- (b) Excellent
- (c) Superior.

(3) When a person taking his type of survey doesn't care for the food, he often adopts the least desirable choice of the answers. In this case he would probably choose "pretty good" because a "poor" or "fair" was not listed. Thus, the managers of the dining hall are able to turn in their records, reporting that from surveys conducted, the men rated the food between pretty good and superior. As you can see from this example, management is not really using the morale survey as it should be used but only as a means of improving the appearance of its records.

20. **Descriptive Survey.**

a. The descriptive survey is designed to get the worker's response in his own words. This is done by asking him a question and providing space for him to answer as he pleases. Other popular forms of the descriptive survey are the "incomplete sentence" or the "open-end statement." The beginning of the sentence is given to the worker, he then completes it in his own words. Sample beginning may be similar to the following :

- (1) My working environment.....
- (2) If the officers in this organization would only.....
- (3) My suggestions for improving the organization are

b. Still another type of descriptive survey is one in which blanks are provided for the insertion of a word or figure, such as :

- (1) I put in a leasthours of overtime last month.

c. The descriptive survey may also be conducted in the form of an interview. These interviews often take from fifteen minutes to an hour for each person, which causes the survey to be both time consuming and expensive. In order that the information asked is covered in a consistent manner, the interviewer is usually carefully trained and follows a standard guide. The guide tells him what questions should be covered and how to phrase the questions. Finally, a variation of the descriptive survey is the "My job Content.". This type of survey was introduced into a few major industries approximately twenty years ago and since then has become very popular and successful. The plan is one in which the organization gives an award for the best essay entitled "My Job and Why I Enjoy it, " or something to that effect. The main purpose of administering this type of contest is to improve the worker's attitude by getting him to think positive. The secondary objective is to learn about the real attitudes of the workers by analyzing their essays.

- 1. **Strength of the Descriptive Survey.** The major strength of the descriptive survey is that people who are taking the survey can express themselves more freely.

2. **Weaknesses of the Descriptive Survey.** Because the person taking the survey has to write out his answers or feelings, or because he has to take part in an interview; the descriptive survey is more time consuming than, for example, the objective survey. Due to the nature of this type of survey, it requires a skilled person to either administer or interpret the information. Because a skilled person is required, this survey is more costly than the objective survey. Some workers cannot write or express themselves very well and because there are often problems in semantics involved the information received may be very unreliable or difficult to interpret.

Conclusion

21. At this point it is necessary to cover a few hints that are helpful in the event that you should find if necessary to conduct a morale survey. Many managers feel that conducting a morale survey can often do more harm than good. They have the philosophy of "let sleeping dogs lie." They feel that if things are running along smoothly, why stir everyone up by conducting a morale survey. They feel that all this will do is bring out the weaknesses in the organization that were not notice before. They believe conducting a morale survey may promote morale problems. Other managers claim that conducting morale surveys and taking action on the results usually picks up morale and productivity.

22. Whether the manager feels that a morale survey will be helpful for not depends greatly on the situation at hand. Let's say you do decide to conduct a survey and decide to hand out an objective questionnaire. Probably the greatest mistake made in this area is poor timing. Many surveys are conducted in such a manner that the monitor hands out the survey about five minutes before quitting time and informs all those participating that they may go home as soon as they finish. Usually, the results aren't considered valid because people are more anxious to get home than take a test, so they rush through the answers. Another common mistake is telling people to take the survey home with them, fill it out and return it the following day. It is not really necessary to state what happens in this case. Somehow or another the individual forgets to fill out the forms, or he loses it, or he needs more time to think about it, or he furnishes some other similar excuse.

23. Finally, conducting a survey in which the people are required to place their names, any identity numbers, or place some other form of traceable identification upon the survey should be considered as invalid. For this same reason surveys should not have any kind of control number on them. When people know that management has a way of identifying who took the survey, they are reluctant to say what they really feel.

24. Officer should realize that maintaining good morale is a day-today consideration. He cannot sit back and relax when morale is high, for if he does, morale may drop again. The place to start is for the manager to decide that he is going to be a "morale builder" first and a morale maintainer" second. The manager can also improve the morale of his organization by being sensitive to the attitudes and needs of individuals and groups of employees. The effective leader can sense the feelings of his people and often stop trouble before it starts.

25. Finally, when the leader conducts morale surveys, he should follow through and inform people of the results to show them that management is sincerely concerned about making improvements. Unfortunately, management often goes to a lot of trouble to conduct surveys, yet never uses the results. Soon, the workers lose respect for their superiors, because one of the most important principles of management and human relations has been violated keeping people informed.

26. In summary, high morale is an important ingredients in the successful operation of an air force unit or detachment. Since high morale is related to good human relations, it may be considered as a useful yard stick to measure the state of human relations in an organization. The officer may receive indications of the morale in his unit through continuous face –to face contact with his men, by regular interpretation of existing conditions in the complex, or by conducting morale surveys. In some cases all three approaches may be combined. Each type of survey carries with it certain strengths and weaknesses and the person conducting the survey should always consider the cost, problems, etc before actually conducting the survey. The manner in which the survey is conducted is also important. Planning and proper timing are essential. As the manager applies the functions of management in his other daily tasks, he should also attempt to apply these same functions to maintain morale at the highest level possible. The art of maintaining high morale has always been one of the secrets of successful officers. High morale and high productivity may be described as the yard stick by which the success of a leader is measure.

TOPIC-20

GRIEVANCE HANDLING

Introduction

1. Generally, relations between managers and their subordinates are reasonably satisfactory. At times, however, subordinates become dissatisfied with their environment or interpersonal relations. This attitude may reflect itself in an unwillingness to perform at full capacity. Or, dissatisfaction may run to the extreme of taking strong negative action, such as strikes. The result in any event is a reduction in out-put or quality of output, and an increase in costs.

2. At one time, management would have reacted to aggrieved subordinates by removing them from the service if they themselves did not control their feelings of dissatisfaction. But today, such action has to be weighed carefully. Modern thinking has moved in the direction of acceptance by management of the responsibility for taking constructive action in grievance handling. This essentially amounts to the need for determining the causes of dissatisfaction, for seeing the view points of aggrieved subordinates, for removing the causes and for discussing pertinent issues with subordinates. To examine these matters more fully, grievance handling is discussed here under the following headings...:

- a. Definition of grievances.
- b. Steps in handling grievances.
- c. Machinery for handling grievances.
- d. Rules for handling grievances.

Definition of Grievances

3. It may seem that the word dissatisfaction could serve as a useful definition of the area of grievances. In a broad and very simple sense this is so. Upon closer examination, however, it will be found that for practical purposes some specific limitations are in order. For example, some sources of dissatisfaction are in the family, home, or community of the aggrieved employees. Some dissatisfactions are imagined, unjustified, and unexpressed. Some do not adversely affect production, and, indeed, may spur employees to greater efforts. And some dissatisfactions are so deep-seated and esoteric that no management has the resources, time, or money to cope with them.

4. Obviously then, each management will have to make some restrictions on dissatisfactions that it will or can handle. As a starting point, restrictions will usually be made to include dissatisfactions that originate in the service, are expressed to writing or orally, and are susceptible to treatment by the management. As time goes on, and the management increases its skill in handling grievances, other categories may be included, such as family-inspired dissatisfactions and deep-seated emotional conflicts. For example, you may insist at first that you will consider as grievances any service-related, written complaints. In time you may, on the one hand, seek out hidden complaints through non-directive interviewing, or even by referring them to psychiatrists.

Steps in Handling Grievances.

5. No matter how grievances are defined, in essence there are a number of steps that every manager must take in dealing with grievances. How the steps are handled in terms of machinery, organization, implementation, and ethical considerations may differ from case to case. But, the basic steps will be the same in all cases and include the following :

- a. Statement of grievance.
- b. Fact gathering.
- c. Establishment of possible courses of action.
- d. Selecting best possible course of action.
- e. Applying selected course.
- f. Following up results.

6. **Statement of Grievance.** (Correct delineation of a grievance is undoubtedly critical in handling dissatisfaction. This is so because employees themselves seldom express outright their real causes of dissatisfaction). Few employees would come right out and say, for example, that they dislike the way their supervisors talk. It seems better to say that they don't feel that they are getting enough money or enough opportunities to improve their position. If the real grievance is not isolated, the wrong one will be handled and the real one will rise again, in one form or another, to plague the employee and management.

7. **Fact Gathering.** Fact gathering is, therefore, essential to getting a good picture of a grievance. Simply, this involves finding out the what, where, when, who, how often, and why of the complaint: what specific items are complained about; where do the dissatisfactions occur; when did the dissatisfaction occur; who is involved; how often do complaints reoccur and why do the complaints occur ? A plan of fact gathering that adopts this check list will overlook few important items. To sharpen accuracy, you should pay careful attention to methods of fact gathering. On the one hand, record of all types are desirable. Information such matters as merit ratings, productivity, quality of work, and job progress are useful in cross-checking complaints. On the other hand, skill in interviewing, counseling, and observation is indispensable to gathering and interpreting the statements of aggrieved employees and witnesses.

8. **Establishing Possible Courses of Action.** In the process of taking the foregoing steps, the executive should be forming possible courses of ultimate action. He should be listing ways in which the grievance might be settled. These ways will be sifted in the next step of grievance handling, so all that need be done at this stage is to make sure that no reasonable possibility is overlooked. The possible courses of action may be determined in a variety of ways. You may make reasonable deductions in the process of seeking either a clear statement of a grievance or facts about the grievance. Again, your own experience with similar cases in the past should supply suggestions. In a similar vein, discussions with fellow officers can serve to provide helpful leads. Alternative answers may often be sought in professional, technical, and trade publications. If all else fails, alternative solutions may have to be sought by sheer guess work or executive judgement

9. **Selecting a Course of Action.** The decisive step of grievance handling is, of course, determining what shall be done in a given case. If the foregoing step of listing alternative solutions has served to provide only one solution, the selection of a course of action will obviously be very easy. If several alternatives have presented themselves, a sifting process must be followed. This phase of measurement is usually done by guessing at the significance of each advantage and each disadvantage. Until more scientific knowledge is developed by which to measure future events and human reactions, the use of executive judgement or “guesstimates” of alternative courses is the best that is available.

10. **Applying solution.** Once a course of action has been selected, the next step in grievance handling is obviously to apply the selected course. But, curiously enough, this is not as easy as it sounds. If a grievance has to be rejected, an executive may defer taking action because he does not want to hurt the employee's feelings. If the complainant is in the right, it is also hard to have to admit that we in management have been wrong. These are normal human reactions.

11. **Delaying Tendency.** The answer to these delaying tendencies are twofold.

a. In the first place, an executive should realize that aggrieved employees detest procrastination and wishy-washy action as much as, if not more than, an adverse decision. Indeed, many of our difficulties with people become aggravated because we failed to take decisive action in the early stages of a grievance. That is why we insist that grievance handling be carried on at the lowest level possible in the organization structure. In this way, many grievances will be settled before they get a chance to fester in the minds of the aggrieved and swell out of all proportion to their real importance.

b. In the second place, thorough study of grievances will reduce the tendency to delay taking action. An officer who has examined a grievance carefully will be much more certain of the action to be taken. He will not be in a state of wondering which course is best. He will know. And certainty is the best assurance of quick action. So the moral is obvious; do an excellent job of the earlier steps of grievance handling, and then the action-taking step will flow as a matter of assured course.

12. **Follow-up.** The significant test of grievance handling is how well the decisions taken have gone in the direction of reducing dissatisfaction. This can be determined either by waiting to see if dissatisfactions find expression in repeated grievances, or by follow-up. The former method has little to recommend it as a good management technique, but it is an easy way, particularly when grievances are satisfactorily settled. The latter method places an added burden on an officer. But if such a check is made, further grievances are likely to be forestalled. Moreover, aggrieved employees are convinced that management is really concerned with their problems.

TOPIC-21

DISCIPLINE IN AIR FORCE

Introduction

1. Throughout this precis a great deal of emphasis has been placed in the area of human relations. Maintaining discipline is also an important part of human relations. People like the feeling of security. When they are working in a well disciplined organization they feel more secure. Working in an aircraft hangar or on the flight line, whether in a war zone or not, can be a very dangerous business. The only way that most jobs can be performed satisfactorily and safely is through discipline which is designed to produce instinctive obedience to orders from the top.

2. Discipline reduces the hazards of operating a military organization, saves many lives, and prevents possible injuries. Experience has shown that in organizations with little or no discipline, accidents, grievances, job dissatisfaction, etc are more common than in those which are well disciplined and controlled. To military leaders have at one time or another made comments to the effect that military discipline will always remain a prerequisite for combat readiness and combat effectiveness.

3. In military history, few words have been defined in so many different ways as the word discipline. We will define discipline as “the will of an individual or of a group to conform to the requirements of their leaders and the service.” This will to conform” should not be enhanced greatly by fear of punishment. Strict fear-inspired control rarely meets with success and is justifiable only as a last resort. On the other hand, training programmes and counseling sessions that instill an attitude of responsibility and self-control get results.

Maintaining Discipline

4. The level of discipline in a BAF Unit is, in a large part, what the officers assigned to the unit want to make it. The general aim of regulations is to set overall standards of conduct and work requirements for all who are concerned. Unless rules and regulations are established men have no pattern to follow. To state what is required is only a beginning; however, to require what has been stated should be the pathway to a high level of discipline. For example, a common rule of Air Force courtesy (such as the salute) may be laid down in the book; but it is up to the officer, by setting the proper example to stimulate the non-saluter to accept this military custom. A work schedule in an office may stipulate that certain tasks be performed, but only the officer-in-charge can assure that the work will be accomplished as required.

5. Sufficient discipline should be maintained to get the best results from the majority of the individuals. There is no reason for any sterner requirement. There is no real justification for being extra-tough. Excessive discipline destroys spirit and loyalty when applied to the general work force to control a minority of discontented, disobedient men. Punishing everyone in an organization because of the misdeeds of a few individuals usually causes more trouble.

6. So far we have placed emphasis on making life easy for the men, but the leader often has to get tough. It is essential that they realize and accept the fact that discipline isn't going to necessarily break down when heavy demands are made on the work force. Sloth, not activity and hard work, destroys discipline. Men can endure hardship when it serves a purpose. They love to boast about how hard they worked last year to keep the aircraft flying. A large part of their training was designed to condition them for hard work and long hours. Most men will take it in stride, but no power on earth can reconcile them to unnecessary hardship. They become especially bitter when the hardship is the result of poor planning by superiors. When they are abused they know it. When required to report to the office in the evening because their commander is good again they know it. Unfortunately this happens too often.

7. In combat, the habits and discipline instilled by training are of supreme importance. First, because men in combat should automatically do what they have been trained to do; second because only the drive of discipline will enable men to overcome the fear of battle.

8. Instilling discipline is not as difficult as it may appear. The answer can be given in one word-training. It is essential that good habits be so deeply ingrained into each individual that even in conditions of extreme stress, he will do the right thing. Conversely, because practice makes perfect, an officer or manager must never, under any circumstances permit errors, sloppy work, disobedience, etc. Each man performs his work more efficiently if he knows what is expected. Maintaining a thorough training and disciplinary program is an endless task.

9. Maintaining proper discipline will also foster pride and confidence in each individual. When this pride and confidence reach the point where obedience becomes a habit and response to orders becomes second nature, the managers are well on their way toward guiding the group to successful mission accomplishment. It isn't too hard to see that habit and discipline go hand in hand.

10. The manager should not overlook the importance of good "self-discipline" because all too often the word "discipline" takes on the connotation of strict, overbearing authority, or blind obedience. The officer should not expect men to automatically do everything exactly right, all of the time, without question.

11. Discipline is the backbone of all BAF activities. The Air Force cannot pretend to be carrying out its mission of maintaining national security if it relaxes its standards and waters down its concept of discipline. The modern Air Force Leader should insure that his people are trained to be rugged, disciplined, and enthusiastic about their jobs. He should also insure that his men set worthwhile goals for themselves. The result will satisfy both the needs of the individual and the needs of the Air Force.

Punishment

12. There is a time when a man violates the standards of conduct for his organization and certain actions must be taken to get him back in line. If counseling sessions and training programs get little or no results, punishment becomes the only means of getting an individual to conform. Many of you do not have command positions or have the authority to administer punishment. However, you should understand the principles behind punishment if you are to properly support your commander and understand his responsibilities. There may also come a time when you assume a command position yourself. The time to prepare yourself is now being prepared is the best way to handle any difficult situation.

13. Many people speak of punishing a man as “disciplining” him. Let us consider this matter for a moment. By our definition of discipline, this refers to a man’s actions and control of himself to conform to the demands of the service. Punishment is only one method of improving discipline, but it does this only if it brings about a better attitude in the man or in the unit.

14. Now we will consider a simple, time tested principle. To be most effective, a punishment must be accepted by the one punished as a just and inevitable penalty for his misconduct. Whenever you consider punishing an individual, always make this principle a guiding factor in determining the course of action you intend to follow. If the measures you recommend leave the individual or group with a sense of abuse, you have lessened the individual’s or group’s usefulness. If others believe that the punishment was unjust, you may even lower the morale and discipline of the whole organization. Punishing individuals and groups is a very serious business.

15. You are probably thinking that it is unreasonable that the punishment of a man must seem just to both the man and his associates. Still, the punishment regarded as unjust usually does more harm than good in altering the behavior and discipline of an organization. Here are a few tips you may find helpful and should consider.

16. **Get the Facts.** If you judge a man without learning all the facts, you are apt to make a wrong decision. After being informed of an individual’s misconduct, interview witnesses and others concerned. Talk to the NCOs who know the man and are familiar with his work. Study all of the factors bearing on the case. Determine whether the misconduct is general or whether it is an isolated case. Look up the offender’s record and, after reviewing it, question the offender. This is very important be sure to get the big picture before making any decision as to a man’s guilt or punishment.

17. **Interview the Offender.** By all means, never fail to interview the accused. With patient, tactful, and sympathetic questioning, try to gain an insight into the factors which produced his misconduct. For an officer to make a comment that a man committed an offense because he “just doesn’t care” is like the aircraft accident investigator who said the aircraft crashed because it hit the ground. The leader must reason with the accused and bring himself and the offender to a real understanding of the basis for the action.

18. **Weight the Information.** Even though you know for sure that a man is guilty, your objective should be to reform him rather than to get revenge. Study your emotions with care to be certain your punishment is free of vengeful motives. You should also estimate what effect the punishment will have on the unit. The punishment administered should always be consistent, fair, flexible, and impersonal. Here is an example. WO Ahmed and FS Osman always disregarded the “no smoking” rule in the hangar on many occasions and never got in trouble for it. Then along came LAC Latif smoking a 555 and the “roof caved in.” His supervisor yanked the cigar out of his mouth, threw it on the ground, stomped it out, gave Latif a severe reprimand in front of the others, and then assigned him to extra-duty for three consecutive weekends. To all of the other men as well as Latif this action was wholly inconsistent and unfair. The men in the organization did not know what management’s standard of conduct was, and discipline completely deteriorated. Originally, the men had conducted themselves on the basis of how management had enforced the sign (rather than what the sign said). When the enforcement was inconsistent, they were both confused and resentful of the injustice.

19. **Always Take Some Form of Correction Action.** Men rarely do wrong when they are certain that some form of punishment will be given. It usually isn’t because of the severity of the punishment, but just the fact that they will be punished that constitutes the chief deterrent to wrongdoing. Failure to punish one individual for a wrong the commits may very easily encourage three or four others to try to get away with the same thing.

20. **Always Act Promptly.** The longer the time between the offence and the punishment or correction, the less success the leader will have in getting the offender to accept his punishment.

21. **Punish Humanely.** Administering punishment so severe that it is out of proportion to the offense arouses feelings of injustice and destroys rather than builds discipline.

22. **Punish Personally.** A commander must punish his men personally when possible. The leader will lose respect for himself, and his men will lose respect for him, if he doesn't accept the responsibility of punishing. But the leader should always make sure that he is an impartial and impersonal judge. As pointed out earlier, anger and revenge have no place here. The leader should avoid any expressions which will make the misconduct appear to be an offense against himself. Instead the offense should be looked upon as a violation of the unit's standards of conduct. Explain the significance of the offense and discuss why the penalty was given. Try to make the man realize that the penalty is just and proper. The man who accepts the punishment as just is started on the path to improvement. The one who considered his punishment as unjust, or simply as revenge, will probably turn out to be more of a problem than ever.

23. **Never Threaten Punishment.** When LAC Alam was little boy, he had the habit of frequently looking out of the window during school. His teacher also had the habit of threatening him, time and again, with threats like : "Alam if you don't quite looking out the window, I'm going to snatch you bald-headed!" Well he never attempted to snatch him bald-headed, and Alam knew he wouldn't, so he never quite looking out of the window. It wasn't too long and Alam grew up and joined the Air Force. As an airman, he was continuously threatened with, such things as: "If you don't straighten up, I'm going to hang you by the balls," or "If you get caught speeding again, I will have you court-martialed. LAC Alam never straightened up, yet he never found himself hanging by anything; he was caught speeding again but he never received a court-martial. After a while threats become very shallow; especially when they aren't carried out. The leader should never threaten his men with some type of punishment. Many a young officer (right of the top of his head) has threatened a man with a court-martial. The embarrassing moment comes when the officer finds that he has neither the authority or the necessary evidence to carry out the threat. In this case, the officer's prestige in the organization is considerably lowered.

A Few Final Tips

24. When a man commits an offense, whether minor or major, the average person wants to "pin him to the wall." There are times when this approach is absolutely necessary, but in many other cases just a good oral "chewing-out" can do more good than all of the oral and written reprimands in the world. The "chewing-out" is often just a private dealing between you and the individual. Its main purpose is to identify short comings and to inspire the individual to correct them. In this type of punishment no further action is necessary unless the individual becomes involved in more serious infractions which may require stronger punishment.

25. Finally, a word to the wise: In every counseling situation it is a good idea to keep a written record of the action that took place. The same is true for any type of admonition or man reprimand whether oral or written. Written. Write down the information in the form of a Memo for Record and keep it on file for your personal use. Hopefully, you may never have to use it again, but it comes in handy later on for the individual who repeatedly breaks rules and more serious action has to be take.

READING MATERIAL -1

GROUP DYNAMICS

Group Dynamics

1. Group Dynamics is a field of enquiry dedicated to achieving knowledge about the nature of groups; the law of their development, their inter-relations with individuals, other groups and larger institutions.
2. Group Dynamics began as an identifiable field of enquiry in the United States towards the end of 1930. Its origin is associated primarily with Kurt Lewin, who popularised the term “Group Dynamics” and made significant contributions to both research and theory of the phenomenon. Viewed in historical perspective, Group Dynamics is not the output of the man, but the convergence of certain trends within the social sciences. This growth was made possible because social sciences had made sufficient progress to accept the reality of groups and design research techniques for the study of group functioning. The dependence of certain emotional states of individuals on the group has been objectively measured, created experimentally in the laboratory and some of the processes by which they influence behaviour and attitudes of individuals have been determined.
3. Today’s man performs most of his activities in groups. Society derives its strength from the multitude of groups which it contains. Groups are found in homes, communities, schools and all organizations. These compact units should function well for the success of the larger systems.

Groups

4. A group is a collection of individuals who come together on account of shared interests, satisfaction of psychological needs and common goals and ideologies. Interaction with one another is an obvious factor wherever there is human assemblage. Without co-operation, social organisation and groups of various kinds, man would not survive biologically, and without group standards, social values, laws and other means of social control of behaviour, civilization would be impossible. There are different types of groups :
 - a. Temporary/Permanent.
 - b. Open/Closed.
 - c. Primary/Secondary.
 - d. Formal/Informal
 - e. Autonomous/Dependent.
 - f. Large/Small.

The yard sticks for the classification of groups are size, degree of intimacy, levels of solidarity, extent of formal governing rules, the impact of the individual sphere of influence, and occupational roles. It is difficult to invest clear-out boundaries to the group. Groups have many similar and dissimilar characteristics. A family is a permanent, primary and closed group. A club is permanent and open. A biology department is primary and closed but an ex-students union is secondary and open.

Theories of Group - Dynamics

5. Kurt Lewin's Field theory centers round inter-dependent variables known as "Life space" and "social space". The structural properties of this field are represented to topological concepts, and the dynamic properties by concepts of psychological and social forces.

6. Bales Homans and Whyte conceive a group as a system of interacting individuals. In this Interaction Theory the basic concepts of approach are activity, interaction and sentiments. The socio-metric orientation which was originated by Moreno and Jennings is concerned primarily with the inter-personal choices which bind groups of people together. The psychoanalytic Theory which focuses upon certain motivational and defensive processes within the individual was first extended to group life by Freud. Concepts and hypothesis from psychoanalytic theory have permeated much of the work in group dynamics.

7. **The Cognitive Theory.** This theory basically is a point of view which interests itself in the importance of understanding how individuals receive and integrate information about the social world and how this information affects their behaviour. The Empirical statistical orientation maintains that the concepts of group dynamics should be discovered from statistical procedures such as factor analyses, rather than constructed on theories.

The Small Group

8. The theory of a small group in an organisation centers round the concept of a working group as a compact entity which generates dynamic performance in the interests of the larger concern. It consists of a limited number of people who maintain a constancy of interaction. The binding link is the work and the line of associations connected with it. The group in which this association is manifested will achieve more than the sum of the inherent personal powers of its members. These groups distinctly differentiate themselves either implicitly or explicitly as "Small Gangs". To them the members look for the satisfaction of their needs.

9. The small groups have the following characteristics :
- a. It is an inevitable factor in modern organization.
 - b. It contributes to personality development.
 - c. It is a mobilizing factor in socialization and control.
 - d. It is the selected unit within the larger working units.
 - e. Its motivating force can be phenomenal.

Groups and Organization

10. Large scale industrial organizations envisage group-oriented division of labour, skill as well responsibilities to meet the aims and achievements of the establishment. So we come across group involved in planning and management, administration and liaison, technology and manual labour. These groups within the organization do not follow a rigid pattern and can be either formal or informal. They may be based on activity, interest, ethnic origins or intellectual or recreational pursuits.

11. According to Scott, there are three status groups in organizations. The primary group which is the focal point in the organization. The Fringe group which, though not the focal point, is still an important factor in the group and thirdly the out groups which is which is isolated from the intensive activity of the other two groups, but maintains a common interest in the organization.

Characteristic Behaviour of Groups

12. In order to understand the force of groups in the management of personnel, it is necessary to examine the various properties or characteristics they exhibit. In group behaviour, we are confronted with the following questions :

- a. How do groups affect behaviour, thinking, motivation and adjustment of individuals ?
- b. What make s some groups to have powerful influence over members, while other groups exert little or none ?
- c. What characteristics of individuals are important determinants of the properties of groups.
- d. What combination of personality, skill and values have effects on the functioning of the group ?
- e. What determines the nature of relations between the groups ?
- f. How does the social environment of a group affect it properties ?

13. We cannot find all the answer all the time. We can only find some answers, for some questions sometimes.

Factors Affecting Group Behaviour

14. **Goal.** One important dynamic feature of a group is its goal or purpose. Sometimes they are explicit, sometimes taken for granted and at times they are not clearly understood at all. For greater force, they group goals must be common and acceptable to a large number of its members. Understanding of what members want from a group facilitates understanding of group objectives.

15. **Planning.** Another dynamic aspect related to objectives is planning, ie, where the group is going, when and how. Planning may be informal or carefully organized, who decides as to what course the group will follow is important to the accomplishments of the group. The leader has to be a little ahead of the group, but not too far. His aims have to be in line with the group, to avoid internal stress. As the aims of a group change, the requirement for its leadership change.

16. **Past Patterns.** Each group has a historical background that influence its behaviour. Groups thus develop patterns for confronting and resolving problems. In new groups, it takes time for members to get acquainted, to workout goals and to establish informal leadership. With the passage of time, relationship are established which affect members, interactions.

Cohesiveness

17. A cohesive group might beaten to characterised as one in which all the members work together for a common goal or one where every one is ready to take responsibility for chores.

18. The basic components of a group consist of diverse individuals. Each man's identification with the common goals and values of the group is bound to show relative variance. Cohesiveness does not refer to these differences but to the total pulling power achieved by the degree of proximity of covering interests. The extent to which the members share the same norms of behaviour is an indication of cohesiveness. Cohesiveness of a group is the resultant of all the forces acting on all the members to remain in the group.

19. In achieving cohesiveness, the group itself becomes the object of a need. It may be caused by an attraction to the people of the group or because of a preference for the activities available in a group. Groups can also be a means for satisfying needs outside the group. The need for security or escape from anxiety may be the cause for an individual's group participation.

20. Small groups and group having employees with long service are more cohesive than large groups and groups with new members. Highly cohesive group is high or low depends on its sense of security in relation with the organization and their realization of the management's support.

21. The varying density of cohesiveness is due to many factors :

- a. The types of leadership and planning.
- b. Conflicting converging goals.
- c. Stagnant self satisfaction.
- d. Frustration.
- e. Marked personal differences.
- f. Policy differences
- g. Scarcity of balancing potential.
- h. Unhealthy individual.

22. Where there is no cohesiveness, there is conflict. These are two extremes of group behaviour. Conflict can magnify itself as resistance to change or criticism. It can cause withdrawal, antagonism or blockade in the functioning of an organization.

23. To provide a simple definition, we can say that the theoretical basis of cohesiveness is essentially as follows :

Depending upon the degree to which members want to remain in a group, they would generate and accept pressures that would preserve the group or advance it towards its goals.

Role of the Group

24. The role of the successful group depends on leadership, authority and motivation. Successful communication between group is desirable in the larger interests of the organization. Training facilities, seminars, projects and reviews provide scope for self-criticism and analysis of the group performance. Groups play particular roles in relation to other groups. The strengths and weakness of a group are part of the assets and liabilities of an organization.

The Informal Organization

25. Experts have made a great deal of study of Informal Organization, the groupings that takes place within the formal structure established by an organisation. When there is no proper channeling of feelings, motives and other variables of inter-action, individual tend to form their own groups or associations.

26. Management is generally aware of the informal associations in terms of “cliques” or “ring leaders.” These associations are formed among colleagues, neighbours, on the basis of religion, language, avocation and other common interests. The qualities of the informal leader conform to the general principles of leadership. Age, experience, status or personality may be the factors responsible for the emergence of this type of leader.

27. Informal groups when formed for positive reasons create positive reactions. When they are formed for negative purposes, they create problems. Management has to be careful of certain elements in this respect.

28. In fact group dynamics are also being utilized these days for behaviour modification, it has recognised that cognitive learning neither inevitably reaches the emotional behaviour depth required for change, more it invariably converts all learned insights into effective action. Bennis (1963) says that we can take reasonable credit for our knowledge about the theories of change, but, we are still in the weeds about the theories of changing. The behavioural scientists, the therefore, have devised laboratory approach to learning. This approach throws the individual right in the midst of change process. It puts him on a conveyor belt where the chances of his not moving forward are remote. It makes the individual see how others see him. It improves, his interpersonal competence, i.e, his ability to deal with needs, feelings, and interpersonal relationships of others and himself. The laboratory approach involves the following steps :

a. It makes the individual work in a small group of persons like him. They are all engaged in solving a problem. Working with others, the individual exposes his behaviour to them. Expanded self-awareness thus obtained by the individual is his first gain from the laboratory type of training.

b. As stated above, the group is given a problem to solve, a task to be performed. The unstructured nature of the task that fact that all the group members sailing in the same boat, and the sanctioned nature of the experimentation make each member behave in a spontaneous manner. The individual members thus get an opportunity to understand each other in a manner that is often denied in formalised situations. In this fashion, the expanded self-awareness of the individual gets inextricably linked with the expanded self-awareness experience which fosters co-operative effort and team spirit.

c. The changing process in the laboratory type of training is emotional as well as rational. While solving a problem in a control free situation, the individual not only finds an opportunity to release his emotions, but also to examine via his behaviour the underlying currents of his attitudes and values. Thus, in addition to having a cathartic effect, the laboratory training also gives the individual a peep into his attitudes which though affect all facets of his behaviour, are seldom noticed by him otherwise.

d. The problem solving situation afforded by the laboratory training, also provides the individual an occasion to see the impact of his personality on others. That gives him an ideal about the effectiveness of his behaviour. That, in essence, is experiential learning. As a consequence of this, the individual develops his skill of dealing with others. Argyris (1962) says that the interaction of self with others leads to a higher level of inter-personal competence.

29. Thus we see that laboratory training for behaviour modification is quite an effective method.

Conclusion

30. The structural properties of group constitute a fascinating theme of group dynamics the reality and potential of the group have a far-reaching influence on deciding the pattern of management and organization. A knowledge of the nature of group and especially about the psychological and social forces associated with the group, give us valuable insight into the working and management of a group. Laboratory training for behavioural modification makes use of group dynamics for providing the individual a mirror to see the effect of his behaviour upon others, and for obtaining immediate feed-back to modify it for making himself more effective and acceptable to them.