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Management process

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Management process is a process of setting goals, planning and/or controlling the organizing and leading the execution of any type of activity, such as:

- a project (project management process) or
- a process (process management process, sometimes referred to as the process performance measurement and management system).

An organization's senior management is responsible for carrying out its management process. However, this is not always the case for all management processes, for example, sometimes it is the responsibility of the project manager to carry out a project management process.[1]

Steps [edit]

Planning, it determines the objectives, evaluate the different alternatives and choose the best

Organizing, define the group's functions, establish relationships and defining authority and responsibility

Staffing, recruitment or placement and selection or training takes place for the development of members in the firm

Directing, is to give the Direction to the employees.

See also [edit]

- Business process
- Project management
- Project planning

LM PRASAD [edit]

1. ^ The Simplified Project Management Process Accessed: 2010-05-02.

Categories: Management

Directing

1. Planning

It is the basic function of management. It deals with chalking out a future course of action & deciding in advance the most appropriate course of actions for achievement of pre-determined goals. According to KOONTZ, "Planning is deciding in advance - what to do, when to do & how to do. It bridges the gap from where we are & where we want to be". A plan is a future course of actions. It is an exercise in problem solving & decision making. Planning is determination of courses of action to achieve desired goals. Thus, planning is a systematic thinking about ways & means for accomplishment of pre-determined goals. Planning is necessary to ensure proper utilization of human & non-human resources. It is all pervasive, it is an intellectual activity and it also helps in avoiding confusion, uncertainties, risks, wastages etc.

2. Organizing

It is the process of bringing together physical, financial and human resources and developing productive relationship amongst them for achievement of organizational goals. According to Henry Fayol, "To organize a business is to provide it with everything useful or its functioning i.e. raw material, tools, capital and personnel's". To organize a business involves determining & providing human and non-human resources to the organizational structure. Organizing as a process involves:

- Identification of activities.
- Classification of grouping of activities.
- Assignment of duties.
- Delegation of authority and creation of responsibility.
- Coordinating authority and responsibility relationships.

3. Staffing

It is the function of manning the organization structure and keeping it manned. Staffing has assumed greater importance in the recent years due to advancement of technology, increase in size of business, complexity of human behavior etc. The main purpose o staffing is to put right man on right job i.e. square pegs in square holes and round pegs in round holes. According to Kootz & O'Donell, "Managerial function of staffing involves manning the organization structure through proper and effective selection, appraisal & development of personnel to fill the roles designed un the structure". Staffing involves:

- Manpower Planning (estimating man power in terms of searching, choose the person and giving the right place).
- Recruitment, Selection & Placement.
- Training & Development.
- Remuneration.
- Performance Appraisal.
- Promotions & Transfer.

4. Directing

It is that part of managerial function which actuates the organizational methods to work efficiently for achievement of

- Remuneration.
- Performance Appraisal.
- Promotions & Transfer.

4. Directing

It is that part of managerial function which actuates the organizational methods to work efficiently for achievement of organizational purposes. It is considered life-spark of the enterprise which sets it in motion the action of people because planning, organizing and staffing are the mere preparations for doing the work. Direction is that inert-personnel aspect of management which deals directly with influencing, guiding, supervising, motivating sub-ordinate for the achievement of organizational goals. Direction has following elements:

- Supervision
- Motivation
- Leadership
- Communication

Supervision- implies overseeing the work of subordinates by their superiors. It is the act of watching & directing work & workers.

Motivation- means inspiring, stimulating or encouraging the sub-ordinates with zeal to work. Positive, negative, monetary, non-monetary incentives may be used for this purpose.

Leadership- may be defined as a process by which manager guides and influences the work of subordinates in desired direction.

Communications- is the process of passing information, experience, opinion etc from one person to another. It is a bridge of understanding.

5. Controlling

It implies measurement of accomplishment against the standards and correction of deviation if any to ensure achievement of organizational goals. The purpose of controlling is to ensure that everything occurs in conformities with the standards. An efficient system of control helps to predict deviations before they actually occur. According to *Theo Haimann*, "Controlling is the process of checking whether or not proper progress is being made towards the objectives and goals and acting if necessary, to correct any deviation". According to Koontz & O'Donell "Controlling is the measurement & correction of performance activities of subordinates in order to make sure that the enterprise objectives and plans desired to obtain them as being accomplished". Therefore controlling has following steps:

a. Establishment of standard performance.
b. Measurement of actual performance.
c. Comparison of actual performance with the standards and finding out deviation if any.
d. Corrective action.

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Frederick Taylor and Scientific Management

Understanding Taylorism and Early Management Theory

How did current management theories develop?

People have been managing work for hundreds of years, and we can trace formal management ideas to the 1700s. But the most significant developments in management theory emerged in the 20th century. We owe much of our understanding of managerial practices to the many theorists of this period, who tried to understand how best to conduct business.

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Taylor investigated the "science" of shoveling.

Historical Perspective

One of the earliest of these theorists was Frederick Winslow Taylor. He started the Scientific Management movement, and he and his associates were the first people to study the work process scientifically. They studied how work was performed, and they looked at how this affected worker productivity. Taylor's philosophy focused on the work was performed, and they looked at how this affected worker productivity. Taylor's philosophy focused on the belief that making people work as hard as they could was not as efficient as optimizing the way the work was done.

In 1909, Taylor published "**The Principles of Scientific Management**." In this, he proposed that by optimizing and simplifying jobs, productivity would increase. He also advanced the idea that workers and managers needed to cooperate with one another. This was very different from the way work was typically done in businesses beforehand. A factory manager at that time had very little contact with the workers, and he left them on their own to produce the necessary product. There was no standardization, and a worker's main motivation was often continued employment, so there was no incentive to work as quickly or as efficiently as possible.

Taylor believed that all workers were motivated by money, so he promoted the idea of "a fair day's pay for a fair day's work." In other words, if a worker didn't achieve enough in a day, he didn't deserve to be paid as much as another worker who was highly productive.

With a background in mechanical engineering, Taylor was very interested in efficiency. While advancing his career at a U.S. steel manufacturer, he designed workplace experiments to determine optimal performance levels. In one, he experimented with shovel design until he had a design that would allow workers to shovel for several hours straight. With bricklayers, he experimented with the various motions required and developed an efficient way to lay bricks. And he applied the scientific method to study the optimal way to do any type of workplace task. As such, he found that by calculating the time needed for the various elements of a task, he could develop the "best" way to complete that task.

These "time and motion" studies also led Taylor to conclude that certain people could work more efficiently than others. These were the people whom managers should seek to hire where possible. Therefore, selecting the right people for the job was another important part of workplace efficiency. Taking what he learned from these workplace experiments, Taylor developed four principles of scientific management. These principles are also known simply as "Taylorism".

Four Principles of Scientific Management

Taylor's four principles are as follows:

1. Replace working by "rule of thumb," or simple habit and common sense, and instead use the scientific method to study work and determine the most efficient way to perform specific tasks.
2. Rather than simply assign workers to just any job, match workers to their jobs based on capability and motivation, and train them to work at maximum efficiency.
3. Monitor worker performance, and provide instructions and supervision to ensure that they're using the most efficient ways of working.
4. Allocate the work between managers and workers so that the managers spend their time planning and training, allowing the workers to perform their tasks efficiently.

Critiques of Taylorism

Taylor's Scientific Management Theory promotes the idea that there is "one right way" to do something. As such, it is at odds with current approaches such as **MBO** (Management By Objectives), **Continuous Improvement** (Initiatives), **BPR** (Business Process Reengineering), and other tools like them. These promote individual responsibility, and seek to push decision making through all levels of the organization.

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The idea here is that workers are given as much autonomy as practically possible, so that they can use the most appropriate approaches for the situation at hand. (Reflect here on your own experience – are you happier and more motivated when you're following tightly controlled procedures, or when you're working using your own judgment?) What's more, front line workers need to show this sort of flexibility in a rapidly-changing environment. Rigid, rules-driven organizations really struggle to adapt in these situations.

Teamwork is another area where pure Taylorism is in opposition to current practice. Essentially, Taylorism breaks tasks down into tiny steps, and focuses on how each person can do his or her specific series of steps best. Modern methodologies prefer to examine work systems more holistically in order to evaluate efficiency and maximize productivity. The extreme specialization that Taylorism promotes is contrary to modern ideals of how to provide a motivating and satisfying workplace.

Where Taylorism separates manual from mental work, modern productivity enhancement practices seek to incorporate worker's ideas, experience and knowledge into best practice. Scientific management in its pure form focuses too much on the mechanics, and fails to value the people side of work, whereby motivation and workplace satisfaction are key elements in an efficient and productive organization.

Key Points

The Principles of Taylor's Scientific Management Theory became widely practiced, and the resulting cooperation between workers and managers eventually developed into the teamwork we enjoy today. While Taylorism in a pure sense isn't practiced much today, scientific management did provide many significant contributions to the advancement of management practice. It introduced systematic selection and training procedures, it provided a way to study workplace efficiency, and it encouraged the idea of systematic organizational design.

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Sunday, 2 September 2012

Modern Management theory in principle of management,

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Modern Management Theory

Management is one or the other form has existed in every nook and corner of the world since the dawn of civilization. Modern Management has grown with the growth of social-economics and scientific institution. Modern view consists that a worker does not work for only money. They work for their satisfaction and happiness with good living style. Here Non- financial award is most important factor.

Modern management theories started after 1950s. Modern management theory focuses the development of each factor of workers and organization. Modern management theory refers to emphasizing the use of systematic mathematical techniques in the system with analyzing and understanding the inter-relationship of management and workers in all aspect.
It has following three Streams-

- Quantitative Approach
- System Approach
- Contingency Approach

Quantitative Approach:

Quantitative approach also called Operation Research. Quantitative approach is a scientific method. It emphasizes the use of statistical model and systematic mathematical techniques to solving complex management problems. Its helps the management to making decisions in operations. It can only suggest the alternatives based on statistical data. It cannot take final decision.

It helps the management for improving their decision making by increasing the number of alternatives and giving faster decisions on any problem. Management can easily calculate the risk and benefit of various actions.

Major contributors in Quantitative Approach are-
Johan MacDonald
George R. Terry
Andrew Szilagyi

System approach:

System approach was developed inlate1960s. Herbert A. Simon is the father of system theory. A System is defined as a set of regularly interacting or inter - dependent components that create as a whole unit. The system concept enables us to see the critical variables and constraints and their interactions with one another.

According to Cleland and King: " A system is composed of related and dependent elements which when in interaction from a unity whole".

Characteristics of system approach:

- A system must have some specific components, units or sub units.
- A Change in one system affects the other subsystems.
- Every system is influenced by super system.
- All systems along their subsystem must have some common objectives.
- A system is a goal-oriented.
- A system cannot survive in isolation.

Major contributors in system theories are-

1. Daniel Katz,
2. Robert L. Khan,
3. Richard A. Johnson.

Contingency Approach:

Contingency Approach also knows as situational approach. In 1980s, it is recognized as a key to effective management. This approach accepts the dynamics and complexities of the organization structure. An organization is affected by its environment and environment is composed by physical resources, climate, persons, culture, economic and market conditions and their laws.
This approach argues that there is no one universally applicable set of rules by which to manage organization.

Major contributors in the contingency theories are-

1. G.M. Stalker,
2. Joan Woodward,
3. Tom Burns,
4. Paul R. Lawrence,
5. L.W. Lorsch.

Conclusion

Modern management theory depends upon System approach and Contingency approach. Management is influenced by Internal and external environment. Appropriate techniques are determined by situation and Environmental factors of an organization.

Thus the conclusion is that there cannot be any fixed universal principles of management and organizations.

Nb: In near future I will be sharing a post on "Objectives of management".

Note: This post shared here are base on my study in case you find anything wrong and missing points than please bring it to my notice.

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Reddin's 3D Leadership Model

Updated on September 3, 2020
Posted on May 16, 2019

Created By:
Seán Lea

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- Contingency Model - Fred Fiedler
- Path-Goal Theory - Robert House
- Situational Leadership Model - Hersey and Blanchard
- Four-Frame Model - Bolman and Deal
- Reddin's 3D Leadership Model
  - What is Reddin's 3D Leadership Model?

What is Reddin's 3D Leadership Model?

Reddin's 3D Leadership Model is a simple framework for utilising managerial styles in various situations in order to maximise effectiveness.

Reddin Background Information

Bill Reddin was a British professor and management behaviouralist, who - during his time at MIT, the University of New Brunswick, and as an independent consultant - **developed some key theories relating to situational leadership styles and the managerial impact on organisational effectiveness.**

The culmination of his action-oriented work was his 3D Model of Leadership, first outlined in his 1983 thesis *Managerial Effectiveness and Style: Individual or Situation*, which **identified several different leadership styles and their effectiveness in any number of typical situations.** The most important concept within his work was that there is **no single most effective leadership style, considering the numerous and varied situations a leader will find themselves in.**

The 3D Leadership Model

The four basic leadership styles as identified by Reddin were:

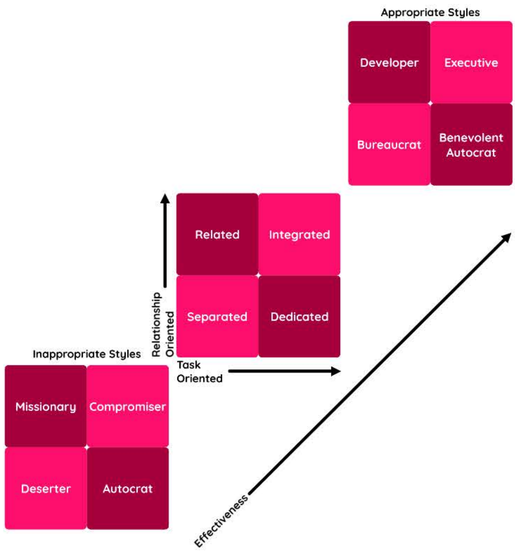
1. **Related** - A related leader enjoys team-based, cooperative working. They do not focus on directing or dictating orders to staff, and allow much more freedom and responsibility.
2. **Integrated** - An integrated manager retains the cooperative nature of the group, and encourages two-way communication. They emphasise the effectiveness of this communication and building a strong team capable of completing tasks to the best of their potential.
3. **Dedicated** - A dedicated manager is only truly concerned with the end result of the task and focuses on improving the production process. They retain power and responsibility with themselves, allowing them to dictate roles and requirements to others.
4. **Separated** - A separated manager focuses on correcting deviations from the norm. They formulate policies and rules and impose them on others but do not take a direct, commanding role on themselves.

Each of these leadership styles is separated by its position along two major axes;

1. Task Orientation
2. Relationship Orientation.

This refers to the proportion of concern that the leader in question has for either the results of the task, or for the needs and development of the individuals involved.

The central matrix in the diagram below **represents Reddin's initial model**, showing the **four major leadership styles** and **their positions along the Task-Relationship axis.**



Reddin later expanded on his initial theory, adding in the third dimension of **Effectiveness**. This effectiveness was defined by the appropriateness of the particular leadership style in any given situation and he argued that this should be the main focus of any manager's efforts.

- As you can see in the diagram, the appropriate versions of the initial styles can be seen in the upper-right (**Developer**, **Executive**, **Benevolent Autocrat**, **Bureaucrat**) and the inappropriate styles (**Missionary**, **Compromiser**, **Autocrat**, **Deserter**) in the bottom-left. These are not new styles in themselves, only the primary styles when applied to appropriate or inappropriate situations.

"*Any managerial style has a situation appropriate to it, and many situations inappropriate to it...*" - William Reddin

The true strength of a leader or manager is to know when to utilise each of the basic leadership styles, and how to apply them to appropriate situations. Also discussed were two other key concepts:

1. **Flexibility**
2. **Rigidity**

These refer to how malleable the individual's style was in various scenarios.

The primary styles are fairly broad and all-encompassing, and also highlighted that leadership style could not necessarily be identified purely by examining the effectiveness of the situation.

Choosing the Most Appropriate Leadership Style

The most difficult part of applying Reddin's theory is for managers to understand when to employ each of the different styles.

- In general, this is something which can only be understood through experience, and close examination of the situation.

A manager with a strong awareness of the requirements of tasks and demands of a situation will be capable of interpreting the necessity of greater task orientation or greater people orientation:

1. **Task-orientated approaches** generally are **most effective in scenarios when the group is constrained** by resources or time, when there is disorganisation which needs to be brought back into an order or when the leader is working with inexperienced or low-skilled team members.
2. **People-oriented approaches** are often **more effective in more open, creative tasks**, when the leader sees the opportunity to develop their staff's leadership and skills over the long term or to motivate them through new experiences and greater responsibility. The leader may also see fit to work on a more people-centric basis in times when they have a highly experienced, skilled and competent team.

Leaders, as people, will likely have a natural predisposition towards certain approaches to the task. However, it is still possible to understand that sometimes it is beneficial to be more flexible in their approach, allowing them to maximise the rewards of the situation at hand.

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Management by Objectives (MBO)

A strategic approach to enhance the performance of an organization

What is Management by Objectives (MBO)?

Management by Objectives (MBO) is a strategic approach to enhance the performance of an organization. It is a process where the goals of the organization are defined and conveyed by the management to the members of the organization with the intention to achieve each objective.

An important step in the MBO approach is the monitoring and evaluation of the performance and progress of each employee against the established objectives. Ideally, if the employees themselves are involved in setting goals and deciding their course of action, they are more likely to fulfill their obligations.

Steps in Management by Objectives Process

1. Define organization goals

Setting objectives is not only critical to the success of any company, but it also serves a variety of purposes. It needs to include several different types of managers in setting goals. The objectives set by the supervisors are provisional, based on an interpretation and evaluation of what the company can and should achieve within a specified time.

2. Define employee objectives

Once the employees are briefed about the general objectives, plan, and the strategies to follow, the managers can start working with their subordinates on establishing their personal objectives. This will be a one-on-one discussion where the subordinates will let the managers know about their targets and which goals they can accomplish within a specific time and with what resources. They can then share some tentative thoughts about which goals the organization or department can find feasible.

3. Continuous monitoring performance and progress

Though the management by objectives approach is necessary for increasing the effectiveness of managers, it is equally essential for monitoring the performance and progress of each employee in the organization.

4. Performance evaluation

Within the MBO framework, the performance review is achieved by the participation of the managers concerned.

5. Providing feedback

In the management by objectives approach, the most essential step is the continuous feedback on the results and objectives, as it enables the employees to track and make corrections to their actions. The ongoing feedback is complemented by frequent formal evaluation meetings in which superiors and subordinates may discuss progress towards objectives, leading to more feedback.

6. Performance appraisal

Performance reviews are a routine review of the success of employees within MBO organizations.

Benefits of Management by Objectives

- Management by objectives helps employees appreciate their on-the-job roles and responsibilities.
- The Key Result Areas (KRAs) planned are specific to each employee, depending on their interest, educational qualification, and specialization.
- The MBO approach usually results in better teamwork and communication.
- It provides the employees with a clear understanding of what is expected of them. The supervisors set goals for every member of the team, and every employee is provided with a list of unique tasks.
- Every employee is assigned unique goals. Hence, each employee feels indispensable to the organization and eventually develops a sense of loyalty to the organization.
- Managers help ensure that subordinates' goals are related to the objectives of the organization.

Limitations of Management by Objectives

- Management by objectives often ignores the organization's existing ethos and working conditions.
- More emphasis is given on goals and targets. The managers put constant pressure on the employees to accomplish their goals and forget about the use of MBO for involvement, willingness to contribute, and growth of management.
- The managers sometimes over-emphasize the target setting, as compared to operational issues, as a generator of success.
- The MBO approach does not emphasize the significance of the context wherein the goals are set. The context encompasses everything from resource availability and efficiency to relative buy-in from the leadership and stakeholders.
- Finally, there is a tendency for many managers to see management by objectives as a total system that can handle all management issues once installed. The overdependence may impose problems on the MBO system that it is not prepared to tackle, and that frustrates any potentially positive effects on the issues it is supposed to deal with.

Key Takeaways

- Management by Objectives (MBO) is an approach adopted by managers to control their employees by implementing a series of concrete goals that both the employee and the organization aim to accomplish in the immediate future and work accordingly to achieve.
- The MBO approach is implemented to ensure that the employees get a clear understanding of their roles and responsibilities, along with expectations, so that they can understand the relation of their activities to the overall success of the organization.
- If the management by objectives strategy is not adequately set, decided upon, and controlled by organizations, self-centered workers can be likely to misinterpret results, wrongly portraying the achievement of short-term, narrow-minded goals.

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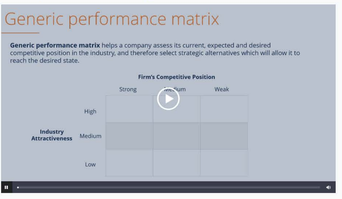

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By the Mind Tools Content Team

(127)

13 MIN READ

Management by Wandering Around (MBWA)

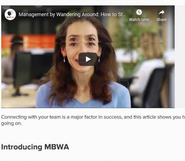
Keeping Your Finger on the Pulse

You may be based in the same building as your manager, but how often do you see him or her?

OK, so you see them any time you look through the spotless glass walls of their office, but how often do you get the chance to sit down together and really talk? Once a week? Once a month? Less, maybe.

A manager like this can seem distant, unapproachable and even intimidating. And yet, it is possible to be a manager who is admired for being wise and knowledgeable, and one who is engaged and connected with the people around them. Which would you prefer to be?

If you build a wall around yourself as a manager, your team members won't gain from your knowledge and you won't gain from their experience. Worse still, you'll be unable to spot and deal with problems before they become serious, and you'll miss out on the key, **tacit information** that you need to make good decisions.



Connecting with your team is a major factor in success, and this article shows you how to keep in touch with what's going on.

Introducing MBWA

One powerful way to connect with your team members is to get up from your desk and go talk to them, to work with them, to ask questions, and to help when needed. This practice is called Management by Wandering Around, or MBWA.

MBWA might imply an aimless meander around the office, but it's a deliberate and genuine strategy for staying abreast of people's work, interests and ideas. It requires a range of skills, including active listening, observation, recognition, and appraisal.

MBWA also brings participation, spontaneity and informality to the idea of open-door management. It takes managers into their teams' workplaces to engage with the people and processes that keep companies running, to listen to ideas, to collect information, and to resolve problems.

William Hewlett and David Packard, founders of Hewlett Packard (HP), famously used this approach. Tom Peters included lessons learned from HP in his 1982 book, **In Search of Excellence**. It, and Management by Wandering Around became popular. Now, for example, Disney leaders work shifts with their resort teams, and the CEO of waste management firm Veolia regularly goes out with his staff when they collect trash.

What MBWA Can Achieve

MBWA can produce a huge range of results. It can, for example, help you to be more **approachable**. People are reluctant to approach a manager who seems to be busy, or who, if they're not, more **approachable**, so, if suspect are often reluctant to speak with their managers because they feel intimidated or they think that they won't care. But when your team members see you as a person as well as a manager they'll trust you and be more willing to share ideas and pain points with you.

Frequent, natural and trusting **communication** can be infectious, and it encourages people to work together as a team. With better communication and an improved sense of what's happening in your team, you'll likely spot big problems before they happen, and you'll be in a better position to **coach** your team to avoid them.

Business knowledge, **commercial awareness** and problem-solving opportunities can all take leaps forward when you better connect with your "front line." You'll improve your understanding of the functions, people and processes at work there, and you'll boost people's company and industry knowledge. Everyone is better equipped to perform their roles when they have the right information, and they are energized by an improved flow of ideas.

Morale is all likely get a lift from MBWA, too. Teams and organizations to be treated really do help people to feel more motivated, more inspired, and more connected. Furthermore, you'll boost **accountability** and productivity, as any actions that you agree upon with your people will likely get done because you see one another regularly.

Dangers to Avoid

"Wandering around" may seem easy to do and harmless enough, but it's important to do it right. **Research** has shown that simply being physically present with your people isn't enough. It's the post-walk actions that count, and that's **key**. The problems that you solve that will determine the success of your MBWA strategy. If you don't strike the right balance, you can wind up doing more harm than good.

Don't, for example, do MBWA just because you feel obliged to – this probably won't work very well. You must truly want to get to know your staff and operations, and you have to commit to following up on people's concerns and to seeking continuous improvement.

A big benefit of MBWA is that people can be open with you, but, if you "shut down" when you hear a negative comment or fail to follow up when you promise to do so, they might perceive you as defensive or as someone who doesn't keep his word.

Gauging the level of **trust** O within your environment is important because, if people don't trust you, MBWA could make them think that you're interfering or spying. It's also important to consider your team members' preferences and to tailor your approach to these. For example, some team members may be happy for you to offer suggestions or improvements within earshot of co-workers, but another might be embarrassed by it, or even get angry about it.

How to Manage by Wandering Around

The biggest challenge when implementing MBWA is to overcome the habit of being "too busy," and to start walking around. These tips can help you to get going.

Relax

People will sense your casualness and they'll respond accordingly. SMF discussions held in formal spaces will lead to rigid responses, so keep your team members at ease with relaxed and unstructured conversations. Take advantage where people will likely feel relaxed, such as at their desks or in a neutral place, rather than in your office.

Watch your **body language** O, too, and your **dress** O. Turning up at a production line wearing a crisp pinstripped suit, for instance, may distance you from your people and put them off talking to you.

Listen and observe more than you talk

Take care to sound inquisitive rather than intrusive. You can ask your people what they're working on, how comfortable they feel doing their jobs, what they find difficult, whether they see how their work contributes to "the big picture," and so on. Ask them for ideas about how to make things better.

Hold back from saying what you think, and **listen actively** O to your team members' replies. Give them your undivided attention. When they see that you're interested in what they have to say, they'll likely be more open and receptive, and you'll build rapport.

When you talk, be open and truthful. If you don't know the answer to someone's question, find it out afterward and follow up. If you can't share something, say so. Telling half-truths can break down trust, and trust is crucial for successful MBWA.

To take it a step further, consider trying out your team members' work, to experience what they experience and to understand the issues that they face.

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Be inclusive

Don't favor one department or team more than another, or people may feel left out. Instead, spread your attention evenly. Anyone can have great ideas or need support, so talk to everybody, regardless of their job title or position. If people work remotely, make the effort to get in touch with them. If they work the night shift, stay late to talk to them.

Recognize good work

Always look for successes rather than failures and, if you see something good, **compliment** O the person. This is an effective and simple way to show your gratitude and to boost morale.

Spread the word

Share good news and reinstill company goals, values and vision within your team. Tell people how your aims for the team fit with the big picture. Your "wanderings" are opportunities to share information that helps everyone to understand and do their jobs better.

Embrace "chat"

Effective organizations aren't all about work. MBWA allows you to strike a balance between people's work and their personal lives, and to enjoy the lighter side of your job. Enjoying a joke or two, chatting with team members about their hobbies, and finding out their kids' names helps to build relationships.

You don't need to befriend them on Facebook or shoot pool together after work, but you may be surprised by how great it feels to relate with your colleagues on a personal level.

Don't overdo It

Don't leave people feeling that you're always looking over their shoulder! Wander around often enough to get a good feel for what's going O on, but make it a key part of your management strategy – but not so often that your presence feels like a distraction. Try not to do it at the same time each day: be spontaneous and unplanned, frequent but random.

Review your conversations

Your presence alone isn't enough to impact frontline staff performance. Be sure to review the things that you've learned – both the good and the bad – and take action accordingly.

Key Points

Management by Wandering Around can be an effective and practical way to keep up with what's happening within your team and your organization.

Make the effort to reach out and build relationships with your people. This can pay off significantly with the information that you'll gather and the trust that you'll build. A team spirit can naturally develop when you show a genuine interest in your people and their work. It's also a great way to keep the company's vision alive, it's easy and economical, and can be a lot of fun!

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the article does define the fine lines - which is so often missed out, thank you

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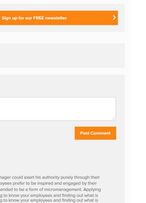

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Over a month ago

Michelle wrote

Hi plymouth_footback,

Good observation. The days when a manager could exert his authority purely through their position are disappearing. Today's employees prefer to be inspired and engaged by their managers, and MBWA is a great way to do this. It's not about "monitoring" employees, it's about MBWA now would be more about getting to know your employees and finding out what is MBWA now would be more about getting to know your employees and finding out what is preventing them from doing their best work.

Michelle
Mind Tools Team

Over a month ago

plymouth_footback wrote

There is a lot of good advice here.

One of the key messages is to not over-do it. Often you will find newly appointed managers (middle leaders) managers in that first such positions who use MBWA as a way of imposing their authority, instead of using the strategy as a way of finding out what is going on.

This is strongly linked to the early days of 'positional' leadership/ management. It is something that people need to be trained to do properly.

Over a month ago

BillT wrote

Hi stagnol,

MBWA is a great way of showing that you care about your employees as well. It gives you the chance to correct about all sorts of issues. Thanks for the great feedback.

BillT
Mind Tools Team

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Staff and line

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Staff and line are names given to different types of functions in organizations. A "line function" is one that directly advances an organization in its core work. This always includes production and sales, and sometimes also marketing.[1] A "staff function" supports the organization with specialized advisory and support functions. For example, human resources, accounting, public relations and the legal department are generally considered to be staff functions.[2] Both terms originated in the military.

Contents [hide]

1 Organizational lifecycle
2 Relative authority
3 Conflict between line and staff
4 Downsizing of staff function
5 See also
6 References

Organizational lifecycle [edit]

Organizations begin as line-only, with line manager having direct control over all activities, including administrative ones. Only later, as organizations grow in size, do they add staff positions.[3]

Relative authority [edit]

Line managers have total authority over those who report directly to them, but staff workers have primarily advisory authority. Their function is to create, develop, collect and analyze shop information, which flows to line workers in the form of advice.[4]

Staff positions can have four kinds of authority: "advise authority," with line managers choosing whether or not to seek advice from the staff person, and deciding what to do with the advice once they get it; "compulsory advice" or "compulsory consultation" in which line managers must consider the staff person's advice, but can choose not to heed it; "concurrent authority," in which the line manager cannot finalize a decision without the agreement of the staff person, and "functional authority" in which the staff person has complete formal authority over his or her area of specialty, such as the Personnel Department in the United States Navy. The Staff Officer in this role is typically a rank of O-3(LT) or O-4(LCDR) and is granted authority over personnel assigned to those specific roles. [5] Common types of functional authority for staff positions include authority over recruiting standards, reimbursement policies and quality standards.[6]

Staff workers derive influence from expert authority or "authority of knowledge," from their control of information which may be vital to line managers, and from their closer access to upper management.[7][8]

Conflict between line and staff [edit]

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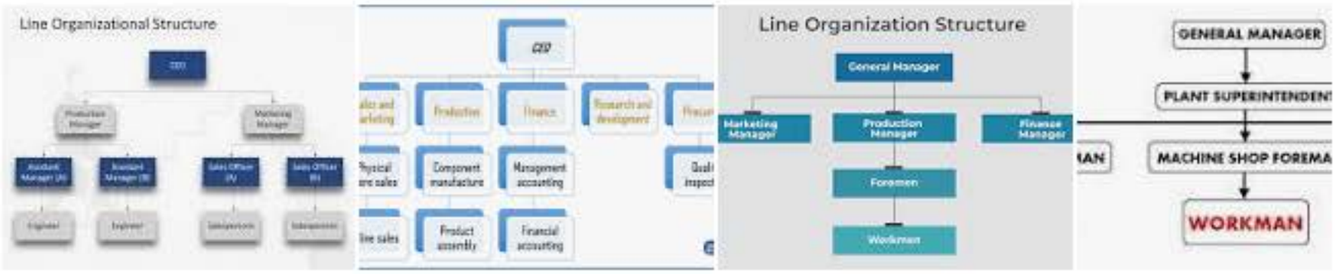

Line organisation is the basic framework for the whole **organisation**. It represents a direct vertical relationship through which authority flows. This is the simplest and oldest, known as chain of command or scalar principle. The authority flows from top to the lower levels.

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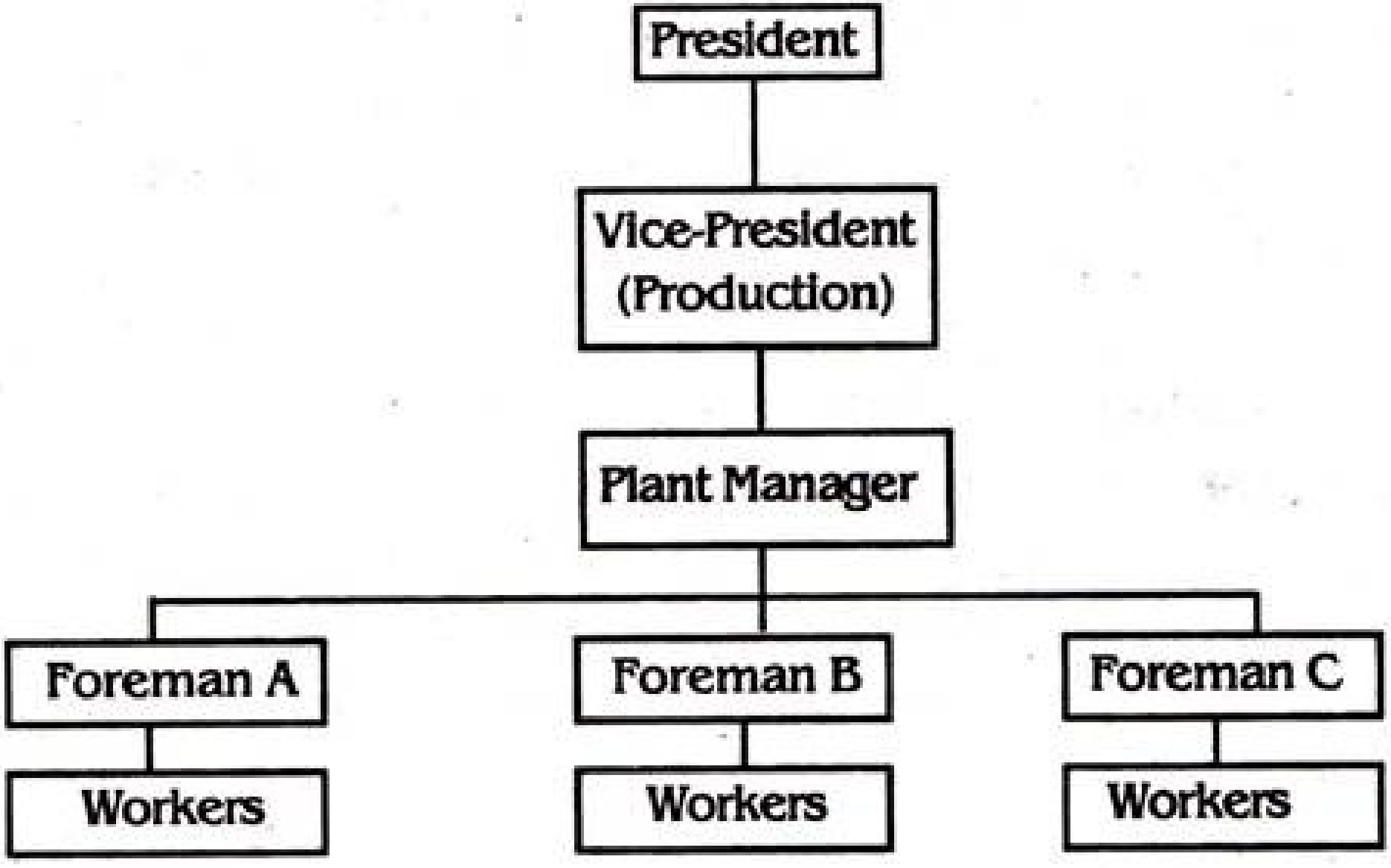

FIGURE 6.11 : LINE ORGANIZATION

The line system focuses excessively on authority, and the functional organization divides the firm into departments. This is where we come up with a perfect combination to avoid these limitations, i.e. the line and staff organization structure.

In a line and staff organization structure, both the line managers and the staff have their own important roles to play. In this structure, the authority flows from the top down.

The line manager is the one in charge. He is the one with the authority to make all the important decisions of the company. And he is also responsible for these decisions and the performance of his employees.

The staff is the experts in this scenario. They have the knowledge and expertise of their field and are there to assist their line managers. They have an advisory role in the firm.

But since they do not have authority over the line managers, the line managers can choose to take their advice or ignore it. So the main objective of the staff is to come up with solutions to problems. They help the line manager in attaining the company's objectives and goals.

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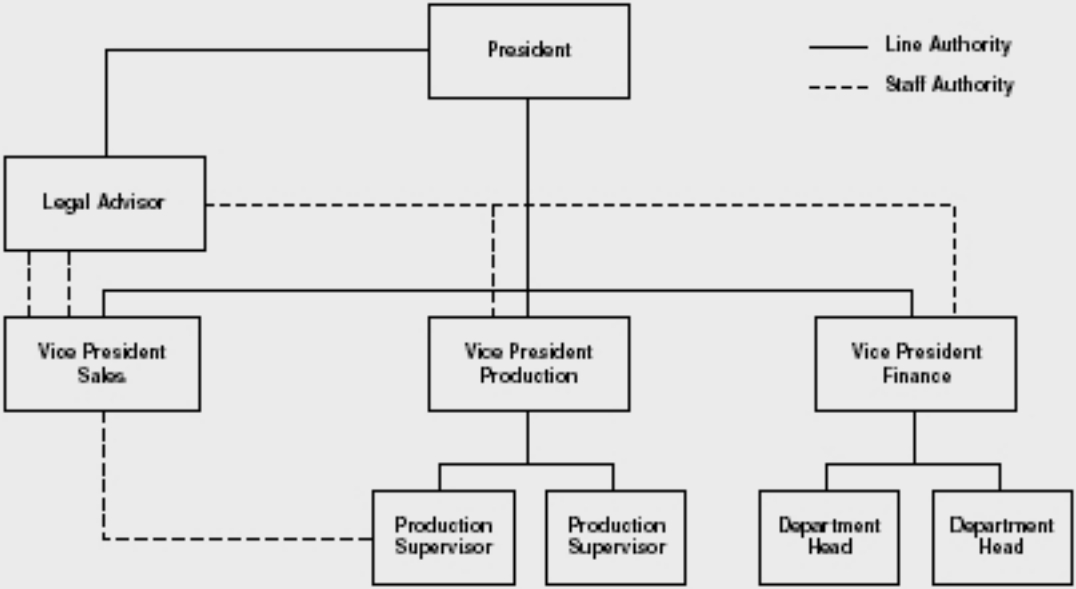
Figure 1
Line-and-Staff Organization



Peter Principle

By ADAM HAYES | Reviewed By MARGARET JAMES | Updated Aug 21, 2020

What Is the Peter Principle?

The Peter Principle is an observation that the tendency in most organizational hierarchies, such as that of a corporation, is for every employee to rise in the hierarchy through promotion until they reach a level of respective incompetence. In other words, a front-office secretary who is quite good at her job may thus be promoted to executive assistant to the CEO for which she is not trained or prepared for—meaning that she would be more productive for the company (and likely herself) if she had not been promoted.

The Peter Principle is thus based on the paradoxical idea that competent employees will continue to be promoted, but at some point will be promoted into positions for which they are incompetent, and they will then remain in those positions because of the fact that they do not demonstrate any further competence that would get them recognized for additional promotion.

According to the Peter Principle, every position in a given hierarchy will eventually be filled by employees who are incompetent to fulfill the job duties of their respective positions.

- The Peter Principle observes that employees rise up through a firm's hierarchy through promotion until they reach a level of respective incompetence.
- As a result, according to the Peter Principle, every position in a given hierarchy will eventually be filled by employees who are incompetent to fulfill the job duties of their respective positions.
- A possible solution to the problem posed by the Peter Principle is for companies to provide adequate skill training for employees receiving a promotion, and to ensure the training is appropriate for the position to which they have been promoted.

What's the Peter Principle?

Understanding the Peter Principle

The Peter Principle was laid out by Canadian educational scholar and sociologist, Dr. Laurence J. Peter, in his 1968 book titled "The Peter Principle." Dr. Peter stated in his book that an employee's inability to fulfill the requirements of a given position that he is promoted to may not be the result of general incompetence on the part of the employee as much as it is due to the fact that the position simply requires different skills than those the employee actually possesses.

For example, an employee who is very good at following rules or company policies may be promoted into the position of creating rules or policies, despite the fact that being a good rule follower does not mean that an individual is well-suited to be a good rule creator.

Dr. Peter summed up the Peter Principle with a twist on the old adage that "the cream rises to the top" by stating that "the cream rises until it sours." In other words, excellent employee performance is inevitably promoted to the point where the employee's performance is no longer excellent, or even satisfactory.

According to the Peter Principle, competence is rewarded with the promotion because competence, in the form of employee output, is noticeable, and thus usually recognized. However, once an employee reaches a position in which they are incompetent, they are no longer evaluated based on their output but instead are evaluated on input factors, such as arriving at work on time and having a good attitude.

Dr. Peter further argued that employees tend to remain in positions for which they are incompetent because mere incompetence is rarely sufficient to cause the employee to be fired from the position. Ordinarily, only extreme incompetence causes dismissal.

Important: Most people will not turn down a promotion, especially if it comes with greater pay and prestige—even if they know they are unqualified for the position.

Overcoming the Peter Principle

A possible solution to the problem posed by the Peter Principle is for companies to provide adequate skills training for employees both before and after receiving a promotion, and to ensure the training is appropriate for the position to which they have been promoted.

However, Dr. Peter pessimistically predicted that even good employee training is ultimately unable to overcome the general tendency of organizations to promote employees to positions of incompetence, which he refers to as positions of "final placement." Promoting people at random has been another proposal, but one that does not always sit well with employees.

Evidence for the Peter Principle

The Peter Principle sounds intuitive once the idea is understood, and models can be built that predict the phenomenon. Still, it is difficult to get real-world evidence for its widespread occurrence.

In 2018, economists Alan Benson, Danielle Li, and Kelly Shue analyzed sales workers' performance and promotion practices at 214 American businesses to test the Peter principle. They found that companies did indeed tend to promote employees to management positions based on their performance in their previous position, rather than based on managerial potential. Consistent with the Peter principle, the researchers found that high performing sales employees were likelier to be promoted -- and that they were also more likely to perform poorly as managers, leading to considerable costs to the businesses.

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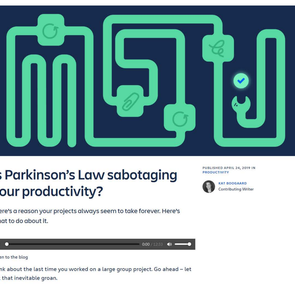

Is Parkinson's Law sabotaging your productivity?

PUBLISHED APRIL 24, 2019 IN PRODUCTIVITY
KAY BOUSSARD
Contributing Writer

There's a reason your projects always seem to take forever. Here's what to do about it.

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Think about the last time you worked on a large group project. Go ahead – let out that inevitable groan.

Now, think about the last time you worked on a group project that was completed ahead of schedule. Yep, I hear those crickets.

Team projects are notorious for taking far more time than expected, which means you don't have to go far to find some famous examples.

Apple pushed off the launch of their HomePod because they needed "a little more time" to refine it. Windows continuously delayed an anticipated feature for Windows 10, before quietly axing it altogether. Even construction of the Sydney Opera House was only supposed to take four years. It ended up taking 14.

But why does this happen? Why does team productivity (and as a result, your schedule) run off the rails? Parkinson's Law has a lot to do with it.

What is Parkinson's Law?

Parkinson's Law is the old adage that work expands to fill the time allotted. Put simply, the amount of work required adjusts (usually increasing) to the time available for its completion. The term was first coined by Cyril Northcote Parkinson in a humorous essay he wrote for the Economist in 1955. Read his original article here.

Here's a simple example. You and your team have two weeks to plan a surprise party for one of your colleagues. It's more than enough time to reserve the conference room, order a cake, and buy some party hats.

But because you know you have more than enough time at your disposal, that party grows more and more complex. Kate wants to create an embarrassing slideshow. Brandon is eager to decorate the conference room. Maureen thinks your team should create a handmade card.

Now that party that should've really been a simple and quick undertaking is something that actually requires the two weeks to complete. That's Parkinson's Law in action.

Why teams fall victim to Parkinson's Law

Aside from the work itself becoming increasingly complex, procrastination is another key player in Parkinson's Law. Knowing that we have a set amount of time to do something often inspires us to leave work to the very last minute– and our delays in getting started mean the time required for that task expands.

Aumarie Benipayo, a program manager at Atlassian, saw this happen firsthand in a previous position, where she worked with development teams that organized work into four-week sprints. "All of the work that was required for that sprint was coming in at the very end," she says. "Nothing was being completed in the duration of the four weeks."

Why? Well, one educated guess is that looming deadlines are motivating. The Yerkes-Dodson Law says that there's an optimal level of arousal that improves our task performance. So, that fast-approaching end date gives us a much-needed kick in the pants to buckle down and focus.

While Parkinson's Law is most often talked about in regards to personal productivity, it really rears its ugly head in group settings where counterproductive tendencies – like social loafing, primarily – are ever-present.

Procrastination is prevalent in team projects, because people feel supported by the safety net of their other team members (anybody who ended up carrying the weight during a school project knows this to be true).

"You know there are a lot of other people responsible, which sort of lessens your own agency and those feelings of social responsibility get distributed out among the whole group," explains Nick Wignall, a clinical psychologist and author.

How to overcome Parkinson's Law and amp up your productivity

Understanding Parkinson's Law is only half the battle. What you really want to know is how to prevent that eleventh-hour crunch to get work shipped.

However, combating Parkinson's Law isn't something that will easily happen when you've smack dab in the middle of a project.

The best route is to start early by planning a successful project kickoff where you can set expectations about how your team will approach and conquer those larger projects that are prone to scope creep and procrastination. Here's what you should cover during that meeting.

1. Clearly outline your vision statement and drivers

Imagine that your boss just asked you to alphabetize a giant stack of files (no rush – whenever you can get around to it). You have no idea what the files are, if they're important, or why they need to be alphabetized. How motivated are you to tackle those files right away?

Not very, right? That's because there's no clear importance or impact associated with the task, and research shows that teams who understand how their work fits in to the bigger picture are more effective (they're more creative and resilient, to boot).

At the start of your group project, it should be made painfully obvious to your team:

- What this project's value is (this is the vision)
- Why this project makes sense for your team and your organization (these are the drivers)

Ensuring alignment around those pieces empowers team members to see the impact of their work, which will ignite their motivation and sense of ownership over their assigned tasks and milestones.

2. Clarify roles and responsibilities

For any project, but especially ones with a lot of different players and teams in the mix, it's crucial that you clearly outline where everybody fits.

Benipayo uses the DACI framework to establish clear roles related to group work and decision-making. "DACI" stands for:

- **D = Drives.** The one person responsible for corralling stakeholders, collating all necessary information, and getting a decision made by the agreed date. This may or may not be the project's full-time owner, depending on the decision.
- **A = Approves.** The one person who makes the decision.
- **C = Contributors.** They have knowledge or expertise that may influence the decision (i.e., they have a voice, but no vote).
- **I = Informed.** They are informed of the final decision.

Using this sort of framework to show team members how their role fits in helps to prevent buck-passing and social loafing, as they're forced to take more accountability for their assigned responsibilities and contributions.

This also helps to streamline expectations around communication and feedback, which can be major sticking points in group projects.

This framework establishes who has the final say on decisions and projects, which eliminates a lot of the back and forth about (oftentimes conflicting) revisions and suggestions that cause projects to expand and drag on.

3. Understand what's in and out of scope

Remember, Parkinson's Law is more than a fancy term for procrastination – it means that work expands to fill the allotted time. That's the very definition of scope creep, isn't it?

During your project kickoff, you and your team should agree upfront about what is in and out of scope for the project.

By establishing these guidelines from the outset, your whole team is better equipped to nip Parkinson's Law in the bud. When a new feature request or another suggestion comes up during the course of the project, you can point back to your project kickoff and remind the team that you all agreed that sort of thing was out of scope.

Think of this step as building a box for your project. You define parameters that the project needs to fit within, which is a surefire way to curb work expansion as it's happening, rather than after it's already sabotaged your timeline.

4. Identify your trade-offs

Despite your best intentions in hosting an effective project kickoff, things still happen. Unexpected surprises crop up and threaten to throw your whole project out of scope and off schedule.

In those moments, you'll be glad that you identified your trade-offs early on. Your trade-offs allow you to see where you have the most wiggle room available in a project, should you need to make last-minute adjustments.

Timing, scope, and budget are the most common vectors to play with here, and these should be prioritized during your kickoff.

For example, if your team is working to get a new product created ahead of an upcoming user conference, then timing is your most important metric. The product absolutely needs to be done by then, which might mean you'll need to make some tradeoffs in terms of scope (reducing features) and/or budget (investing more).

This might seem disheartening to do at the start of a project, but it's undeniably helpful when you reach those critical moments when decisions need to be made. Benipayo explains that understanding trade-offs was a huge benefit during the recent redesign of this very blog you are reading right now!

"Once we realized that the work was not going to be completed in time as it was scoped, the team was able to go back and re-prioritize what was most important for launch," says Benipayo.

It's almost the exact opposite of Parkinson's Law – rather than work expanding to fit allotted time, you might actually need to reduce the work or other expectations to fit the time window.

5. Set your timeline

It's interesting that the timeline is the last step of the project kickoff, isn't it? That almost never happens in real life. But it's a smart way to approach projects.

Think about building a house. You wouldn't approach a builder and say, "I need a house that's this size and looks exactly like this example, and I need it by this date." No, you and the builder would talk through your expectations and the work required, and then set a completion date with that information in mind.

In an ideal world, group projects would work the same way. The timeline would come last, after you and team members have agreed on the scope.

While outlining your timeline, you should identify milestones and deadlines that occur within the project. "You need to be really deliberate about breaking down group projects or goals into subgroups," explains Wignall.

This makes the larger project more manageable, and instills a greater sense of urgency to get the work started – even if the end date for the whole project isn't fast-approaching, the deadline for their first task certainly is. Plus, this allows the team to feel like they're gaining meaningful momentum on the project, which is highly motivating (something referred to as the progress principle).

Stop Parkinson's Law before it starts

We're all familiar with the dreaded realization that your group project – the one you were convinced you had so much time to tackle – is now totally behind schedule.

Now you know that you can blame Parkinson's Law for that very thing. But here's the good news: You can do something about it. By following the above steps, you can host a successful project kickoff and set your team up for success right from the outset.

Hey, your group projects still might not get done *ahead* of schedule – but at least you'll boost your chances of getting them wrapped up on time. That's an improvement, right?

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Organizational Structure

By WILL KENTON | Reviewed By AMY DRURY | Updated Jul 1, 2020

What Is an Organizational Structure?

An organizational structure is a system that outlines how certain activities are directed in order to achieve the goals of an organization. These activities can include rules, roles, and responsibilities.

The organizational structure also determines how information flows between levels within the company. For example, in a centralized structure, decisions flow from the top down, while in a decentralized structure, decision-making power is distributed among various levels of the organization.

Having an organizational structure in place allows companies to remain efficient and focused.

Understanding Organizational Structures

Businesses of all shapes and sizes use organizational structures heavily. They define a specific hierarchy within an organization. A successful organizational structure defines each employee's job and how it fits within the overall system. Put simply, the organizational structure lays out who does what so the company can meet its objectives.

This structuring provides a company with a visual representation of how it is

Feedback

Take the next step and learn how to reorganize your company.
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7 types of organizational structures (+ org charts for implementation)

Posted By Sharon Wilkins

Types of organizational structures

1. Hierarchical org structure
2. Functional org structure
3. Horizontal or flat org structure
4. Divisional org structure (market based, product based, geographic)
5. Matrix org structure
6. Team-based org structure
7. Network org structure

At some point, you have likely seen an organizational chart for your company. And we can probably guess what it looked like. The typical org chart looks like a pyramid, your C level executives at the top with lines stretching down to middle management and finally staff level employees.

But not every company functions best with a hierarchical organizational structure. Many types of organizational charts exist because many types of organizational structures exist.

Let's go through the seven common types of org structures and examples of when you might consider each one.

1. Hierarchical org structure

Hierarchical Org Chart Example (Click on image to ready online)

The pyramid-shaped organizational chart we referred to earlier is a hierarchical structure. Hierarchy is the most common type of organizational structure—the chain of command goes from the top (e.g., the CEO or manager) down (e.g., entry level and low-level employees) and each employee has a supervisor.

Pros

- Better defines levels of authority and responsibility
- Shows who each person reports to or who to talk to about specific projects
- Clarifies employees with clear career paths and chances for promotion
- Gives each employee a specialty
- Creates camaraderie between employees within the same department

Cons

- Can slow down innovation or important changes due to increased bureaucracy
- Can cause employees to act in interest of the department instead of the company as a whole
- Can make lower level employees feel like they have less ownership and can't express their ideas for the company

2. Functional org structure

Functional Org Chart Example (Click on image to ready online)

Similar to a hierarchical organizational structure, a functional org structure starts with positions with the highest levels of responsibility at the top and goes down from there. However, though, employees are organized according to their specific skills, such as accounting, manufacturing, or marketing. Each separate department is managed independently.

Pros

- Allows employees to focus on their role
- Encourages specialization
- Help teams and departments feel self-determined
- It is easily scalable in any level company

Cons

- Can create silos within organization
- Can cause interdepartmental communication
- Discourages processes and strategies for different markets or products in a company

3. Horizontal or flat org structure

Horizontal or Flat Org Chart Example (Click on image to ready online)

A horizontal or flat organizational structure fits companies with low levels between upper management and staff level employees. Many start-up businesses use a horizontal org structure before they grow large enough to build out different departments. Flat organizational structures are flexible and can encourage less supervision and more involvement from all employees.

Pros

- Gives employees more responsibility
- Fosters more open communication
- Improves coordination and speed of implementing new ideas

Cons

- Can create confusion since employees do not have a clear supervisor to report to
- Can produce employees with more generalized skills and knowledge
- Can be difficult to maintain once the company grows beyond start-up status

4. Divisional org structure

In divisional organizational structures, a company's divisions have control over their own resources, essentially operating like their own company within the larger organization. Each division can have its own marketing team, sales team, IT team, etc. This structure works well for large companies as it empowers each division to make decisions without everyone having to report to just a few executives.

Depending on your organization's focus, there's a few variations to consider.

Market based divisional org structure

Divisions are separated by market, industry, or customer type. A large consumer goods company, like Target or Walmart, might have divisions focused on Food, Beverages, Electronics, etc. (Or by brand or logistics division.)

Market Based Divisional Org Chart Example (Click on image to ready online)

Product based divisional org structure

Divisions are separated by product line. For example, a tech company might have a division dedicated to its cloud offerings, while the rest of the divisions focus on the different software offerings (e.g., Adobe and its creative suite of Illustrator, Photoshop, InDesign, etc.).

Product Based Divisional Org Chart Example (Click on image to ready online)

Geographic divisional org structure

Divisions are separated by region, territories, or districts, offering more effective localization and logistics. Companies might establish satellite offices across the country country or the globe in order to stay close to their customers.

Geographic Divisional Org Chart Example (Click on image to ready online)

Pros

- Helps large companies stay flexible
- Allows for a quicker response to industry changes or customer needs
- Promotes independence, autonomy, and a customized approach

Cons

- Can easily lead to duplicate resources
- Can mean muddled or insufficient communication between the headquarters and its divisions
- Can result in a company competing with itself

5. Matrix org structure

Matrix Org Chart Example (Click on image to ready online)

A matrix organizational chart looks like a grid, and it shows cross functional teams that form for special projects. For example, an engineer may regularly belong to the engineering department (led by an engineering director) but work on a temporary project (led by a project manager). The matrix org chart accounts for both of these roles and reporting relationships.

Pros

- Allows supervisors to easily choose individuals by the needs of a project
- Allows for more dynamic view of the organization
- Encourages employees to use their skills in various capacities aside from their original roles

Cons

- Presents a conflict between department managers and project managers
- Can change more frequently than other organizational chart types

6. Team-based org structure

Team Based Org Chart Example (Click on image to ready online)

It'll come as no surprise that a team based organizational structure groups employees into teams to take on a team's specific goals. Teams can be cross-functional or focused on a specific project. Teams can also be formed to focus on problem solving, cooperation, and giving employees more control.

Pros

- Increases productivity, performance, and transparency by breaking down silos
- Promotes a growth mindset
- Changes the traditional career models by getting people to work together
- Values experience rather than seniority
- Requires minimal management
- Fits well with agile companies with scrum or Sigm teams

Cons

- Goes against many companies' natural inclination of a purely hierarchical structure
- Might make promotional paths less clear for employees

See why Scrum/ Sigm teams is a smart move for your organization.
Learn more >

7. Network org structure

Network Org Structure Example (Click on image to ready online)

Three days, five businesses have all their services under one roof, and juggling the multitudes of vendors, subcontractors, freelancers, office locations, and satellite offices can get confusing. Companies with network organizational charts are the sprawl of resources. It can also describe an internal structure that focuses more on open communication and relationships rather than hierarchy.

Pros

- Visualizes the complete web of onsite and offsite resources and relationships
- Allows companies to be more flexible and agile
- Give more power to all employees to collaborate, take initiative, and make decisions
- Allows companies and stakeholders understand workflows and processes

Cons

- Can quickly become overly complex when dealing with lots of offsite processes
- Can make it more difficult for employees to know who has final say

Consider the needs of your organization, including the company culture that you want to develop, and choose one of these organizational structures.

Once you've chosen the right org structure, it's time to make your company reorganization process.
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About the Author

About the Author

Shannon Williams graduated from BYU in English and then turned to the world of marketing. She works as a content marketing specialist at Lucid Software. Instead of writing her name on a piece of paper, she writes it on the backs of strangers, reading, dreaming about Oscar season, and watching Gilmore Girls on loop.

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Q&A: What Is the Classical Management Theory?

December 12, 2019

The classical management theory was introduced during the Industrial Revolution as a way to improve productivity within factories and other businesses. While less common in today's society, this type of management may still provide benefits for some organizations. In this article, we will discuss what the classical management theory is as well as the pros and cons of this form of management in the modern workplace.

What is the classical management theory?

The classical management theory is a style of management that emphasizes hierarchy, specialized roles and single leadership for optimized efficiency in the workplace.

The classical management theory is based on the following principles:

- Scientific management should be used to determine the most efficient way to do a job.
- Employees are selected to perform tasks based on their skills and specializations.
- Operations should be streamlined as much as possible.
- Decisions are made by a single person or by a select few authority figures.
- Productivity is the primary goal.
- Increased profit is given priority.

Concepts of the classical management theory

Additionally, the classical management theory holds that an ideal workplace is one that implements the following concepts:

- **Centralized structure of leadership:** The classical management theory holds that a workplace should be overseen by three levels of leadership. The first level is composed of the business owners and/or executives of the company. These individuals are given the highest level of authority and set the long-term goals of an organization. The second level of leadership consists of middle management. Individuals considered to be middle management are in charge of overseeing managers and setting department-level goals. The third level is composed of supervisors or managers who oversee the day-to-day operations of a company.
- **Labor specialization:** This concept focuses on an "assembly line" set up within an organization. This structure involves breaking down large tasks or projects into smaller tasks that are assigned to employees. Workers are typically responsible for only one specific task to prevent multitasking and increase productivity.
- **Wage incentives:** The classical management theory places emphasis not on employees' job satisfaction or social needs but rather on physical needs. This theory holds that these physical needs can be met through income and monetary incentives and uses the opportunity for wage increases to motivate employees.

Advantages of the classical management theory

While not as common within the modern workplace, the classical management theory can provide a number of benefits in the appropriate business setting. The following are a few advantages of this type of management:

Clear organization hierarchy

As discussed above, the classical management theory includes three distinct levels of management within an organization. This provides a clear outline of responsibilities and objectives for each member of management and reduces any confusion as to what a particular manager should focus on.

An easy-to-understand division of labor

Under the classical management theory, organizations establish clear divisions of labor that plainly outline the expectations and duties of an employee. Tasks are typically easier to understand and employees are given specific projects to complete that fall within their abilities and specializations. As a result, productivity is often increased and workers avoid having to multitask to fulfill their duties.

Increased productivity through monetary rewards

The classical management theory believes that employees are strongly motivated by their physical needs and more specifically, monetary incentives. As such, organizations that implement this management style often incorporate regular opportunities for employees to be rewarded for their productivity with incentives. This can increase an employee's feeling of appreciation through recognition of their accomplishments as well as make it easier for managers to motivate workers.

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Single-leader decision making

A primary component of the classical management theory is that a single leader or select few leaders make decisions on behalf of a company. Organizations that use this method of management make decisions at the highest level and then communicate the decisions down the ladder of management. This can be beneficial for companies that regularly need decisions to be made quickly or for smaller businesses that rely on a single leader.

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Disadvantages of the classical management theory

As with many styles of management, the classical management theory also comes with a few disadvantages that may make this type of management inappropriate for a particular company. The following are potential disadvantages to consider when deciding whether to implement this management style in your organization:

Limited emphasis on employee job satisfaction and human relations

This theory focuses primarily on the physical needs of an employee and can overlook the employee's social needs which is a vital component for some in their overall job satisfaction.

For example, the classical management theory does not take into consideration a worker's need to connect with others in the workplace or utilize creativity when performing duties. This can be a disadvantage for companies that rely on teamwork, creative contributions and open communication.

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Increased levels of pressure placed on employees

The classical management theory is primarily concerned with an employee's productivity and output. As a result, employees can feel increased pressure to complete tasks in a certain period of time, which can lead to stress and discouragement.

Restricts the implementation of new ideas and concepts

This management theory is based on the belief that there is one right way to complete tasks for maximum production. As a result, an organization's ability to grow and implement new ideas and concepts is often limited. In turn, employees may feel restricted in their ability to express their ideas and unique value.

Tips for implementing the classical management theory in your business

If you are considering implementing the classical management theory in your workplace, there are a number of things you can do to increase the success of this management style. Use the following tips during implementation.

- **Establish a standard operating procedure:** A standard operating procedure should be clearly outlined for each specific task within the workplace. This operating procedure should include the amount of time the task is expected to take as well as other goals for each task. This will ensure that workers have a clear understanding of their responsibilities and goals when beginning a task.
- **Complete the task selection process in a considerate way:** Selecting the right workers for a particular task is key to ensuring that employees are able to meet their job expectations. Consider each worker's abilities and skills and match them accordingly to the most appropriate tasks.
- **Regularly provide worker incentives:** Offering incentives on a regular basis as well as providing verbal praise and recognition for employees performing well can greatly increase worker motivation and productivity.

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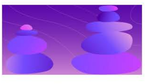

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The Importance of Human Relations in the Workplace

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By Matt Petryni Updated February 01, 2019

Relationships between employees and management are of substantial value in any workplace. Human relations is the process of training employees, addressing their needs, fostering a workplace culture and resolving conflicts between different employees or between employees and management. Understanding some of the the ways that human relations can impact the costs, competitiveness and long-term economic sustainability of a business helps to underscore their importance.

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Employee Collaboration and Workplace Culture

Human relations in the workplace are a major part of what makes a business work. Employees must frequently work together on projects, communicate ideas and provide motivation to get things done. Without a stable and inviting workplace culture, difficult challenges can arise both in the logistics of managing employees and in the bottom line. Businesses with engaging workplaces and a well-trained workforce are more likely to retain and attract qualified employees, foster loyalty with customers and more quickly adapt to meet the needs of a changing marketplace.

Improving Employee Retention

The quality of workplace relations is critical to employee retention. Employee retention may seem trivial – especially in a workplace that is used to a high turnover – but managers must remember that turnover is financially very costly. Every new employee requires a substantial investment of time and energy in their recruitment and training.

In addition, severing ties with old employees can sometimes be challenging, especially if the circumstances are not particularly amicable. Making sure quality employees remain interested and engaged in the business requires patience, compassion and flexibility, but can actually make the business more financially sound.

Motivation and Productivity

Workplace relationships provide a source of employee motivation, which is important to maintaining productivity. Employees who are interested in their work and in the well-being of other employees tend to be more productive than those who are not. This productivity pays obvious financial dividends to the company, as it can get more done in less time with fewer costs. Building relationships, by both recognizing an employee's value to the company and a concern for their needs, often goes a long way.

Fostering Employee Creativity

The modern business environment often rewards businesses that are able to quickly develop products that meet changing consumer needs. In some industries – such as technology, for example – employees' ability to come up with effective new ideas is often the difference between the entire company's success and failure. Employees' creativity is often dependent on their ability to communicate with other employees and share ideas. Without quality workplace relationships, employees are less likely to be able to develop and share the solutions that a business needs to survive.

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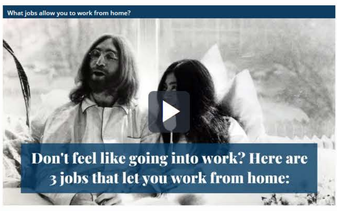

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About the Author

Matt Petryni has been writing since 2007. He was the environmental issues columnist at the "Oregon Daily Emerald" and has experience in environmental and land-use planning. Petryni holds a Bachelor of Science of planning, public policy and management from the University of Oregon.

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Hawthorne Effect

By WILL KENTON | Updated Nov 24, 2019

What Is the Hawthorne Effect?

The Hawthorne Effect is the inclination of people who are the subjects of an experimental study to change or improve the behavior being evaluated only because it is being studied and not because of changes in the experiment parameters or stimulus.

How the Hawthorne Effect Works

The Hawthorne Effect refers to the fact that people will modify their behavior simply because they are being observed. The effect gets its name from one of the most famous industrial history experiments that took place at Western Electric's factory in the Hawthorne suburb of Chicago in the late 1920s and early 1930s.

However, subsequent analysis of the effect by the University of Chicago economists in 2009 revealed that the original results were likely overstated.

The Hawthorne experiments were originally designed by the National Research Council to study the effect of shop-floor lighting on worker productivity at a telephone parts factory in Hawthorne. However, the researchers were perplexed to find that productivity improved, not just when the lighting was improved, but also when the lighting was diminished. Productivity improved whenever

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HAWTHORNE EXPERIMENTS

The Hawthorne experiments were groundbreaking studies in human relations that were conducted between 1924 and 1932 at Western Electric Company's Hawthorne Works in Chicago. Originally designed as illumination studies to determine the relationship between lighting and productivity, the initial tests were sponsored by the National Research Council (NRC) of the National Academy of Sciences. In 1927 a research team from the Harvard Business School was invited to join the studies after the illumination tests drew unanticipated results. Two additional series of tests, the relay-assembly tests and the bank-wiring tests, followed the illumination tests. The studies assumed the label Hawthorne experiments or studies from the location of the Western Electric plant. Concluded by 1932, the Hawthorne studies, with emphasis on a new interpretation of group behavior, were the basis for the school of human relations.

ILLUMINATION TESTS

In the early 1920s Chicago's Western Electric Hawthorne Works employed 12,000 workers. The plant was a primary manufacturer of telephones, and in 1924 the company provided a site to cooperate with the NRC on a series of test room studies to determine the relationship between illumination and worker efficiency. The basic idea was to vary and record levels of illumination in a test room with the expectation that as lighting was increased, productivity would too. In another test room, illumination was decreased, with the correlating expectation that efficiency would decrease. The electric power industry provided an additional impetus for these tests, hoping to encourage industries to use artificial lighting in place of natural light. The Illuminating Engineering Society's Committee on Research also supported the tests and cooperated with the NRC. From the fall of 1924 to the spring of 1927, three series of tests were conducted and carefully monitored. Three departments at the Hawthorne plant were involved—relay assembling, coil winding, and inspection. Workers were notified of the tests in order to attempt to control interference from human factors. When production increased in each test period, researchers looked to other factors such as increased **supervision** and a sense of competition that developed between the test and control groups. But the one conclusion the impressive team of industrial specialists and academics discovered was the lack of a consistent correlation between lighting levels and product output. No further tests were planned originally, but researchers were surprised at the unanticipated results.

NRC representatives and the engineers involved drew several conclusions. First, illumination was one factor in output but not the most important. More important to the tests was the realization there was not a simple answer to the issue of illumination and worker productivity and that other factors that were not controlled presented a problem with the test results—the issue of human factors. In retrospect, researchers from the NRC and the Illuminating Engineering Society (which together formed the Committee on Industrial Lighting) stated they were not surprised by the test results. They even predicted that other factors would affect the results, but their mandate was to isolate other variables, and the Hawthorne studies continued.

RELAY-ASSEMBLY TESTS

In order to observe the impact of these other factors, a second set of tests was begun before the completion of the illumination studies on April 25, 1987. The relay-assembly tests were designed to evaluate the effect rest periods and hours of work would have on efficiency. Researchers hoped to answer a series of questions concerning why output declined in the afternoon: Did the operators tire out? Did they need brief rest periods? What was the impact of changes in equipment? What were the effects of a shorter work day? What role did worker attitudes play? Hawthorne engineers led by George Pennock were the primary researchers for the relay-assembly tests, originally intended to take place for only a few months. Six women operators volunteered for the study and two more joined the test group in

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Some of the major phases of Hawthorne experiments are as follows: 1. Illumination Experiments 2. Relay Assembly Test Room Experiments 3. Mass Interviewing Programme 4. Bank Wiring Observation Room Experiment.

1. Experiments to determine the effects of changes in illumination on productivity, illumination experiments, 1924-27.

2. Experiments to determine the effects of changes in hours and other working conditions on productivity, relay assembly test room experiments, 1927-28;

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3. Conducting plant-wide interviews to determine worker attitudes and sentiments, mass interviewing programme, 1928-30; and

4. Determination and analysis of social organisation at work, bank wiring observation room experiments, 1931-32.

1. Illumination Experiments:

Illumination experiments were undertaken to find out how varying levels of illumination (amount of light at the workplace, a physical factor) affected the productivity. The assumption was that as the workplace is illuminated more and more the increased illumination the hypothesis was that with higher illumination, productivity will increase. In the first series of experiments, a group of workers was chosen and placed in two separate groups. One group was exposed to varying intensities of illumination.

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Since this group was subjected to experimental changes, it was termed as experimental group. Another group, called as control group, continued to work under constant intensities of illumination. The researchers found that as they increased the illumination in the experimental group, both groups increased production. When the intensity of illumination decreased, the production continued to increase in both the groups.

The production in the experimental group decreased only when the illumination was decreased to the level of moonlight. The decrease was due to light falling much below the normal level.

Thus, it was concluded that illumination did not have any effect on productivity but something else was interfering with the productivity. At that time, it was concluded that human factor was important in determining productivity but which aspect was affecting, it was not sure. Therefore, another phase of experiments was undertaken.

2. Relay Assembly Test Room Experiments:

Relay assembly test room experiments were designed to determine the effect of changes in various job conditions on group productivity as the illumination experiments could not establish relationship between intensity of illumination and production. For this purpose, the researchers set up a relay assembly test room two girls were chosen.

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These girls were asked to choose for more girls as co-workers. The work related to the [illegible] assembly of telephone relays. Each relay consisted of a number of parts which girls assembled into finished products. Output depended on the speed and continuity with which girls worked. The experiments started with introducing numerous changes in sequence with duration of each change ranging from four to twelve weeks.

An observer was associated with girls to supervise their work. Before each change was introduced, the girls were consulted. They were given opportunity to express their viewpoints and concerns to the supervisor. In some cases, they were allowed to take decisions on matters concerning them.

Following were the changes and resultant outcomes:

1. The incentive system was changed so that each girl's extra pay was based on the other five rather than output of larger group, say, 100 workers or so. The productivity increase as compared to before.

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2. Two five- minute rests one in the morning session and other in evening session were introduced which were increased to ten minutes. The productivity increased.

3. The rest period was reduced to five minutes but frequency was increased. The productivity decreased slightly and the girls complained that frequent rest intervals affected the rhythm of the work.

4. The number of rest was reduced to two of ten minutes of each, but in the morning, coffee or soup was served along with the sandwich and in the evening, snack was provided. The productivity increased.

5. Changes in working hours and workday were introduced, such as cutting an hour off the [illegible] end of the day and eliminating Saturday work. The girls were allowed to leave at 4.30 p.m. instead of usual 5.00 p.m. and later at 4.00 p.m. productivity increased.

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As each change was introduced, absenteeism decreased, morale increased, and less supervision was required. It was assumed that these positive factors were there because of the various factors being adjusted and making them more positive. At this time, the researchers decided to revert back to original position, that is, no rest and other benefits. Surprisingly, productivity increased further instead of going down.

This development caused a considerable amount of redirection in thinking and the result implied that productivity increased not because of positive changes in physical factors but because of the change in girls' attitudes towards work and their work group.

They developed a feeling of stability and a sense of belongings. Since there was more freedom of work, they developed a sense of responsibility and self-discipline. The relationship between supervisor and workers became close and friendly.

3. Mass Interviewing Programme:

During the course of experiments, about 20,000 interviews were conducted between 1928 and 1930 to determine employees' attitudes towards company, supervision, insurance plans, promotion and wages. Initially, these interviews were conducted by means of direct questioning such as "do you like your supervisor?" or "is he in your opinion fair or does he have favorites?" etc.

this method has disadvantage of stimulating antagonism or the oversimplified 'yes' or 'no' responses which could not get to the root of the problem, the method was changed to non-directive interviewing where interviewer was asked to listen to instead of talking, arguing or advising. The interview programme gave valuable insights about the human behaviour or advising. The interview programme gave valuable insights about the human behaviour in the company.

Some of the major findings of the programme were as follows:

1. A complaint is not necessarily an objective recital of facts; it is a symptom of personal disturbance the cause of which may be deep seated.

2. Objects, persons or events are carriers of social meanings. They become related to employee satisfaction or dissatisfaction only as the employee comes to view them from his personal situation.

3. The personal situation of the worker is a configuration, composed of a personal preference involving sentiments, desires and interests of the person and the social reference constituting the person's social past and his present interpersonal relations.

4. The position or status of worker in the company is a reference from which the worker assigns meaning and value to the events, objects and features of his environment such as hours of work, wages, etc.

5. The social organisation of the company represents a system of values from which the worker derives satisfaction or dissatisfaction according to the perception of his social status and the expected social rewards.

6. The social demands of the worker are influenced by social experience in groups both inside and outside the work plant.

During the course of interviews, it was discovered that workers' behaviour was being influenced by group behaviour. However, this conclusion was not very satisfactory and, therefore, researches decided to conduct another series of experiments. As such, the detailed study of a shop situation was started to find out the behaviour of workers in small detailed study of a shop situation was started to find out the behaviour of workers in small groups.

4. Bank Wiring Observation Room Experiment:

These experiments were conducted to find out the impact of small groups on the individuals. In this experiment, a group of 14 male workers were formed into a small work group. The men were engaged in the assembly of terminal banks for the use in telephone exchanges.

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The work involved attaching wire with switches for certain equipment used in telephone exchanges. Hourly wage for each worker was fixed on the basis of average output of each worker. Bonus as also payable on the basis of group effort.

It was expected that highly efficient workers would bring pressure on less efficient workers to increase output and take advantage of group incentive plan. However, the strategy did not work and workers established their own standard of output and this was enforced vigorously by various methods of social pressure. The workers cited various reasons for this behaviour viz. fear of unemployment, fear of increase in output, desire to protect slow workers etc.

The Hawthorne experiments clearly showed that a man at work is motivated by more than the satisfaction of economic needs. Management should recognise that people are essentially social beings and not merely economic beings. As a social being, they are members of a group and the management should try to understand group attitudes and group psychology.

The following were the main conclusions drawn by Prof. Mayo on the basis of Hawthorne studies:

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1. Social Unit:

A factory is not only a techno-economic unit, but also a social unit. Men are social beings. This social characteristic at work plays an important role in motivating people. The output increased in Relay Room due to effectively functioning of a social group with a warm relationship with its supervisors.

2. Group Influence:

The workers in a group develop a common psychological bond uniting them as £ group in the form of informal organisation. Their behaviour is influenced by these groups. Pressure of a group, rather than management demands, frequently has the strongest influence on how productive workers would be.

3. Group Behaviour:

Management must understand that a typical group behaviour can dominate or even supersede individual propensities.

4. Motivation:

Human and social motivation can play even a greater role than mere monitory incentives in moving or motivating and managing employee group.

5. Supervision:

The style of supervision affects worker's attitude to work and his productivity. A supervisor who is friendly with his workers and takes interest in their social problems can get co-[illegible] operation and better results from the subordinates.

6. Working Conditions:

Productivity increases as a result of improved working conditions in the organisation.

7. Employee Morale:

Mayo pointed out that workers were not simply cogs, in the machinery, instead the employee morale (both individual and in groups) can have profound effects on productivity.

8. Communication:

Experiments have shown that the output increases when workers are explained the logic behind various decisions and their participation in decision making brings better results.

9. Balanced Approach:

The problems of workers could not be solved by taking one factor i.e. management could not achieve the results by emphasizing one aspect. All the things should be discussed and decision be taken for improving the whole situation. A balanced approach to the whole situation can show better results.

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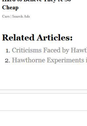

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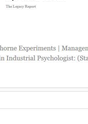

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the management of industrial labour, especially as regards relationships between people and machines.

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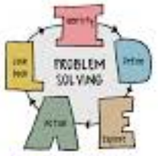

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negotiation

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noun

1. discussion aimed at reaching an agreement.
   "a worldwide ban is currently under negotiation"

   Similar: discussion(s) | talks | consultation(s) | parleying | deliberation(s)

2. the action or process of transferring legal ownership of a document.

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Negotiation

Negotiation is a dialogue between two or more people or parties intended to reach a beneficial outcome over one or more issues where a conflict exists with respect to at least one of these issues.
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The 4 Key Approaches to Great Decision-Making

March 18, 2015 / 5 Comments

Making great decisions is a key leadership responsibility. If you choose the wrong decision-making style, you could face a disaster. Choose the right style and you'll make decisions faster and more effectively.

When you make decisions, there are four decision-making styles that you can use: There's an Autocratic style, a Participatory one, a Democratic style, and a Consensus-based decision-making style. Your choice of which of those four styles to use is driven by two things. First, the urgency of making the decision – from low urgency where you've got plenty of time to make the call, to high urgency where you need a decision right now.

The second dimension to consider is the size or impact of the decision, from small decisions that won't have a large impact, to big decisions that are going to have a huge impact. As you look at which style of decision making to use, you need to consider both of these dimensions.

Autocratic Decision-Making

For situations where you have low impact and they're reasonably small decisions, but they get larger as urgency goes up, an Autocratic decision-making style is the most appropriate. In Autocratic decision-making, decisions are made at the top. Buy-in is not seen as an important aspect of making this decision. And actually, it may be counterproductive to involve a lot of people in making the call. Typically, in an environment where you're making Autocratic decisions, work activities and roles are very tightly structured, they're monitored and well controlled. Command and control is very important in these situations.

Participatory Decision-Making

For larger decisions where there's higher urgency and you need to make a call soon, but the impact is going to be big, you're looking at a situation where you need to use a Participatory decision-making style. This is where you're going to make a decision with input from the people who are going to be impacted in that final call. Remember, Participatory decisions are made when the decision is much bigger and there's a lot more risk involved. Getting that additional information from more people is going to reduce that decision making risk. Also by getting that buy-in, you're reducing execution risk because people have had an opportunity to give their input and have a say in the final call that's made.

Consensus-Based Decision-Making

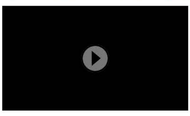
For situations where it's a large decision but there's no urgency around it and you've got plenty of time, you can be using a Consensus-based decision-making style. This is where decisions are reached with a cross-functional team. People from different departments have input, and buy-in is essential. You should reserve this style of decision-making for the biggest decisions you're trying to make. However, recognize this can take a lot of time. You have to get everybody saying "yes" before that decision is made. You're going to have individuals from multiple groups, multiple functions, all working together, coming up with that final perspective for the final decision.

Democratic Decision-Making

And last, for mid-sized decisions where there's not a lot of urgency but you do need to make a decision and move on, a Democratic style is the most appropriate. This is where decision is reached by a majority vote. Buy-in is desirable but it's not essential. These are the decisions we just have to make and move on with life. Individuals are going to interact in this style. You may have a committee where people are going to come together, form an opinion, but ultimately we set a deadline, we vote and we move on.

As you select a decision-making style, remember to consider the urgency of making the call, and the size or impact of that decision.

Want to learn more about this topic? How about taking an entire course on it? Check out the video below to learn more about the course and get started. Or you can ***go directly to the course*** *and start learning how to make better decisions. The entire course is available at* ***lynda.com****. Enjoy!*



– Mike Figliuolo at thought**LEADERS**, LLC

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Photo: a dilemma by Julia Manzerova

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Gary DeGregorio
March 18, 2015 at 3:54 pm

Mike,

Great summary. Your readers may find it helpful to check out two pages on our website that focus on when to adapt your style from autocratic to various levels of collaboration. Check out http://www.decision-making-solutions.com/Collaborative_Decision_Making.html and the related page http://www.decision-making-solutions.com/decision_making_style_criteria.html.

Let me know what you think.

Thanks,
Gary
Decision Innovation, Inc.
224-795-7722
gary.degregorio@decisioninnovation.com

Reply

Bill Schmidt
March 27, 2015 at 10:49 am

Good article. All 4 decision making styles are appropriate at the correct time and situation, its a matter of realizing what the situation is and choosing the correct style of decision. It is a nice reminder to keep vigilant on decision making and if you choose the incorrect style for the situation to learn from that mistake so it will not happen again.

Reply

vivian chepkemoi
April 10, 2017 at 3:17 am

I love the article on decision making could you make it more elaborate by giving more examples, otherwise its great.

Reply

nyola
August 14, 2018 at 3:57 pm

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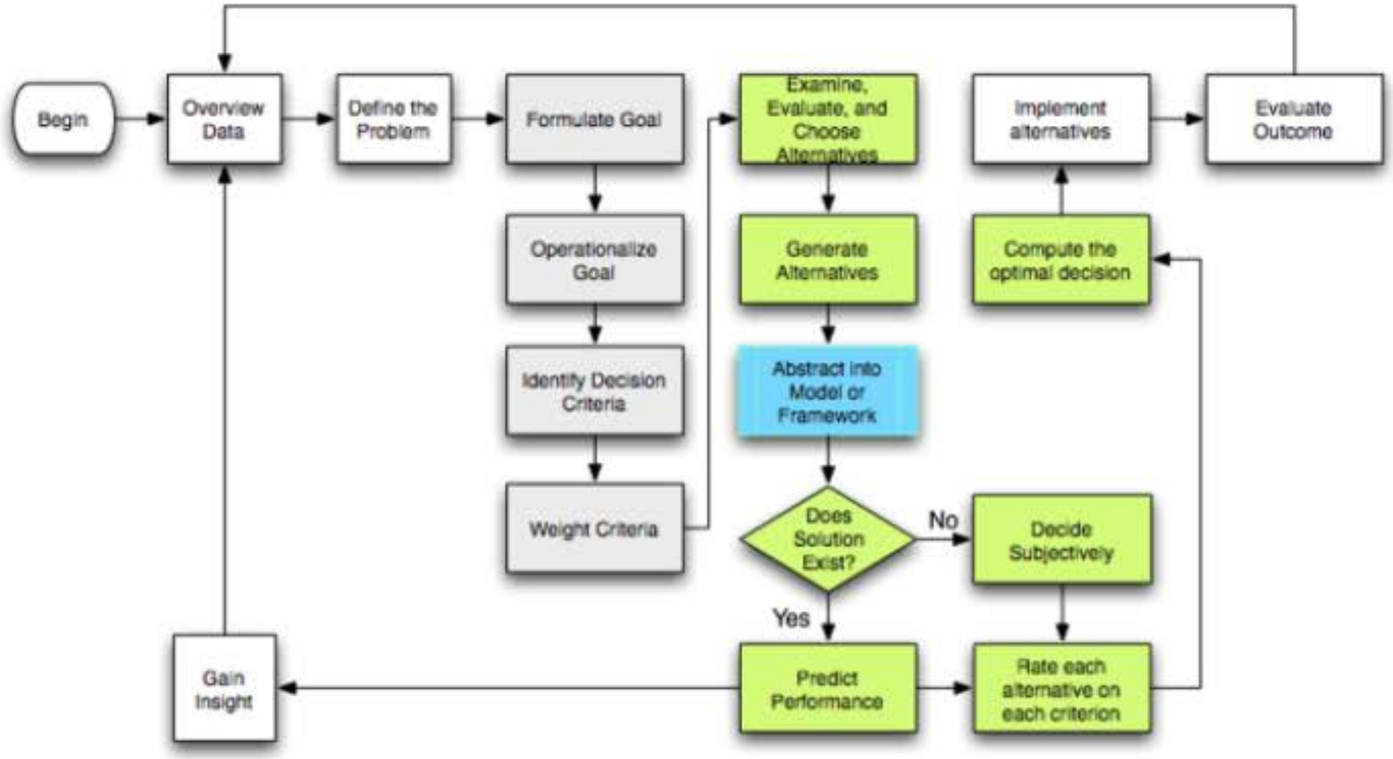
decision maker.

The Process of Rational Decision Making

Rational decision making is a multi-step process for making choices between alternatives. The process of rational decision making favors logic, objectivity, and analysis over subjectivity and insight. The word "rational" in this context does not mean sane or clear-headed as it does in the colloquial sense.

The approach follows a sequential and formal path of activities. This path includes:

1. Formulating a goal(s)
2. Identifying the criteria for making the decision
3. Identifying alternatives
4. Performing analysis
5. Making a final decision.



Rational-decision-making model: This flowchart illustrates the process of rational decision making.

Behavioral style decision making describes **people who prefer structure and stability and are motivated to maintain harmony.**

If you are a behavioral style decision maker, **your relationships are probably the most important thing in your life.** You are likely to put the needs and opinions of family, friends, and colleagues above your own.

It may seem difficult to balance the desire for structure and other people's thoughts and feelings, **but behavioral style decision-makers accomplish this by seeking input and gauging reactions from people** in the decision-making process.

They use the information they gather to come up with solutions that they believe **others will respond well to and typically ask for advice before moving forward** with a decision.

The strengths of behavioral style decision-makers are, most notably, **their ability to make others feel included and important**, getting buy-in from others and communicating their decisions.

However, **their weaknesses are not trusting themselves and difficulty dealing with conflict.** Behavioral style decision-makers can easily lose themselves in the advice and opinions of others. They may be called "people pleasers." **Conflict is challenging for them to manage. To avoid it, they sometimes take on unnecessary amounts of responsibility and stress.**

Does this sound like you? Take the What's Your Decision-Making Style Quiz to find out!

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Answer:

Closed decision making system and open decision making system

Closed Decision Making System

- There are known set of decision alternatives and knows their outcomes fully in terms of value, if implemented
- The manager has a model, a method or a rule whereby the decision alternatives can be generated, tested, and ranked for selection.
- The manager can "this site"choose one of them, based on some goal or objective criterion.
- Since there are known set of decision alternatives and knows their outcomes fully, and there are methods available that can be tested, it is easier to decide.
- Few examples are a product mix problem, an examination system to declare pass or fail, or an acceptance of the fixed deposits.

Open Decision Making System

- The manager does not know all the decision alternatives. If the manager operates in an environment not known to him, then the decision-making system is termed as an open decision-making system.
- The outcome of the decision is also not known fully. The knowledge of the outcome may be a probabilistic one.
- No method, rule or model is available to study and finalize one decision among the set of decision alternatives.
- It is difficult to decide an objective or a goal and, therefore, the manager resorts to that decision, where his aspirations or desires are met best.
- Deciding on the possible product diversification lines, the pricing of a new product, and the plant location, are some decision-making situations which fall in the category of the open decision-making systems.

What if analysis

What if analysis is where decisions are made using a model of the problem for developing various solution alternatives and testing them for best choice. The model is built with some variables and relationship between variables. In reality, the considered values of variables or relationship in the model may not hold good and therefore solution needs to be tested for an outcome, if the considered values of variables or relationship change. This method of analysis is called 'what if analysis.'

For example, in decision-making problem about determining inventory control

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Business planning seems like it would be something that organizations do well, given the near self-evident importance of the concept. Yet, that is not necessarily the case. "In my experience leading dozens of business planning workshops in countries all over the world, I'd say only about 10% to 15% of teams I've encountered have an effective business planning process," according to author and business plan expert Tim Berry in *Entrepreneur*.

Organizations should develop a better understanding of how to approach business planning. The following sections expand on the topic and the four types of planning.

Why Plan?

"Planning is about managing resources and priorities in an organized way," Berry says. "Management is related to leadership, and it's related to productivity."

If companies improve how they plan, managing and leadership will also improve. The following steps can help businesses plan better.

- **Devise a Plan**: Write important details down and focus on strengths, what matters, what people are most important to you and what you can do for them. This will help you communicate your vision to your employees.
- **Define Success:** How do you see your business in several years? Define long-term goals and be specific. Establish milestones for certain goals and who will achieve the goals. Look at what drives your business; it may be presentations, conversions, page views or something else. Then establish a review schedule and re-examine your long-term goals as necessary.
- **Put It in Motion**: Track and analyze numbers to help you manage the work behind the numbers. You'll be better able to make changes — or to develop new plans — that will help you manage better.

The 4 Types of Plans

Operational Planning

"Operational plans are about how things need to happen," motivational leadership speaker Mack Story said at LinkedIn. "Guidelines of how to accomplish the mission are set."

This type of planning typically describes the day-to-day running of the company. Operational plans are often described as single use plans or ongoing plans. Single use plans are created for events and activities with a single occurrence (such as a single marketing campaign). Ongoing plans include policies for approaching problems, rules for specific regulations and procedures for a step-by-step process for accomplishing particular objectives.

Strategic Planning

"Strategic plans are all about why things need to happen," Story said. "It's big picture, long-term thinking. It starts at the highest level with defining a mission and casting a vision."

Strategic planning includes a high-level overview of the entire business. It's the foundational basis of the organization and will dictate long-term decisions. The scope of strategic planning can be anywhere from the next two years to the next 10 years. Important components of a strategic plan are vision, mission and values.

Tactical Planning

"Tactical plans are about what is going to happen," Story said. "Basically at the tactical level, there are many focused, specific, and short-term plans, where the actual work is being done, that support the high-level strategic plans."

Tactical planning supports strategic planning. It includes tactics that the organization plans to use to achieve what's outlined in the strategic plan. Often, the scope is less than one year and breaks down the strategic plan into actionable chunks. Tactical planning is different from operational planning in that tactical plans ask specific questions about what needs to happen to accomplish a strategic goal; operational plans ask how the organization will generally do something to accomplish the company's mission.

Contingency Planning

Contingency plans are made when something unexpected happens or when something needs to be changed. Business experts sometimes refer to these plans as a special type of planning.

Contingency planning can be helpful in circumstances that call for a change. Although managers should anticipate changes when engaged in any of the primary types of planning, contingency planning is essential in moments when changes can't be foreseen. As the business world becomes more complicated, contingency planning becomes more important to engage in and understand.

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plans you might need to develop, and the steps in the process.

What Is the Planning Process?

The **planning process** is the steps a company takes to develop budgets to guide its future activities. The documents developed may include:

- Strategic plans (long-range, high-level company goals)
- Tactical plans (shorter-term, specific plans to work toward goals in the strategic plan)
- Operating plans (detailed plans for a specific department to implement)
- Project plans (plans to implement projects such as launching new products or building a new plant)

How Does the Process Work?

Although the specific steps differ slightly from company to company and depend on which type of plan you're developing, there are general steps that should be taken in order to ensure a good result. The steps in the planning process are:

- Develop objectives
- Develop tasks to meet those objectives
- Determine resources needed to implement tasks
- Create a timeline
- Determine tracking and assessment method
- Finalize plan
- Distribute to all involved in the process

We're going to follow Mark, a department manager in a large company, as he develops a tactical budget for his sales department for the next year.

Step One: Develop Objectives

The first step in the planning process is to determine what you want to accomplish during the planning period. A long-range strategic plan might focus on specific market share achievements five years in the future, while a department-level operating plan might target implementation of a new method of tracking sales orders in the next quarter.

Mark is focused on annual objectives for his sales department, and so he begins by establishing sales goals for his team for the next year, and also defines a project he'd like to implement that automates the sales order process.

Step Two: Develop Tasks to Meet Those Objectives

The next step is to come up with a list of required tasks to meet the objectives defined. In our example, Mark determines the sales per month required to meet the sales goal he is targeting, and also lists out a few main tasks relating to the automation process - including selection of the tool and training for the team on its use.

Step Three: Determine Resources Needed to Implement Tasks

Support

14.1 Power and Authority

Learning Objectives

1. Define *power* and the three types of authority.
2. List Weber's three types of authority.
3. Explain why charismatic authority may be unstable in the long run.

Politics refers to the distribution and exercise of power within a society, and **polity** refers to the political institution through which power is distributed and exercised. In any society, decisions must be made regarding the allocation of resources and other matters. Except perhaps in the simplest societies, specific people and often specific organizations make these decisions. Depending on the society, they sometimes make these decisions solely to benefit themselves and other times make these decisions to benefit the society as a whole. Regardless of who benefits, a central point is this: some individuals and groups have more power than others. Because power is so essential to an understanding of politics, we begin our discussion of politics with a discussion of power.

Power refers to the ability to have one's will carried out despite the resistance of others. Most of us have seen a striking example of raw power when we are driving a car and see a police car in our rearview mirror. At that particular moment, the driver of that car has enormous power over us. We make sure we strictly obey the speed limit and all other driving rules. If, alas, the police car's lights are flashing, we stop the car, as otherwise we may be in for even bigger trouble. When the officer approaches our car, we ordinarily try to be as polite as possible and pray we do not get a ticket. When you were 16 and your parents told you to be home by midnight or else, your arrival home by this curfew again illustrated the use of power, in this case parental power. If a child in middle school gives her lunch to a bully who threatens her, that again is an example of the use of power, or, in this case, the misuse of power.

These are all vivid examples of power, but the power that social scientists study is both grander and, often, more invisible (Wrong, 1996). Much of it occurs behind the scenes, and scholars continue to debate who is wielding it and for whose benefit they wield it. Many years ago Max Weber (1921/1978), one of the founders of sociology discussed in earlier chapters, distinguished legitimate authority as a special type of power. **Legitimate authority** (sometimes just called *authority*), Weber said, is power whose use is considered just and appropriate by those over whom the power is exercised. In short, if a society approves of the exercise of power in a particular way, then that power is also legitimate authority. The example of the police car in our rearview mirrors is an example of legitimate authority.

Weber's keen insight lay in distinguishing different types of legitimate authority that characterize different types of societies, especially as they evolve from simple to more complex societies. He called these three types traditional authority, rational-legal authority, and charismatic authority. We turn to these now.

Traditional Authority

As the name implies, **traditional authority** is power that is rooted in traditional, or long-standing, beliefs and practices of a society. It exists and is assigned to particular individuals because of that society's customs and traditions. Individuals enjoy traditional authority for at least one of two reasons. The first is inheritance, as certain individuals are granted traditional authority because they are the children or other relatives of people who already exercise traditional authority. The second reason individuals enjoy traditional authority is more religious: their societies believe they are anointed by God or the gods, depending on the society's religious beliefs, to lead their society. Traditional authority is common in many preindustrial societies, where tradition and custom are so important, but also in more modern monarchies (discussed shortly), where a king, queen, or prince enjoys power because she or he comes from a royal family.

Traditional authority is granted to individuals regardless of their qualifications. They do not have to possess any special skills to receive and wield their authority, as their claim to it is based solely on their bloodline or supposed divine designation. An individual granted traditional authority can be intelligent or stupid, fair or arbitrary, and exciting or boring but receives the authority just the same because of custom and tradition. As not all individuals granted traditional authority are particularly well qualified to use it, societies governed by traditional authority sometimes find that individuals bestowed it are not always up to the job.

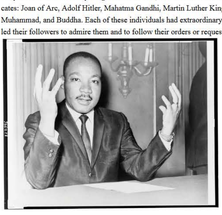
Rational-Legal Authority

If traditional authority derives from custom and tradition, **rational-legal authority** derives from law and is based on a belief in the legitimacy of a society's laws and rules and in the right of leaders to act under these rules to make decisions and set policy. This form of authority is a hallmark of modern democracies, where power is given to people elected by voters, and the rules for wielding that power are usually set forth in a constitution, a charter, or another written document. Whereas traditional authority resides in an individual because of inheritance or divine designation, rational-legal authority resides in the office that an individual fills, not in the individual per se. The authority of the president of the United States thus resides in the office of the presidency, not in the individual who happens to be president. When that individual leaves office, authority transfers to the next president. This transfer is usually smooth and stable, and one of the marvels of democracy is that officeholders are replaced in elections without revolutions having to be necessary. We might not have voted for the person who wins the presidency, but we accept that person's authority as our president when he (so far it has always been a "he") assumes office.

Rational-legal authority helps ensure an orderly transfer of power in a time of crisis. When John F. Kennedy was assassinated in 1963, Vice President Lyndon Johnson was immediately sworn in as the next president. When Richard Nixon resigned his office in disgrace in 1974 because of his involvement in the Watergate scandal, Vice President Gerald Ford (who himself had become vice president after Spiro Agnew resigned because of financial corruption) became president. Because the U.S. Constitution provided for the transfer of power when the presidency was vacant, and because U.S. leaders and members of the public accept the authority of the Constitution on these and so many other matters, the transfer of power in 1963 and 1974 was smooth and orderly.

Charismatic Authority

Charismatic authority stems from an individual's extraordinary personal qualities and from that individual's hold over followers because of these qualities. Such charismatic individuals may exercise authority over a whole society or only a specific group within a larger society. They can exercise authority for good and for bad, as this brief list of charismatic leaders indicates: Joan of Arc, Adolf Hitler, Mahatma Gandhi, Martin Luther King Jr., Jesus Christ, Muhammad, and Buddha. Each of these individuals had extraordinary personal qualities that led their followers to admire them and to follow their orders or requests for action.



Much of Dr. Martin Luther King Jr.'s appeal as a civil rights leader stemmed from his extraordinary speaking skills and other personal qualities that accounted for his charismatic authority.
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Charismatic authority can reside in a person who came to a position of leadership because of traditional or rational-legal authority. Over the centuries, several kings and queens of England and other European nations were charismatic individuals as well (while some were far from charismatic). A few U.S. presidents—Washington, Lincoln, both Roosevelts, Kennedy, Reagan, and, for all his faults, even Clinton—also were charismatic, and much of their popularity stemmed from various personal qualities that attracted the public and sometimes even the press. Ronald Reagan, for example, was often called "the Teflon president," because he was so loved by much of the public that accusations of ineptitude or malfeasance did not stick to him (Lanoue, 1988).

Weber emphasized that charismatic authority in its pure form (i.e., when authority resides in someone solely because of the person's charisma and not because the person also has traditional or rational-legal authority) is less stable than traditional authority or rational-legal authority. The reason for this is simple: once charismatic leaders die, their authority dies as well. Although a charismatic leader's example may continue to inspire people long after the leader dies, it is difficult for another leader to come along and command people's devotion as intensely. After the deaths of all the charismatic leaders named in the preceding paragraph, no one came close to replacing them in the hearts and minds of their followers.

Because charismatic leaders recognize that their eventual death may well undermine the nation or cause they represent, they often designate a replacement leader, who they hope will also have charismatic qualities. This new leader may be a grown child of the charismatic leader or someone else the leader knows and trusts. The danger, of course, is that any new leaders will lack sufficient charisma to have their authority accepted by the followers of the original charismatic leader. For this reason, Weber recognized that charismatic authority ultimately becomes more stable when it is evolves into traditional or rational-legal authority. Transformation into traditional authority can happen when charismatic leaders' authority becomes accepted as residing in their bloodlines, so that their authority passes to their children and then to their grandchildren. Transformation into rational-legal authority occurs when a society ruled by a charismatic leader develops the rules and bureaucratic structures that we associate with a government. Weber used the term **routinization of charisma** to refer to the transformation of charismatic authority in either of these ways.

Key Takeaways

- Power refers to the ability to have one's will carried out despite the resistance of others.
- According to Max Weber, the three types of legitimate authority are traditional, rational-legal, and charismatic.
- Charismatic authority is relatively unstable because the authority held by a charismatic leader may not easily extend to anyone else after the leader dies.

For Your Review

1. Think of someone, either a person you have known or a national or historical figure, whom you regard as a charismatic leader. What is it about this person that makes her or him charismatic?
2. Why is rational-legal authority generally more stable than charismatic authority?

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noun

1. the power or right to give orders, make decisions, and enforce obedience.
   "he had absolute authority over his subordinates"

   Similar: power | jurisdiction | command | control | mastery | charge

2. a person or organization having political or administrative power and control.
   "health authorities issued a worldwide alert"

   Similar: officials | officialdom | the people in charge | the government

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Responsibility: Meaning, Concept and Forms | Organisation

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After reading this article you will learn about:- 1. Meaning of Responsibility 2. Concept of Responsibility 3. Forms.

Meaning of Responsibility:

Responsibility is the task entrusted by managers to subordinates. It means moral commitment to do the work assigned. A person who performs some work has the responsibility to do it. It is the obligation to carry out the assigned task. It is the duty or task that a person is assigned to accomplish. "Responsibility is the obligation of an individual to carry out assigned activities to the best of his or her ability".

It is "the obligation to carry out duties and achieve goals related to a position." The responsibility ends when the person has accomplished the assigned task. If a person is responsible for the assigned task, he will be committed to perform it effectively.

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Responsibility, therefore, must be fixed. It develops the skill, competence, initiative and ability of a person to his fullest. "For any competence, initiative and ability of a person to his fullest. For any given period, an individual will accomplish most when responsibility for the completion of a definite task is fixed on that individual."

Concept of Responsibility:

The following points help to understand the concept of responsibility:

1. It is the obligation of a person to perform the assigned task.

2. It cannot be delegated. Even where a superior delegates authority to perform certain tasks, he remains responsible to his superiors for those tasks.

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3. It must be commensurate with authority. Lack of parity between authority and responsibility will not achieve the desired results.

4. It flows from bottom to top. Every subordinate is responsible to his superior for completion of assigned tasks.

5. It can be qualitative or quantitative in nature. Preferably, responsibility should be fixed in quantitative terms as it helps to frame standards of performance against which performance can be measured.

Forms of Responsibility:

Responsibility can take two forms:

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1. Operating Responsibility, and

2. Ultimate Responsibility.

Operating responsibility is the obligation of a person to perform the assigned tasks. Ultimate responsibility is the final obligation of the manager who ensures that the task is done efficiently by the employees. Ultimate responsibility is the final responsibility of the manager who gets the work done through employees and operating responsibility is the responsibility or obligation of the person who actually does the work. A manager (ultimate responsibility) gets the work done through his employees (operating responsibility).

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Centralization

An organizational setup wherein the decision-making authority is concentrated at the top

What is Centralization?

Centralization refers to the process in which activities involving planning and decision-making within an organization are concentrated to a specific leader or location. In a centralized organization, the decision-making powers are retained in the head office, and all other offices receive commands from the main office. The executives and specialists who make critical decisions are based in the head office.

Similarly, in a centralized government structure, the decision-making authority is concentrated at the top, and all other lower levels follow the directions coming from the top of the organization structure.

Advantages of Centralization

An effective centralization offers the following advantages:

1. A clear chain of command

A centralized organization benefits from a clear chain of command because every person within the organization knows who to report to. Junior employees know who to approach whenever they have concerns about the organization. On the other hand, senior executives follow a clear plan of delegating authority to employees who excel in specific functions. The executives also gain the confidence that when they delegate responsibilities to mid-level managers and other employees, there will be no overlap. A clear chain of command is beneficial when the organization needs to execute decisions quickly and in a unified manner.

2. Focused vision

When an organization follows a centralized management structure, it can focus on the fulfillment of its vision with ease. There are clear lines of communication and the senior executive can communicate the organization's vision to employees and guide them toward the achievement of the vision. In the absence of centralized management, there will be inconsistencies in relaying the message to employees because there are no clear lines of authority. Directing the organization's vision from the top allows for a smooth implementation of its visions and strategies. The organization's stakeholders such as customers, suppliers, and communities also receive a uniform message.

3. Reduced costs

A centralized organization adheres to standard procedures and methods that guide the organization, which helps reduce office and administrative costs. The main decision-makers are housed at the company's head office or headquarters, and therefore, there is no need for deploying more departments and equipment to other branches. Also, the organization does not need to incur extra costs to hire specialists for its branches since critical decisions are made at the head office and then communicated to the branches. The clear chain of command reduces duplication of responsibilities that may result in additional costs to the organization.

4. Quick implementation of decisions

In a centralized organization, decisions are made by a small group of people and then communicated to the lower-level managers. The involvement of only a few people makes the decision-making process more efficient since they can discuss the details of each decision in one meeting. The decisions are then communicated to the lower levels of the organization for implementation. If lower-level managers are involved in the decision-making process, the process will take longer and conflicts will arise. That will make the implementation process lengthy and complicated because some managers may object to the decisions if their input is ignored.

5. Improved quality of work

The standardized procedures and better supervision in a centralized organization result in improved quality of work. There are supervisors in each department who ensure that the outputs are uniform and of high quality. The use of advanced equipment reduces potential wastage from manual work and also helps guarantee high-quality work. Standardization of work also reduces the replication of tasks that may result in high labor costs.

Disadvantages of Centralization

The following are the disadvantages of centralization:

1. Bureaucratic leadership

Centralized management resembles a dictatorial form of leadership where employees are only expected to deliver results according to what the top executives assign them. Employees are unable to contribute to the decision-making process of the organization, and they are merely implementers of decisions made at a higher level. When the employees face difficulties in implementing some of the decisions, the executives will not understand because they are only decision-makers and not implementers of the decisions. The result of such actions is a decline in performance because the employees lack the motivation to implement decisions taken by top-level managers without the input of lower-level employees.

2. Remote control

The organization's executives are under tremendous pressure to formulate decisions for the organization, and they lack control over the implementation process. The failure of executives to decentralize the decision-making process adds a lot of work to their desks. The executives suffer from a lack of time to supervise the implementation of the decisions. This leads to reluctance on the part of employees. Therefore, the executives may end up making too many decisions that are either poorly implemented or ignored by the employees.

3. Delays in work

Centralization results in delays in work as records are sent to and from the head office. Employees rely on the information communicated to them from the top, and there will be a loss in man-hours if there are delays in relaying the records. This means that the employees will be less productive if they need to wait long periods to get guidance on their next projects.

4. Lack of employee loyalty

Employees become loyal to an organization when they are allowed personal initiatives in the work they do. They can introduce their creativity and suggest ways of performing certain tasks. However, in centralization, there is no initiative in work because employees perform tasks conceptualized by top executives. This limits their creativity and loyalty to the organization due to the rigidity of the work.

Summary

Centralization refers to a setup in which the decision-making powers are concentrated in a few leaders at the top of the organizational structure. Decisions are made at the top and communicated to lower-level managers for implementation.

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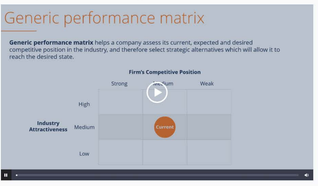

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Organizing

Advantages And Disadvantages Of Decentralisation

What is Decentralization?

What is decentralization? Decentralization refers to a specific form of organizational structure where the top management delegates decision-making responsibilities and daily operations to middle and lower subordinates. The top management can thus concentrate on taking major decisions with greater time abundance. Business houses often feel the requirement of decentralization to continue efficiency in their operations. Today, we are going to take a look at the basic advantages and disadvantages of decentralization from an organizational point of view.

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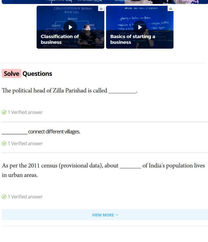

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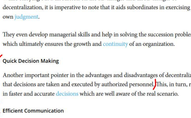

Advantages of Decentralisation

Motivation of Subordinates

Decentralization improves the level of job satisfaction as well as employee morale, especially amongst the lower level managers.

Furthermore, it strives to satisfy the varying requirements for participation, independence, and status. Decentralization also promotes a spirit of group cohesiveness and spirit.

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Learn more about Factors determining Decentralization here in detail

Growth and Diversification

Under decentralization, every single product division attains sufficient autonomy to exercise their creative flair. In this way, the top-level management can create healthy competition amongst different divisions.

While carrying out a discussion on the advantages and disadvantages of decentralization, it is imperative to note that it aids subordinates in exercising their own judgment.

They even develop managerial skills and help in solving the succession problem which ultimately ensures the growth and continuity of an organization.

Quick Decision Making

Another important pointer in the advantages and disadvantages of decentralization is that decisions are taken and executed by authorized personnel. This, in turn, results in faster and accurate decisions which are well aware of the real scenario.

Efficient Communication

The wider span of management under decentralization leads to fewer hierarchical levels. This makes the communication system more efficient as intimate relationships develop between superiors and subordinates.

Ease of Expansion

Decentralization can add inertia to the expansion process of a growing business. This might often result in the opening of new business units in varying geographical locations.

Decentralization unleashes the fullest potential of the organization and can react easily to area-specific requirements.

Better Supervision And Control

Lower level managers can alter production schedules and work assignments with adequate authority. They can even take disciplinary actions and recommend the promotion of their peers.

This, in turn, leads to greater efficiency in supervision. Performance evaluation of each decentralized unit helps in exercising adequate control.

Satisfaction of Human needs

Decentralization serves as an important tool for satisfying our basic need of independence, power, prestige, and status. A cadre of satisfied manager is build up by this satisfaction as they feel responsible towards the company's betterment.

Relief to top executive

Top executives can focus more on more on the executive level work like planning and decision making if the lower level employees take all the responsibilities on their decision making if the lower level employees take all the responsibilities on their own. This relieves their workload which eventually is for the greater good of the organisation.

Top, Middle and Lower Level Management Hierarchy Pyramid

Disadvantages of Decentralization

Difficult To Co-Ordinate

While talking about the advantages and disadvantages of decentralization, it is imperative to note that substantial autonomy is enjoyed by every single division. This, in turn, makes it difficult to coordinate the overall activity.

External Factors

The trade union movement, market uncertainties, and government intervention might make it impossible to benefit the most out of decentralization.

Narrow Product Lines

Decentralized product lines need to be adequately broad so that autonomous units can flourish within the same. This might not be of much help in small business houses having narrow product lines. Lower levels in the organization also lack competent managers thus adding to the difficulty quotient.

Expensive

In decentralization, every employee takes responsibility for the better of the organisation so they work harder to achieve all the organisational objective. In return, they have to be paid more which sometimes proves to be very expensive for the company.

Solved Questions For You

Q. Why is decentralization treated as an expensive process?

Ans. Administration expenses tend to rise in decentralized enterprises. When it comes to the employment of trained personnel and availability of physical facilities, every separate department tries to be self sufficient. This, in turn, leads to underutilization of facilities and duplication of functions. Such attributes make decentralization tailor-made only for large organizations.

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Centralisation, Decentralisation and Recentralization

gcmohanta29

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Recentralization

- Centralization and decentralization depend on many factors and so the degree of centralization and decentralization also changes with the changing situation.
- It should not be supposed that authority once decentralized is decentralized for ever.
- **Recentralization means back to centralization.**
- **If the situation so demands, the top management may hold back the power or authority from the lower level managers which were earlier decentralized.**

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Bureaucratic Management Theory by Max Weber

Bureaucratic management theory developed by Max Weber, contained two essential elements, including structuring an organization into a hierarchy and having clearly defined rules to help govern an organization and its members.

Max Weber (1864-1920), a German sociologist, described a theory to operate an organization in an effective way which is known as the Bureaucratic management approach or Weberian bureaucracy.

Max Weber's work was oftentimes interpreted as a caricature of modern bureaucracies with all of their shortcomings.

But it was more than that. Weber's work was indented for displacing the old organizational structures of the industrialization period.

According to Max Weber, the Bureaucratic management approach emphasized the necessity of organizations to operate in a rational way instead of following the "arbitrary whims" or irrational emotions and intentions of owners and managers.

He found different characteristics in **bureaucracies that would effectively conduct decision-making**, controlling resources, protecting workers and **accomplishment of organizational goals**.

Bureaucratic management approach developed by Max Weber is not suitable for business organizations but may be suitable for government organizations.

Max Weber described 6(six) principles of the Bureaucratic management approach.

6 Principles of Bureaucratic Management Approach

1. **Proper Division of Labor**
Division of labor specialization should be fixed and there should be a balance between power and responsibilities.

2. **Chain of Command**
The chain of command or **organizational hierarchy should be constructed in a way that information related to decisions and works can flow effectively from top to bottom.**

3. **Separation of personal and official property**
Owners and organization's assets are separate and can to be treated as same by the owner or the organization.

4. **Application of Consistent and Complete Rules**
There should be proper rules and regulations in the organization for running the organization.

These rules should be followed in every step of the organization and they are equally applicable to every member of the organization.

5. **Selection and Promotion Based on Qualifications**
The **selection and promotion of workers should be based on equalization** like skills, experience, age. It should not be influenced by personal relations and benefits.

Training in job requirements and skills. There is a difference between management and other parts of organization and training and improving skills of management is important.

Features of Bureaucratic Organization

From the principles of bureaucratic organization, we can find these characteristics or features of Bureaucratic Organization are as follows:-

- The high degree of Division of Labor and Specialization.
- There is a well-defined chain of command.
- It follows the principle of Rationality, Objectively and Consistency.
- The relationship among the member of the organization is Formal and Impersonal relations. And it's based on positions and not on personalities.
- Rules and Regulations are well defined and it indicates the duties and rights of the employees. These rules apply to everyone from to bottom of the organization and must be strictly followed.
- Selection and Promotion are based on Technical qualifications.
- Only Bureaucratic or legal power is given importance.

Criticism of Bureaucratic Organization

Bureaucratic Management Approach of Max Weber also has some fault-lines and received criticism for it.

- The emphasis only on rules and regulations.
- There will be unnecessary delays in decision-making due to formalities and rules of Bureaucratic Organization.
- Coordination and communication hampered because of too much formality and rules.
- Bureaucracy involves a lot of paperwork and has just too much level of authority which results in a lot of wastage of time, effort and money. Not ideal for efficiency.
- Because of its too much formality, a Bureaucratic approach is not suitable for business organizations. The bureaucratic model may be suitable for government organizations.
- Too much importance is given to the technical qualifications of the employees for promotion and transfers. Dedication and commitment of the employee are not considered.
- **Limited scope for Human Resource (HR).** No importance is given to informal groups and neither any scope is given to form one.

Max Weber's bureaucratic approach worked as a solution to problems of traditional administrative systems. But it was not the perfect or "close to perfect" solution.

The bureaucratic structure gives all the importance and power to top-level management.

And the rules and levels of authority are just too much. It gives a greater sense of security to the employees. But bureaucratic management gives a window for "red tapism".

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What is Max Weber Bureaucracy theory?

At the end of the 19th century, it was German sociologist and author of *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism* (1905), Max Weber who was the first to use and describe the term bureaucracy. This is also known as the **bureaucratic theory of management**, **bureaucratic management theory** or the **Max Weber theory**. He believed bureaucracy was the most efficient way to set up an organisation, administration and organizations. Max Weber believed that Bureaucracy was a better than traditional structures. In a bureaucratic organisation, everyone is treated equal and the division of labour is clearly described for each employee.

Bureaucracy definition: what is bureaucracy?

Bureaucracy definition: *"Bureaucracy is an organisational structure that is characterised by many rules, standardised processes, procedures and requirements, number of desks, meticulous division of labour and responsibility, clear hierarchies and professional, almost impersonal interactions between employees"*.

According to the bureaucratic theory of Max Weber, such a structure was indispensable in large organizations in structurally performing all tasks by a great number of employees. In addition, in a bureaucratic organisation, selection and promotion only occur on the basis of technical qualifications.

Legal responsibility

According to the bureaucratic theory of Max Weber, three types of power can be found in organizations; traditional power, charismatic power and legal power. He refers in his bureaucratic theory to the latter as a bureaucracy. All aspects of a democracy are organised on the basis of rules and laws, making the principle of established jurisdiction prevail.

The following three elements support bureaucratic management:

1. All regular activities within a bureaucracy can be regarded as official duties;
2. Management has the authority to impose rules;

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What is a psychological contract?

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> A psychological contract can be understood as a 'deal' between employer and employee concerning 'the perception of the two parties, employer and employee, of what their mutual obligations are towards each other.
>
> — CIPD 2005:2

Psychological contracts are a set of 'promises' or 'expectations' that are exchanged between the parties in an employment relationship. These parties include employers, managers, individual employees and their work colleagues. Unlike formal contracts of employment, they are often tacit or implicit. They tend to be invisible, assumed, unspoken, informal or at best only partially vocalised. Because of this, you have to make a determined effort to find out what they are.

The case of Design Fabrications illustrates some issues raised by the existence of a group psychological contract.

EXAMPLE

Psychological contracts at Design Fabrications

For the past five years, employees of Design Fabrications have been allowed to leave work early every Wednesday afternoon, either to attend the local football match or to avoid the ensuing traffic jams. This arrangement has always been 'understood' and never written down, so that it's become an unwritten custom.

Following a management buy-out, employees feared that the new Senior Management Team (SMT) would rescind this arrangement, so the local branch of the Designers' Union requested that this traditional practice should be formally written into the terms and conditions of employment. In the teeth of growing competition and a downturn in the economy, SMT felt unable to make this blanket commitment, because they felt it would reduce the company's competitiveness. Instead, therefore, they asked line managers to meet their teams, and explain the reasons why this would not be a good move if jobs were to be kept reasonably secure.

However, SMT indicated that local agreements could be made on a case-by-case basis, depending upon how the order book was looking. Following discussions between managers, individuals and work teams, this arrangement was accepted throughout the company.

By acknowledging the existence of the old psychological contract and by clearly explaining why it needed to be renegotiated, managers were able to create a new psychological contract that was healthy, understood and observed by all parties.

Working with perceptions

Psychological contracts consist of unofficial assumptions and **perceptions**, often untested, of the workplace relationship that exists between employer and employee. Although they are rarely written down formally and explicitly, they have a powerful impact on employee motivation and performance. They are closely bound up with notions of employment, employability and 'career'.

Different kinds of contract at work

Work contracts of any sort between two or more parties are put in place to describe the duties of each party and what to do if things go wrong. If all parties are happy with how things are going, and if they feel that the contract is being adhered to, then there are no problems and no action is needed.

Psychological contracts are shaped by the assumptions that people make about their relationships with each other at work. These often-untested assumptions have a strong influence on their performance and their behaviours towards each other. Rousseau (2004) distinguishes between **transactional contracts** and **relational contracts**, which overlap with, and ideally complement, each other.

Transactional contracts

Transactional contracts are essentially what we know as standard, written contracts of employment. They are usually agreed when someone joins a particular organisation, and they contain specific clauses that cover formal terms and conditions of service, including remuneration and other rewards, together with sanctions, if the contract is not satisfactorily fulfilled.

Formal contracts of employment

Formal employment contracts are generally written and 'official', and tend to be dominated by **employer** expectations. The topic Employment Contracts explains that they exist if there is 'mutuality of obligation' and that they are legally binding. Usually, a formal employment contract is associated with a unique, individual, Person Specification and Job Description.

Relational contracts

Psychological contracts are essentially relational. Relational contracts concern the maintenance and quality of emotional and interpersonal relationships between employer and employee and between peers.

If you then put the transactional and relational elements together, you come up with the following two broad types of individual 'career' and organisational psychological contracts:

'Old' or 'traditional' psychological contracts

Traditional psychological contracts are generally less formalised than employment contracts, and contain an element of **employee** expectations as well. They are usually presumed to be relatively fixed, and continue to reflect an assumption of 'permanent' employment, and a long-term career within a single employing organisation or sector.

'New' psychological contracts

New psychological contracts are potentially more unstable, since they can be more temporary or ad hoc. They assume a greater sense of 'partnership' between employer and employee, usually on the expectation of a less permanent period of salaried 'employment'. There is a growing trend towards employment arrangements with 'interim workers', contract workers, portfolio or knowledge workers, or 'interim managers'. Such people may work with an organisation for a limited period, or on an agency or freelance basis. The psychological contract of interim workers is even more complex, because it is negotiated – consciously or unconsciously – as a tripartite relationship between the placement agency, the temporary worker and the temporary 'employer'.

Things change

WARNING

There is a not-clearly-definable point at which an item that is an established part of a psychological contract becomes legal and enforceable (see Disciple and Grievance: pitfalls).

Psychological contracts – like the individuals connected with them – change over time and are thus inherently unstable. As we ourselves change, as the composition of our work team changes around us and as our business environment changes, so too do our respective psychological contracts. They become even more complex, because each of us tends to project aspects of the psychological contract that we think we've negotiated (but may never have checked out explicitly) on to how we think that other people should behave towards us and to each other at work.

This can create huge problems. We use psychological contracts as a kind of mental map to help us to navigate our way through our working day. If we are not conscious of the existence of this mental map, it may lead us unwittingly to avoid or resist embracing necessary change.

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Personality Traits

By Edward Diener and Richard E. Lucas
University of Utah, University of Virginia, Michigan State University

Personality traits reflect people's characteristic patterns of thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. Personality traits imply consistency and stability —someone who scores high on a specific trait like Extraversion is expected to be sociable in different situations and over time. Thus, trait psychology rests on the idea that people differ from one another in terms of where they stand on a set of basic trait dimensions that persist over time and across situations. The most widely used system of traits is called the Five-Factor Model. This system includes five broad traits that can be remembered with the acronym OCEAN: Openness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism. Each of the major traits from the Big Five can be divided into facets to give a more fine-grained analysis of someone's personality. In addition, some trait theorists argue that there are other traits that cannot be completely captured by the Five-Factor Model. Critics of the trait concept argue that people do not act consistently from one situation to the next and that people are very influenced by situational forces. Thus, one major debate in the field concerns the relative

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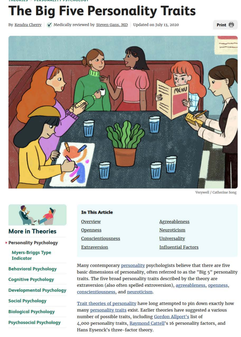
The Big Five Personality Traits

By Kendra Cherry | Medically reviewed by Steven Gans, MD Updated on July 12, 2020



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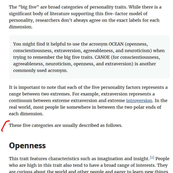
Many contemporary personality psychologists believe that there are five basic dimensions of personality, often referred to as the "Big 5" personality traits. The five broad personality traits described by the theory are extraversion (also often spelled extroversion), agreeableness, openness, conscientiousness, and neuroticism.

Trait theories of personality have long attempted to pin down exactly how many personality traits exist. Earlier theories have suggested a various number of possible traits, including Gordon Allport's list of 4,000 personality traits, Raymond Cattell's 16 personality factors, and Hans Eysenck's three-factor theory.

However, many researchers felt that Cattell's theory was too complicated and Eysenck's was too limited in scope. As a result, the five-factor theory emerged to describe the essential traits that serve as the building blocks of personality.



Verywell | Joshua Seong

What Are the Big Five Dimensions of Personality?

Today, many researchers believe that they are five core personality traits.[1] Evidence of this theory has been growing for many years, beginning with the research of D. W. Fiske (1949) and later expanded upon by other researchers including Norman (1963), Smith (1967), Goldberg (1981), and McCrae & Costa (1987).

The "big five" are broad categories of personality traits. While there is a significant body of literature supporting this five-factor model of personality, researchers don't always agree on the exact labels for each dimension.

> You might find it helpful to use the acronym OCEAN (openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism) when trying to remember the big five traits. CANOE (for conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism, openness, and extraversion) is another commonly used acronym.

It is important to note that each of the five personality factors represents a range between two extremes. For example, extraversion represents a continuous between extreme extraversion and extreme introversion. In the real world, most people lie somewhere in between the two polar ends of each dimension.

These five categories are usually described as follows.

Openness

This trait features characteristics such as imagination and insight.[2] People who are high in this trait also tend to have a broad range of interests. They are curious about the world and other people and eager to learn new things and enjoy new experiences.

People who are high in this trait tend to be more adventurous and creative. People low in this trait are often much more traditional and may struggle with abstract thinking.

High

- Very creative
- Open to trying new things
- Focused on tackling new challenges
- Happy to think about abstract concepts

Low

- Dislikes change
- Does not enjoy new things
- Resists new ideas
- Not very imaginative
- Dislikes abstract or theoretical concepts

Conscientiousness

Standard features of this dimension include high levels of thoughtfulness, good impulse control, and goal-directed behaviors.[3] Highly conscientious people tend to be organized and mindful of details. They plan ahead, think about how their behavior affects others, and are mindful of deadlines.

High

- Spends time preparing
- Finishes important tasks right away
- Pays attention to detail
- Enjoys having a set schedule

Low

- Dislikes structure and schedules
- Makes messes and doesn't take care of things
- Fails to return things or put them back where they belong
- Procrastinates important tasks
- Fails to complete necessary or assigned tasks

Extraversion

Extraversion (or extroversion) is characterized by excitability, sociability, talkativeness, assertiveness, and high amounts of emotional expressiveness.[4] People who are high in extraversion are outgoing and tend to gain energy in social situations. Being around other people helps them feel energized and excited.

People who are low in extraversion (or introversion) tend to be more reserved and have less energy to expend in social settings. Social events can feel draining and introverts often require a period of solitude and quiet in order to "recharge."

High

- Enjoys being the center of attention
- Likes to start conversations
- Enjoys meeting new people
- Has a wide social circle of friends and acquaintances
- Finds it easy to make new friends
- Feels energized when around other people
- Say things before thinking about them

Low

- Prefers solitude
- Feels exhausted when having to socialize a lot
- Finds it difficult to start conversations
- Dislikes making small talk
- Carefully thinks things through before speaking
- Dislikes being the center of attention

Related: How Extroversion in Personality Influences Behavior

Agreeableness

This personality dimension includes attributes such as trust, altruism, kindness, affection, and other prosocial behaviors.[5] People who are high in agreeableness tend to be more cooperative while those low in this trait tend to be more competitive and sometimes even manipulative.

High

- Has a great deal of interest in other people
- Cares about others
- Feels empathy and concern for other people
- Enjoys helping and contributing to the happiness of other people
- Assists others who are in need of help

Low

- Takes little interest in others
- Doesn't care about how other people feel
- Has little interest in other people's problems
- Insults and belittles others
- Manipulates others to get what they want

Neuroticism

Neuroticism is a trait characterized by sadness, moodiness, and emotional instability.[6] Individuals who are high in this trait tend to experience mood swings, anxiety, irritability, and sadness. Those low in this trait tend to be more stable and emotionally resilient.

High

- Experiences a lot of stress
- Worries about many different things
- Gets upset easily
- Experiences dramatic shifts in mood
- Feels anxious
- Struggles to bounce back after stressful events

Low

- Emotionally stable
- Deals well with stress
- Rarely feels sad or depressed
- Doesn't worry much
- Is very relaxed

Are the Big Five Traits Universal?

McCrae and his colleagues have also found that the big five traits are also remarkably universal. One study that looked at people from more than 50 different cultures found that the five dimensions could be accurately used to describe personality.[7]

Based on this research, many psychologists now believe that the five personality dimensions are not only universal, they also have biological origins. Psychologist David Buss has proposed that an evolutionary explanation for these five core personality traits, suggesting that these personality traits represent the most important qualities that shape our social landscape.

What Factors Influence the Big Five Traits?

Research suggests that both biological and environmental influences play a role in shaping our personalities. Twin studies suggest that both nature and nurture play a role in the development of each of the five personality factors.[8]

One study of the genetic and environmental underpinnings of the five traits looked at 123 pairs of identical twins and 127 pairs of fraternal twins. The findings suggest that the heritability of each trait was 53 percent for extraversion, 41 percent for agreeableness, 44 percent for conscientiousness, 41 percent for neuroticism, and 61 for openness.

Longitudinal studies also suggest that these big five personality traits tend to be relatively stable over the course of adulthood. One study of working-age adults found that personality tended to be stable over a four-year period and displayed little change as a result of adverse life events.

Studies have shown that maturation may have an impact on the five traits. As people age, they tend to become less extroverted, less neurotic, and less open to the experience. Agreeableness and conscientiousness, on the other hand, tend to increase as people grow older.

A Word From Verywell

Always remember that behavior involves an interaction between a person's underlying personality and situational variables. The situation that a person finds himself or herself plays a major role in how the person reacts. However, in most cases, people often responses that are consistent with their underlying personality traits.

These dimensions represent broad areas of personality. Research has demonstrated that these groupings of characteristics tend to occur together in many people. For example, individuals who are outside tend to be talkative. However, these traits do not always occur together. Personality is complex and varied and each person may display behaviors across several of these dimensions.

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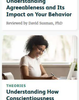

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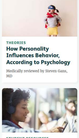

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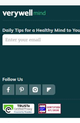

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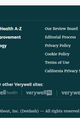

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PERSONALITY PSYCHOLOGY

An Overview of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

- Intuitive-Thinking
- Intuitive-Thinking
- Intuitive-Feeling
- Sensing-Judging
- Sensing-Perceiving

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By Kendra Cherry | Reviewed by Amy Morin, LCSW Updated on September 17, 2020

In This Article

History
Test Overview
The MBTI Types
Comparisons
Reliability and Validity
Online MBTI Tests

Have you ever heard someone describe themselves as an INTJ or an ESTP and wondered what those cryptic-sounding letters could mean? What these people are referring to is their personality type based on the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI).

The Myers-Briggs Personality Type Indicator is a self-report inventory designed to identify a person's personality type, strengths, and preferences. The questionnaire was developed by Isabel Myers and her mother Katherine Briggs based on their work with Carl Jung's theory of personality types. Today, the MBTI inventory is one of the most widely used psychological instruments in the world.

The Development of the Myers-Briggs Test

Both Myers and Briggs were fascinated by Jung's theory of psychological types and recognized that the theory could have real-world applications. During World War II, they began researching and developing an indicator that could be utilized to help understand individual differences.

> By helping people understand themselves, Myers and Briggs believed that they could help people select occupations that were best suited to their personality types and lead healthier, happier lives.

Myers created the first pen-and-pencil version of the inventory during the 1940s, and the two women began testing the assessment on friends and family. They continued to fully develop the instrument over the next two decades.

An Overview of the Test

Based on the answers to the questions on the inventory, people are identified as having one of 16 personality types. The goal of the MBTI is to allow respondents to further explore and understand their own personalities including their likes, dislikes, strengths, weaknesses, possible career preferences, and compatibility with other people.

No one personality type is "best" or "better" than another. It isn't a tool designed to look for dysfunction or abnormality. Instead, its goal is simply to help you learn more about yourself. The questionnaire itself is made up of four different scales.

Extraversion (E) – Introversion (I)

The extraversion-introversion dichotomy was first explored by Jung in his theory of personality types as a way to describe how people respond and interact with the world around them. While these terms are familiar to most people, the way in which they are used in the MBTI differs somewhat from their popular usage.

Extraverts (also often spelled extroverts) are "outward-turning" and tend to be action-oriented, enjoy more frequent social interaction, and feel energized after spending time with other people. Introverts are "inward-turning" and tend to be thought-oriented, enjoy deep and meaningful social interactions, and feel recharged after spending time alone.

> We all exhibit extraversion and introversion to some degree, but most of us tend to have an overall preference for one or the other.

Sensing (S) – Intuition (N)

This scale involves looking at how people gather information from the world around them. Just like with extraversion and introversion, all people spend some time sensing and intuiting depending on the situation. According to the MBTI, people tend to be dominant in one area or the other.

People who prefer sensing tend to pay a great deal of attention to reality, particularly to what they can learn from their own senses. They tend to focus on facts and details and enjoy getting hands-on experience. Those who prefer intuition pay more attention to things like patterns and impressions. They enjoy thinking about possibilities, imagining the future, and abstract theories.

Thinking (T) – Feeling (F)

This scale focuses on how people make decisions based on the information that they gathered from their sensing or intuition functions. People who prefer thinking place a greater emphasis on facts and objective data.

They tend to be consistent, logical, and impersonal when weighing a decision. Those who prefer feeling are more likely to consider people and emotions when arriving at a conclusion.

Judging (J) – Perceiving (P)

The final scale involves how people tend to deal with the outside world. Those who lean toward judging prefer structure and firm decisions. People who lean toward perceiving are more open, flexible, and adaptable. These two tendencies interact with the other scales.

Remember, all people at least spend some time extraverting. The judging-perceiving scale helps describe whether you extravert when you are taking in new information (sensing and intuiting) or when you are making decisions (thinking and feeling).

The MBTI Types

Each type is then listed by its four-letter code:

- ISTJ – The Inspector
- ISTP – The Crafter
- ISFJ – The Protector
- ISFP – The Artist
- INFJ – The Advocate
- INFP – The Mediator
- INTJ – The Architect
- INTP – The Thinker
- ESTP – The Persuader
- ESTJ – The Director
- ESFP – The Performer
- ESFJ – The Caregiver
- ENFP – The Champion
- ENFJ – The Giver
- ENTP – The Debater
- ENTJ – The Commander

Taking the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator can provide a lot of insight into your personality, which is probably why the instrument has become so enormously popular. Even without taking the formal questionnaire, you can probably immediately recognize some of these tendencies in yourself.

> According to the Myers & Briggs Foundation, it is important to remember that all types are equal and that every type has value.

When working in group situations in school or at work, for example, recognizing your own strengths and understanding the strengths of others can be very helpful. When you are working toward completing a project with other members of a group, you might realize that certain members of the group are skilled and talented at performing particular actions. By recognizing these differences, the group can better assign tasks and work together on achieving their goals.

How MBTI Differs From Other Instruments

First, the MBTI is not really a "test." There are no right or wrong answers and one type is not better than any other type. The purpose of the indicator is not to evaluate mental health or offer any type of diagnosis.

Also, unlike many other types of psychological evaluations, your results are not compared against any norms. Instead of looking at your score in comparison to the results of other people, the goal of the instrument is to simply offer further information about your own unique personality.

Reliability and Validity

According to the Myers & Briggs Foundation, the MBTI meets accepted standards of reliability and validity. However, other studies have found that the reliability and validity of the instrument have not been adequately demonstrated.

> Studies have found between 40% and 75% of respondents receive a different result after completing the inventory a second time.

A 1992 book by The Committee on Techniques for the Enhancement of Human Performance and the National Research Council suggests that "there is not sufficient, well-designed research to justify the use of MBTI in career counseling programs. Much of the current evidence is based on inadequate methodologies."

The MBTI Today

Because the Myers-Briggs Personality Type Indicator is relatively easy to use, it has become one of the most popular psychological instruments currently in use today. Approximately two million U.S. adults complete the inventory each year.

> While there are many versions of the MBTI available online, it should be noted that any of the informal questionnaires that you may find on the Internet are only approximations of the real thing.

The real MBTI must be administered by a trained and qualified practitioner that includes a follow-up of the results. Today, the questionnaire can be administered online via the instrument publisher, CPP, Inc., and includes receiving a professional interpretation of your results.

The current version of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator includes 93 forced-choice questions in the North American version and 88 forced-choice questions in the European version. For each question, there are two different options from which the respondent must choose.

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2.1 Perception Process

Learning Objectives

1. Define perception.
2. Describe two salient influences that selection of perceptual information.
3. Explain the ways in which we organize perceptual information.
4. Discuss the role of schemas in the interpretation of perceptual information.

Perception is the process of selecting, organizing, and interpreting information. This process, which is shown in Figure 2.1 "The Perception Process", includes the perception of what stimuli that you perceive and perceived filters, one organized into an existing structure and perceived meaning, and then interpreted based on previous experiences. Although perception is a large process that includes many different parts, it happens very quickly and is an important part of our communication. We respond differently to an object or person that we perceive to be friendly than we do to something that seems threatening. We also do so differ through the same amount of information, and our perceptions of others and their meaning from what is through our perceptual filters and our social context.

Selecting Information

We take in information through five of our senses, and we do so at a rapid rate. The world around us includes so many stimuli that it is impossible for our brains to process and make sense of all of it. Our perceptual processes allow us to focus on certain stimuli and ignore others, usually continuous on through the perception process (Chaiken & Taylor, 1981). Selecting is the first part of the perception process, in which we focus our attention on certain incoming stimuli and ignore others. Our senses are bombarded with stimuli, but we can only focus on one at a time (which is even true for the hallway), so we must pick and choose what to focus on. Some stimuli, small something seeking for those things that are just focus, from well. We typically pay through and pick the background of sound, sights, smells, touch, and other stimuli, but we do decide what to attend and what to ignore.

We tend to pay attention to information that is salient. **Salience** is the degree to which something stands out from its surroundings (Taylor & Thompson, 1982). Salient information is novel, intense, or contrasts with the perception process (Chaiken & Taylor, 1981). Selecting is the first part of the perception process, in which we focus our attention on certain incoming stimuli and ignore others. Our senses are bombarded with stimuli, but we can only focus on one at a time (which is even true for the hallway), so we must pick and choose what to focus on. Some stimuli, small something seeking for those things that are just focus, from well. We typically pay through and pick the background of sound, sights, smells, touch, and other stimuli, but we do decide what to attend and what to ignore.

Visual and Aural Stimulation

It is probably not surprising to learn that visually and/or aurally stimulating things because salient to our perceptual field and get our attention. Contrasts ranging from light to heavyweight, bulky are attended to things like other or opposite being different or not and yellow feel bitter. Having an excess stimulated isn't always a positive thing though. Think about the people that won't stop talking during the movie or the aperson neighbor whose subwoofer shakes your house. Or the people who are so attractive that you can't stop looking at them. Sometimes, the stimuli we consume are too boundless to ever be bounded by minimum distinctions when we feel a something important or say. It's probably better to have a serious conversation with a guy who doesn't have a bulging six-pack or a girl who doesn't look like a supermodel. (Source: Chapter 7, Selling, Marketing, Sales Concepts), allowing the size, volume, and/or of your voice, listens or visual variety, are bulging your audience engaged, or you generate and maintain a conversation

Perception Distortion

HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHIES

George Kelly and His Personal Construct Theory

By Kendra Cherry | Fact checked by Emily Swaim | Updated on March 19, 2020

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In This Article

Early Life
Selected Publications
Career
Contributions

George Kelly was a famed psychologist best known for his contributions to personal construct theory. He is commonly referred to as the father of cognitive clinical psychology and he played a role in the early development of the field of cognitive psychology.

Early Life

George Kelly was born near Perth, Kansas. His parents, Theodore Vincent Kelly and Elfleda Merriam Kelly were poor but hard-working farmers. During much of his early life, Kelly's education was limited to teachings from his parents. He did not receive any formal education until 1918 when he attended school in Wichita, Kansas.

At the age of 16, he started attending the Friends University academy and began taking college courses.

> Kelly never graduated high school but went on to earn his bachelor's degree in 1926, majoring in mathematics and physics.

Kelly initially planned on a career in engineering but abandoned that idea in favor of studying educational sociology at the University of Kansas. Before completing his master's, however, he left to enroll at the University of Minnesota. He had to withdraw from school when he found himself unable to pay tuition. In 1927, he found a position teaching psychology at Sheldon Junior College in Iowa.

In 1931, Kelly completed a Ph.D. in Psychology from the University of Iowa.

Career

Kelly began teaching at the Fort Hays Kansas State College in 1931.

> In the midst of the Great Depression, Kelly started applying his knowledge towards something he found useful—evaluating school children and adults—and developing his landmark theory.

During this time, he also established a traveling clinic that offered psychological services to people throughout the state of Kansas, working to serve people who had been hard hit by the economic upheaval of the time.

Freudian Influences

As Kelly formed his theory, he studied the works of Austrian psychoanalyst, Sigmund Freud, for ideas and inspiration. While Kelly appreciated Freud's work, he felt there were some problems with the psychoanalyst's approach. In Freud's therapy, the therapist would provide the "correct interpretation" of the client's situation, which Freud believed was the key to change.

Related: An Overview of Freud's Theories

Based on his observations, Kelly developed an idea that he referred to as constructive alternativism. Essentially, each individual has their own unique construction or perspective of reality. Each construction is different, and while some may be better than others, no one interpretation is complete or completely accurate. Kelly's idea suggested that everyone's viewpoint has value, particularly for their own unique situation, time, place, and moment.

Related: The Origins of Psychology: History Through the Years

Personal Construct Theory

After World War II, Kelly became a professor of psychology at Ohio State University where he worked for almost 20 years. It was here that he formally developed his personal construct theory. He published two texts called *The Psychology of Personal Constructs, Volumes I and II* which summarized the majority of his theory.

Kelly's personal construct theory suggested that the differences between people result from the different ways that we predict and interpret events in the world around us.

> Personal constructs, he suggested, were the ways that each person gathers information, evaluates it, and develops interpretations.

Much like a scientist forms a hypothesis, collects data, and analyzes the results, people also take in information and perform their own "experiments" to test ideas and interpretations of events. The results of our everyday investigations influence our personalities and our way of interacting with our environment and the people around us.

Most importantly, Kelly suggested that these constructs can change. While a construct might work at one point in a person's life, it might need to adapt or change as the situation changes.

"It is not so much what man is that counts as it is what he ventures to make of himself," he wrote in his 1964 article, *The Language of Hypothesis.* "To make the leap he must do more than disclose himself; he must risk a certain amount of confusion. Then, as soon as he does catch a glimpse of a different kind of life, he needs to find some way of overcoming the paralyzing moment of threat, for this is the instant when he wonders who he really is—whether he is what he just was or is what he is about to be."

Related: How Personal Construct Theory Works

Selected Publications

- Kelly, G. A. (1955). *The Psychology of Personal Constructs: Vol 1 and 2.* New York: WW Norton.
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- Maher, B., Ed. (1969). *Clinical Psychology and Personality: The Selected Papers of George Kelly.* New York, Wiley.

Contributions to Psychology

Kelly played an important role in the development of clinical psychology, both through his position at Ohio State University and through his leadership roles with the American Psychological Association.

> Kelly's perspective that people are essentially natural scientists played a role in the later development of cognitive-behavioral therapy.

His work is part of the early start of the cognitive movement in psychology and he is often described as one of the first cognitive theorists. Others identify him as a humanist thinker since his theory emphasized elements of human potential and personal change, similar to that of Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory.

Interestingly, Kelly disliked being thought of as a cognitive theorist.[1] While his theory shares some elements similar to the work of other humanistic and cognitive theories, he felt that his personal construct theory was unrelated.

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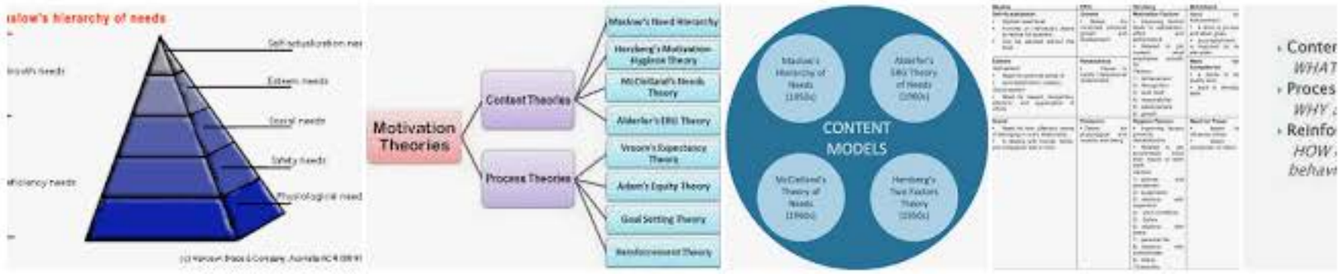

While process **theories** of motivation attempt to explain how and why our motivations affect our behaviors, **content theories** of motivation attempt to define what those motives or needs are. **Content theory** includes the work of David McClelland, Abraham Maslow and other psychologists.

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Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

A framework for human motivation.

What is Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs?

Maslow's hierarchy of needs is a theory of psychology explaining human motivation based on the pursuit of different levels of needs. The theory states that humans are motivated to fulfill their needs in a hierarchical order. This order begins with the most basic needs before moving on to more advanced needs. The ultimate goal, according to this theory, is to reach the fifth level of the hierarchy: self-actualization.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs is often referenced in business classes with regard to organizational behavior and human resources. Climb up Maslow's hierarchy and reach self-actualization with CFI's Financial Modeling & Valuation Analyst (FMVA)® Certification Program!

History

Maslow's hierarchy of needs was first introduced in Abraham Maslow's 1943 paper, "A Theory of Human Motivation". Maslow later refined this theory in 1954 with his book, "Motivation and Personality". Since then, this theory has remained a popular subject in sociology, management training, and psychology classes.

Levels of Hierarchy

There are five main levels to Maslow's hierarchy of needs. These levels begin from the most basic needs to the most advanced needs. Maslow originally believed that a person needed to completely satisfy one level to begin pursuing further levels.

A more modern perspective is that these levels overlap. As a person reaches higher levels, their motivation is directed more towards these levels. However, though their main focus is on higher levels, they will still continue to pursue lower levels of the hierarchy but with less intensity.

Learn how psychology relates to financial analysis. Corporate Finance Institute offers a behavioral finance course for those interested in how psychology affects investing decisions!

#1: Physiological Needs

Physiological needs are the lowest level of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. They are the most essential things a person needs to survive. They include the need for shelter, water, food, warmth, rest, and health. A person's motivation at this level derives from their instinct to survive.

#2: Safety Needs

The second level of Maslow's hierarchy of needs consists of safety needs. Safety, or security needs, relate to a person's need to feel safe and secure in their life and surroundings. Motivation comes from the need for law, order, and protection from unpredictable and dangerous conditions.

There are many examples of safety needs in modern society. To find stability and security, a person must consider their physical safety. This means seeking protection from the elements, violent conditions, or health threats and sickness. Additionally, an individual needs economic safety to live and thrive in modern societies. This refers to the need for job security, stable income, and savings. One method of achieving economic safety is to learn proper investment strategies.

#3: Love and Belonging Needs

The third level of Maslow's hierarchy of needs is love and belonging needs. Humans are social creatures that crave interaction with others. This level of the hierarchy outlines the need for friendship, intimacy, family, and love. Humans have the need to give and receive love; to feel like they belong in a group. When deprived of these needs, individuals may experience loneliness or depression.

#4: Esteem Needs

The fourth level of Maslow's hierarchy of needs is esteem needs. Esteem needs are related to a person's need to gain recognition, status, and feel respected. Once someone has fulfilled their love and belonging needs, they seek to fulfill their esteem needs.

Maslow broke up esteem needs into two categories: the need for respect from others and the need for respect from oneself. Respect from others relates to achieving fame, prestige, and recognition. Respect from oneself relates to dignity, confidence, competence, independence, and freedom.

#5: Self-Actualization Needs

The fifth and final level of Maslow's hierarchy of needs is self-actualization needs. Self-actualization relates to the realization of an individual's full potential. At this level, people strive to become the best that they possibly can be.

The need for self-actualization can manifest in different ways, such as:

1. Obtaining skills (e.g., financial modeling skills)
2. Continued education (e.g., online training courses)
3. Utilizing skills, knowledge, and talents
4. Pursuing life dreams
5. Seeking happiness

One person may strive to become the best parent and everyone's best friend. Another person might aim to become a millionaire and philanthropist. Others may work toward becoming a famous athlete. In general, self-actualization is the pursuit of personal growth.

Here at CFI, we strive to help people with their self-actualization needs in becoming world-class financial analysts. Our Financial Modeling & Valuation Analyst (FMVA)® Certification Program is designed to give you all the skills you need to succeed as a financial analyst!

Growth vs. Deficiency Needs

Maslow separated his hierarchy into two different overarching types of needs: growth needs and deficiency needs.

The main difference between growth and deficiency needs is the change in motivation as needs are met. Motivation increases are growth needs are met. Conversely, motivation decreases as deficiency needs are met.

As mentioned previously, self-actualization is the pursuit of personal growth, thus making it a growth need. Growth needs originate from a desire to become better and grow as a person. As a person fulfills growth needs, their motivation increases as their desire to become even better increases.

Conversely, deficiency needs pertain to the four levels below self-actualization: physiological, safety, love and belonging, and esteem needs. Deficiency needs stem from a person's desire to get rid of deficiencies or obtain things they are lacking. As a person obtains the things they lack, their motivation to obtain these things decreases.

Examples of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

In general, a person's motivation lies in the level of the hierarchy that they are currently pursuing. Here are some situations that are examples of this.

For example, if a person is lost in the woods, they are likely looking to fulfill their physiological needs. They may be hungry, thirsty, lacking shelter, or cold. This individual would probably not be concerned with their financial security or their need to belong in a group. They are looking to fulfill the conditions for their immediate survival.

Conversely, we can consider a senior financial analyst. This is someone who has a secure, high-paying job, a spouse, family, and house. This person is in a well-respected position at their company and among their peers. It is unlikely that this person's motivation focuses on their physiological or safety needs, as these are clearly fulfilled. Instead, they would be looking to strive for personal growth and happiness. They would be looking to fulfill their self-actualization needs and discover what else the world has to offer, and what they have to offer the world.

Additional Resources

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Business Jargons / Business / Alderfer's ERG Theory

Alderfer's ERG Theory

Definition: Alderfer's ERG Theory is the extension of Maslow's Needs Hierarchy, wherein the Maslow's five needs are categorized into three categories, Viz. Existence Needs, Relatedness Needs, and Growth Needs.

An American psychologist Clayton Paul Alderfer had proposed this theory and believed that each need carries some value and hence can be classified as lower-order needs and higher-order needs. He also found some level of overlapping in the physiological, security and social needs along with an invisible line of demarcation between the social, esteem and self-actualization needs. This led to the formation Alderfer's ERG theory, which comprises of the condensed form of Maslow's needs.

Alderfer's ERG Theory

Existence Needs: The existence needs comprises of all those needs that relate to the physiological and safety aspects of human beings and are a prerequisite for the survival. Thus, both the physiological and safety needs of Maslow are grouped into one category because of their same nature and a similar impact on the behavior of an individual.

Relatedness Needs: The relatedness needs refer to the social needs, that an individual seeks to establish relationships with those for whom he cares. These needs cover the Maslow's social needs and a part of esteem needs, derived from the relationship with other people.

Growth Needs: The growth needs cover Maslow's self-actualization needs as well as a part of esteem needs which are internal to the individual, such as a feeling of being unique, personnel growth, etc. Thus, growth needs are those needs that influence an individual to explore his maximum potential in the existing environment.

Related Terms:

1. Maslow's Need Hierarchy
2. NeoClassical theory
3. Socio-Psychological Theory
4. Self Theory
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Thanks for the Theory, It Helped me on my Assignments

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Herzberg's Motivation Theory – Two Factor Theory

Herzberg's Motivation Theory model, or Two Factor Theory, argues that there are two factors that an organization can adjust to influence motivation in the workplace.

These factors are:

- Motivators: Which can encourage employees to work harder.
- Hygiene factors: These won't encourage employees to work harder but they will cause them to become unmotivated if they are not present.

Note

Herzberg's Motivation Theory model goes by a number of different names, including Two Factor Theory, Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory, and Dual Structure Theory. We will use these terms interchangeably in this article.

Frederick Herzberg developed the model in 1959. He did this by interviewing over 200 professionals. The interviews delved into when the interviewees were at their most and least happiest with their jobs.

Other motivation theories you may want to learn about include Equity Theory and Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs.

What is Two Factor Theory?

Herzberg's Theory of Motivation tries to get to the root of motivation in the workplace. You can leverage this theory to help you get the best performance from your team.

The two factors identified by Herzberg are motivators and hygiene factors.

1. Motivating Factors

The presence of motivators causes employees to work harder. They are found within the actual job itself.

2. Hygiene Factors

The absence of hygiene factors will cause employees to work less hard. Hygiene factors are not present in the actual job itself but surround the job.

The impact of motivating and hygiene factors is summarized in the following diagram. Note that you will often see motivators referred to as factors for satisfaction, and hygiene factors referred to as factors for dissatisfaction.

Herzberg's Two Factor Theory

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Examples of motivating and hygiene factors are shown in the following diagram.

Two Factor Theory of Motivation

Motivators	Hygiene Factors
Achievement Recognition The work itself Responsibility Advancement Growth	Company policies Supervision Relationships Work conditions Remuneration Salary Security

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Motivating factors include:

- Achievement: A job must give an employee a sense of achievement. This will provide a proud feeling of having done something difficult but worthwhile.
- Recognition: A job must provide an employee with praise and recognition of their success. This recognition should come from both their superiors and their peers.
- The work itself: The job itself must be interesting, varied, and provide enough of a challenge to keep employees motivated.
- Responsibility: Employees should "own" their work. They should hold themselves responsible for this completion and not feel as though they are being micromanaged.
- Advancement: Promotion opportunities should exist for the employee.
- Growth: The job should give employees the opportunity to learn new skills. This can happen either on the job or through more formal training.

Hygiene factors include:

- Company policies: These should be fair and clear to every employee. They must also be equivalent to those of competitors.
- Supervision: Supervision must be fair and appropriate. The employee should be given as much autonomy as is reasonable.
- Relationships: There should be no tolerance for bullying or cliques. A healthy, amiable, and appropriate relationship should exist between peers, superiors, and subordinates.
- Work conditions: Equipment and the working environment should be safe, fit for purpose, and hygienic.
- Salary: The pay structure should be fair and reasonable. It should also be competitive with other organizations in the same industry.
- Status: The organization should maintain the status of all employees within the organization. Performing meaningful work can provide a sense of status.
- Security: It is important that employees feel that their job is secure and they are not under the constant threat of being laid-off.

The Four Stats

In a general sense, there are four states an organization or team can find themselves in when it comes to Two Factor Theory.

1. High Hygiene and High Motivation

This is the ideal situation and the one which every manager should strive for. Here, all employees are motivated and have very few grievances.

2. High Hygiene and Low Motivation

In this situation, employees have few grievances but they are not highly motivated. An example of this situation is where pay and working conditions are competitive but the work isn't very interesting. Employees are simply there to collect their salary.

3. Low Hygiene and High Motivation

In this situation, employees are highly motivated but they have a lot of grievances. A typical example of this situation is where the work is exciting and really interesting but the pay and conditions are behind competitors in the same industry.

4. Low Hygiene and Low Motivation

This is obviously a bad situation for an organization or team to find itself in. Here, employees aren't motivated and the hygiene factors are not up to scratch.

How to Use The Model

There is a two-step process to use the Two Factor Theory model to increase the motivation of your team.

1. Eliminate job hygiene stressors.
2. Boost job satisfaction.

1. Eliminate Job Hygiene Stressors

The first step to enhancing the motivation of your team is to ensure that the hygiene factors are not causing dissatisfaction.

Each person will examine hygiene factors through their own unique frame of reference. Because of this, it's important to work with each member of your team to understand their specific perspective.

Some common steps to remove hygiene stressors are:

- Rectify petty and bureaucratic company policies.
- Ensure each team member feels supported without feeling micromanaged. You can do this by using servant leadership or a democratic leadership style.
- Ensure the day to day working culture is supportive. No bullying. No cliques. Everyone treated with equal respect.
- Ensure that salaries are competitive within the industry. Ensure there are no major salary disparities between employees doing similar jobs.
- To increase job satisfaction and status, aim to construct jobs in such a way that each team member finds their job meaningful.

2. Boost Job Satisfaction

Once you have removed hygiene stressors, the next step is to boost the job satisfaction of each team member. We can do this by improving the actual content of the job itself. Again, a unique approach for each employee will be required.

Three techniques which can be used to achieve this are:

a. Job Enrichment

Job enrichment means enriching a team member's job by giving them more challenging or complex tasks to perform. These more complex tasks should make the job more interesting.

b. Job Enlargement

Job enlargement means giving a team member a greater variety of tasks to perform. This variety can also make a job more interesting.

Note that with job enlargement the variety of tasks is increased, but not the difficulty of those tasks. If difficulty increased then that would be job enrichment.

c. Employee Empowerment

Employee empowerment means delegating increasing responsibility to each team member. This can be done by slowly increasing the amount of responsibility you delegate to an employee.

Learn more about how to delegate.

Limitations of the Theory

Some common criticisms of Herzberg's Motivation Theory include:

- The theory only applies to white collar workers.
- It doesn't take an individuals situation or perception into consideration. We have attempted to address this above by applying the theory at an individual level.
- The theory focuses on improving employee satisfaction. That doesn't necessarily translate into increased productivity.
- There is no objective way to measure employee satisfaction within the theory.
- Two Factor Theory is subject to bias. For example, when an employee is satisfied they will give themselves credit for that satisfaction. Conversely, when they are dissatisfied they will blame external factors.

Summary

Herzberg's Motivation Theory model, or Two Factor Theory, provides two factors that affect motivation in the workplace.

These factors are hygiene factors and motivating factors. Hygiene factors will cause an employee to work less if not present. Motivating factors will encourage an employee to work harder if present.

To use the theory within your team, start by getting any hygiene issues resolved. Once you have done this, you can boost motivation by putting in place as many motivating factors as practical.

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McClelland's Theory of Needs

In his *acquired-needs* theory, David McClelland proposed that an individual's specific needs are acquired over time and are shaped by one's life experiences. Most of these needs can be classed as either *achievement*, *affiliation*, or *power*. A person's motivation and effectiveness in certain job functions are influenced by these three needs. McClelland's theory sometimes is referred to as the *three need theory* or as the *learned needs theory*.

Achievement

People with a high need for achievement (nAch) seek to excel and thus tend to avoid both low-risk and high-risk situations. Achievers avoid low-risk situations because the easily attained success is not a genuine achievement. In high-risk projects, achievers see the outcome as one of chance rather than one's own effort. High nAch individuals prefer work that has a moderate probability of success, ideally a 50% chance. Achievers need regular feedback in order to monitor the progress of their acheivements. They prefer either to work alone or with other high achievers.

Affiliation

Those with a high need for affiliation (nAff) need harmonious relationships with other people and need to feel accepted by other people. They tend to conform to the norms of their work group. High nAff individuals prefer work that provides significant personal interaction. They perform well in customer service and client interaction situations.

Power

A person's need for power (nPow) can be one of two types - personal and institutional. Those who need personal power want to direct others, and this need often is perceived as undesirable. Persons who need institutional power (also known as social power) want to organize the efforts of others to further the goals of the organization. Managers with a high need for institutional power tend to be more effective than those with a high need for personal power.

Thematic Apperception Test

McClelland used the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) as a tool to measure the individual needs of different people. The TAT is a test of imagination that presents the subject with a series of ambiguous pictures, and the subject is asked to develop a spontaneous story for each picture. The assumption is that the subject will project his or her own needs into the story.

Psychologists have developed fairly reliable scoring techniques for the Thematic Apperception Test. The test determines the individual's score for each of the needs of achievement, affiliation, and power. This score can be used to suggest the types of jobs for which the person might be well suited.

Implications for Management

People with different needs are motivated differently.

- *High need for achievement* - High achievers should be given challenging projects with reachable goals. They should be provided frequent feedback. While money is not an important motivator, it is an effective form of feedback.
- *High need for affiliation* - Employees with a high affiliation need perform best in a cooperative environment.
- *High need for power* - Management should provide power seekers the opportunity to manage others.

Note that McClelland's theory allows for the shaping of a person's needs; training programs can be used to modify one's need profile.

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Process Theories of Motivation

3. Describe the process theories of motivation, and compare and contrast the main process theories of motivation: operant conditioning theory, equity theory, goal theory, and expectancy theory.

Process theories of motivation try to explain *why* behaviors are initiated. These theories focus on the mechanism by which we choose a target, and the effort that we exert to "hit" the target. There are four major process theories: (1) operant conditioning, (2) equity, (3) goal, and (4) expectancy.

Operant Conditioning Theory

Operant conditioning theory is the simplest of the motivation theories. It basically states that people will do those things for which they are rewarded and will avoid doing things for which they are punished. This premise is sometimes called the "law of effect." However, if this were the sum total of conditioning theory, we would not be discussing it here. Operant conditioning

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- Deming Cycle
- Deming's 14 points
- Drawing Packages
- Finite Capacity Scheduling
- Flexibility Framework
- Flow Charts

Vroom's expectancy theory

...assumes that behavior results from conscious choices among alternatives whose purpose it is to maximize pleasure and minimize pain. Together with Edward Lawler and Lyman Porter, Victor Vroom suggested that the relationship between people's behavior at work and their goals was not as simple as was first imagined by other scientists. Vroom realized that an employee's performance is based on individuals factors such as personality, skills, knowledge, experience and abilities.
The theory suggests that although individuals may have different sets of goals, they can be motivated if they believe that:

- There is a positive correlation between efforts and performance,
- Favorable performance will result in a desirable reward,
- The rewardwill satisfy an important need,
- The desire to satisfy the need is strong enough to make the effort worthwhile.

The theory is based upon the following beliefs:

Valence

Valence refers to the emotional orientations people hold with respect to outcomes [rewards]. The depth of the want of an employee for extrinsic [money, promotion, time-off, benefits] or intrinsic [satisfaction] rewards). Management must discover what employees value.

Expectancy

Employees have different expectations and levels of confidence about what they are capable of doing. Management must discover what resources, training, or supervision employees need.

Instrumentality

The perception of employees as to whether they will actually get what they desire even if it has been promised by a manager. Management must ensure that promises of rewards are fulfilled and that employees are aware of that.
Vroom suggests that an employee's beliefs about Expectancy, Instrumentality, and Valence interact psychologically to create a motivational force such that the employee acts in ways that bring pleasure and avoid pain.

References

- Management and Motivation, Vroom, V.H., Deci, E.L., Penguin 1983 (first published 1970)
  [This book contains selected readings on "motivation"; Including Simon, Maslow, Herzberg, Vroom, Lawler etc.]

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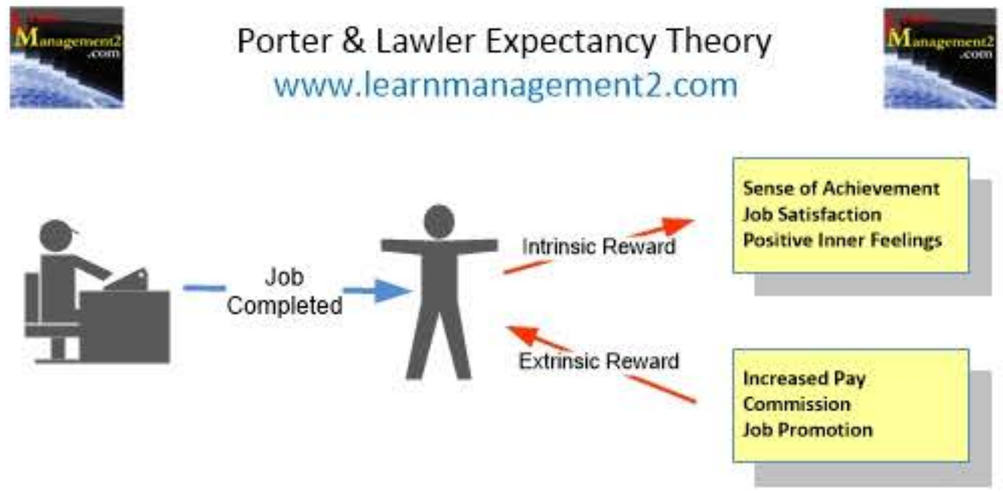
Expectancy Theory

Porter & Lawler

Introduction

Porter and Lawler (Lyman W Porter and Edward E Lawler) used Victor Vroom's Expectancy Theory as a foundation to develop their expectancy model. Similar to Vroom's theory Porter and Lawler concluded that an individual's motivation to complete a task is affected by the reward they expect to receive for completing the task. However Porter and Lawler introduced additional aspects to the expectancy theory as they felt that Vroom's theory was too simple.

The diagram below illustrates the two types of motivation rewards under Porter & Lawler's Expectancy Theory



Intrinsic And Extrinsic Rewards

Porter and Lawler categorised the reward as intrinsic and extrinsic

- Intrinsic rewards are the positive feelings that the individual experiences from completing the task e.g. satisfaction, sense of achievement.
- Extrinsic rewards are rewards emanating from outside the individual such as bonus, commission and pay increases.

Porter and Lawler's Expectancy Theory Model suggested that an individual's view regarding the attractiveness and fairness of the rewards will affect motivation.

Ability And Perception

Porter and Lawler said that motivation is also affected by

1. the individual's ability to perform the task and
2. their perception of the task

Post Job Completion Reward

Once the individual has completed the task their motivation will drop if the intrinsic and extrinisic reward received does not match their expectations of the reward they has expected to receive.

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Equity Theory – Keeping Employees Motivated

Everyone in the workplace is motivated by something. This motivation could be external in nature, such a money, and status, or internal, such as a desire to do a good job. Leaders and managers have sought to understand theories of motivation and then test them in the workplace to increase the productivity and effectiveness of their workforce.

Adam's Equity Theory, also known as the Equity Theory of Motivation, was developed in 1963 by John Stacey Adams, a workplace behavioral psychologist.

Equity Theory is based on the idea that individuals are motivated by fairness. In simple terms, equity theory states that if an individual identifies an inequity between themselves and a peer, they will adjust the work they do to make the situation fair in their eyes. As an example of equity theory, if an employee learns that a peer doing exactly the same job as them is earning more money, then they may choose to do less work, thus creating fairness in their eyes.

Extrapolating from this, Adam's Equity Theory tells us that the higher an individual's perception of equity (fairness), then the more motivated they will be. Conversely, an individual will be demotivated if they perceive unfairness.

Understanding Equity

To understand Adam's Equity Theory in full, we need to first define inputs and outputs. Inputs are defined as those things that an individual does in order to receive an output. They are the contribution the individual makes to the organization.

Common inputs include:

- The number of hours worked (effort).
- The commitment shown.
- The enthusiasm shown.
- The experience brought to the role.
- Any personal sacrifices made.
- The responsibilities and duties of the individual in the role.
- The loyalty the individual has demonstrated to superiors or the organization.
- The flexibility shown by the individual, for example, by accepting assignments at very short notice or with very tight deadlines.

Outputs (sometimes referred to as outcomes) are the result an individual receives as a result of their inputs to the organization. Some of these benefits will be tangible, such as salary, but others will be intangible, such as recognition.

Common outputs include:

- Salary
- Bonus
- Pension
- Annual holiday allowance
- Company car
- Stock options
- Recognition
- Promotion
- Performance appraisals
- Flexibility of work arrangements
- Sense of achievement
- Learning

Now that we understand inputs and outputs, we're in a position to define equity. Equity is defined as an individual's outputs divided by that same person's inputs.

Adam's Equity Theory goes a step further and states that individuals don't just understand equity in isolation, instead they look around and compare themselves to others. If they perceive an inequity then they will adjust their inputs to restore balance. This is illustrated in the following equity theory equation.

Equity Theory

$$\frac{\text{Individual outputs}}{\text{Individual inputs}} = \frac{\text{Other's output}}{\text{Other's input}}$$

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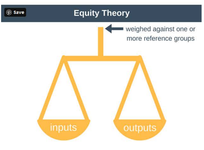
Essentially, what we are saying is that individuals will always adjust their inputs so that the equation is always in balance. So, if an individual believes their outputs are lower than their inputs relative to others around them they will become demotivated. Likewise, an individual may need to increase their inputs if their outputs are greater than those doing exactly the same job. Essentially, an individual within an organization will always try to keep fairness (equity) in balance:



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How We Compare: Referent Groups

A referent group is simply a collection of people a person uses for the purposes of comparison. For Adam's Equity Theory of Motivation, there are four referent groups people compare themselves with:

1. Self-inside: the individual's experience within their current organization.
2. Self-outside: the individual's experience with other organizations.
3. Others-inside: others within the individual's current organization.
4. Others-outside: others outside of the individual organization.

For example, if a programmer compares what they earn to other programmers within the same organization then the referent group is the others-inside. If they compare themselves to programmers they know socially then the referent group is others-outside. If they were to compare themselves to what they earnt in their previous job then the referent group is self-outside.

Adam's Equity Theory still holds even when people compare themselves to others doing very different roles and earning very different compensation. Take our example of a programmer again. They may compare themselves to the CEO of their company who earns 100 times more than the programmer. How can this seem fair?

Well, the answer is that they will perceive the inputs to be vastly different. They will see that they have a great work-life balance whereas the CEO is traveling a lot of the time. They may perceive that the CEO has vastly more experience, alongside working much longer hours and having to deal with more stress. In this way, fairness is established in the mind of the individual.

It is always worth remembering that Equity Theory applies in a very broad sense. Each person will respond to perceived inequality in their own individual and unique way.

Equity Theory Examples

You can identify Equity Theory in the workplace by listening to the phrases that people use in conversation. Most commonly an individual will compare the role that they do to someone who is getting paid more than they are. Equity theory is in play when individuals say things like:

- "Andy earns more than I do, but doesn't do nearly as much work!"
- "I get paid a lot less than Andy, but this place would fall apart without me!"
- "Did you hear that the new guy earns $500 more and works fewer hours! How is that fair?"

As you can see, in each of these examples someone is comparing their own compensation and effort against someone else's. Although comparing compensation is the most common comparator, other typical forms of comparison include comparing learning opportunities or comparing opportunities to work from home.

Key Points for Managers

If you're responsible for a team, then the key points you'll need to keep in mind are:

- People measure the total of all inputs against the total of all outputs. This could mean that a person with children may accept flexible working hours in return for lower pay.
- Unfortunately, an individual's values will be used when they measure fairness. So two identical employees on identical pay may each see the fairness of their situation differently. Perceptions may also be different from one person to another. The art of being a good manager is to manage these expectations and influence values.
- Although it is understandable that more senior staff earn significantly more, there are limits, and excessive pay for senior people can be demotivating.
- An employee who believes they are overcompensated may increase their effort.

Another thing for managers to be aware of is the options available to them for reducing inequality:

- Change an individual's inputs or outputs.
- Change the inputs or outputs of others
- Change the perceptions of inputs and outputs

Equity Theory Summary

In essence, the Equity Theory of Motivation proposes that high levels of employee motivation in the workplace can only be achieved when each employee perceives their treatment to be fair relative to others. Employees will compare themselves to other groups both inside and outside of the organization. In doing so, they will compare the total of all inputs against the total of all outputs. If they perceive unfairness they will adjust their inputs to compensate, working more or working less, depending on if their situation is positive or negative relative to the group or person being compared.

Recognising the phrases employees use when equity theory is in play in the workplace can be a key step in creating a high-performance team.

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MOTIVATIONAL THEORIES

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Goal & Goal Orientation Theory

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Goal theory is an overall approach to motivation that emphasizes the need to establish goals as intrinsic motivation. A relationship exists between goal difficulty, level of performance, and effort involved. This relationship will remain positive, so long as the person is committed to the goal, has the pre-existing ability to attain it, and doesn't have conflicting goals. Goal theory states that several conditions are particularly important in successful achievement. These include goal acceptance and commitment, goal specificity, goal difficulty, and feedback.

Motivation towards Goal Oriented learning is influenced by the following variables:

- Mastery goals - understanding of concepts and content, and application to tasks - learning, task-involved, approach and avoidance
- Performance goals - performance, relative ability, ego-involved, approach and avoidance
- Outcomes - goals, attributions, self-efficacy, levels of cognitive engagement, self-regulation, affect, interest, persistence, choice behaviors

Generally goals are categorized as one of the following:

1. Mastery Approach: focus on mastering task, learning , understanding
2. Performance Approach: focus on being the best in comparison to others
3. Mastery Avoidance: Focus on avoiding misunderstanding or not mastering task correctly
4. Performance Avoidance: Focus on avoiding looking dumb in comparison to others

What are strengths and weaknesses of Goal Theory?

Goal theory is widely accepted due to extensive empirical research and ease of use. It is broadly applicable and has an array of data to support its effectiveness (particularly within the business realm). However, problems can arise when two existing goals conflict, or one goal receives priority over another. Plus there is no decisive theoretical framework for the theory making it helpful to use in conjunction with other theories but difficult as a stand-alone theory.

Which researchers are associated with Goal Theory?

Precursors:

Abraham Maslow- Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Henry Murray- Murray's Taxonomy of Needs

Contributors:

Gary Latham & Edwin Locke- Goal Setting Theory

Kathryn Wentzel- Social Goal Theory

Philip Winne & Julie Hadwin- Information Processing Theory

Carol Dweck- Self Theories

How is Goal Theory applied in practical settings?

- Include learners in goal setting
- Set **specific goals**
- Set individual goals
- Provide **ongoing feedback**
- Have learners be active in setting goals and the review process
- Ensure that goals are focused on areas that are important to current and future goals
- Align reward systems with desirable results

Which research supports or criticizes Goal Theory?

Support for Goal Theory comes from individual and group settings, laboratory and field studies, across different cultures and involves many different tasks (Locke & Latham, 2002). An analysis performed by Tubbs (1986) supported the idea that specific, difficult goals are directly correlated to improve performance. Critics of Goal Theory site overuse and unintended consequences as relevant cause for concern. Also concerning is the propensity for individuals to partake in unethical behavior in order to meet a goal and subsequent reward (Ordóñez, et al., 2009).

Resources:

*www.wire.wisc.edu

*Schunk, D., Meece, J.,& Pintrich, P. (2014.) Motivation in education. Boston: Pearson.

*www.coloradoavalanchecares.com

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Features of goal theory

- The willingness to work towards attainment of goal is main source of job motivation. Clear, particular and difficult goals are greater motivating factors than easy, general and vague goals.
- **Specific and clear** goals lead to greater output and better performance. Unambiguous, measurable and clear goals accompanied by a deadline for completion avoids misunderstanding.
- Goals should be **realistic and challenging**. This gives an individual a feeling of pride and triumph when he attains them, and sets him up for attainment of next goal. The more challenging the goal, the greater is the reward generally and the more is the passion for achieving it.
- Better and appropriate feedback of results directs the employee behaviour and contributes to higher performance than absence of feedback. Feedback is a means of gaining reputation, making clarifications and regulating goal difficulties. It helps employees to work with more involvement and leads to greater job satisfaction.
- **Employees' participation** in goal is not always desirable.
- Participation of setting goal, however, makes goal more acceptable and leads to more involvement.

Goal setting theory has certain eventualities such as:

a. **Self-efficiency-** Self-efficiency is the individual's self-confidence and faith that he has potential of performing the task. Higher the level of self-efficiency, greater will be the efforts put in by the individual when they face challenging tasks. While, lower the level of self-efficiency, less will be the efforts put in by the individual or he might even quit while meeting challenges.
b. **Goal commitment-** Goal setting theory assumes that the individual is committed to the goal and will not leave the goal. The goal commitment is dependent on the following factors:
   i. Goals are made open, known and broadcasted.
   ii. Goals should be set-self by individual rather than designated.
   iii. Individual's set goals should be consistent with the organizational goals and vision.

Advantages of Goal Setting Theory

- Goal setting theory is a technique used to raise incentives for employees to complete work quickly and effectively.
- Goal setting leads to better performance by increasing motivation and efforts, but also through increasing and improving the feedback quality.

Limitations of Goal Setting Theory

- At times, the organizational goals are in conflict with the managerial goals. Goal conflict has a detrimental effect on the performance if it motivates incompatible action drift.
- Very difficult and complex goals stimulate riskier behaviour.
- If the employee lacks skills and competencies to perform actions essential for goal, then the goal-setting can fail and lead to undermining of performance.
- There is no evidence to prove that goal-setting improves job satisfaction.

Attribution Theory (B. Weiner)

Attribution theory is concerned with how individuals interpret events and how this relates to their thinking and behavior. Heider (1958) was the first to propose a psychological theory of attribution, but Weiner and colleagues (e.g., Jones et al, 1972; Weiner, 1974, 1986) developed a theoretical framework that has become a major research paradigm of social psychology. Attribution theory assumes that people try to determine why people do what they do, i.e., attribute causes to behavior. A person seeking to understand why another person did something may attribute one or more causes to that behavior. A three-stage process underlies an attribution: (1) the person must perceive or observe the behavior, (2) then the person must believe that the behavior was intentionally performed, and (3) then the person must determine if they believe the other person was forced to perform the behavior (in which case the cause is attributed to the situation) or not (in which case the cause is attributed to the other person).

Weiner focused his attribution theory on achievement (Weiner, 1974). He identified ability, effort, task difficulty, and luck as the most important factors affecting attributions for achievement. Attributions are classified along three causal dimensions: locus of control, stability, and controllability. The locus of control dimension has two poles: internal versus external locus of control. The stability dimension captures whether causes change over time or not. For instance, ability can be classified as a stable, internal cause, and effort classified as unstable and internal. Controllability contrasts causes one can control, such as skill/efficacy, from causes one cannot control, such as aptitude, mood, others' actions, and luck.

Attribution theory is closely associated with the concept of motivation. It also relates the work done on script theory and inferencing done by Schank.

Application

Weiner's theory has been widely applied in education, law, clinical psychology, and the mental health domain. There is a strong relationship between self-concept and achievement. Weiner (1980) states: "Causal attributions determine affective reactions to success and failure. For example, one is not likely to experience pride in success, or feelings of competence, when receiving an 'A' from a teacher who gives only that grade, or when defeating a tennis player who always loses...On the other hand, an 'A' from a teacher who gives few high grades or a victory over a highly rated tennis player following a great deal of practice generates great positive affect." (p.362). Students with higher ratings of self-esteem and with higher school achievement tend to attribute success to internal, stable, uncontrollable factors such as ability, while they contribute failure to either internal, unstable, controllable factors such as effort, or external, uncontrollable factors such as task difficulty. For example, students who experience repeated failures in reading are likely to see themselves as being less competent in reading. This self-perception of reading ability reflects itself in children's expectations of success on reading tasks and reasoning of success or failure of reading. Similarly, students with learning disabilities seem less likely than non-disabled peers to attribute failure to effort, an unstable, controllable factor, and more likely to attribute failure to ability, a stable, uncontrollable factor.

Lewis & Daltroy (1990) discuss applications of attribution theory to health care. An interesting example of attribution theory applied to career development is provided by Daly (1996) who *examined* the attributions that employees held as to why they failed to receive promotions.

Example

Attribution theory has been used to explain the difference in motivation between high and low achievers. According to attribution theory, high achievers will approach rather than avoid tasks related to succeeding because they believe success is due to high ability and effort which they are confident of. Failure is thought to be caused by bad luck or a poor exam, i.e. not their fault. Thus, failure doesn't affect their self-esteem but success builds pride and confidence. On the other hand, low achievers avoid success-related chores because they tend to (a) doubt their ability and/or (b) assume success is related to luck or to "who you know" or to other factors beyond their control. Thus, even when successful, it isn't as rewarding to the low achiever because he/she doesn't feel responsible, i.e., it doesn't increase his/her pride and confidence.

Principles

1. Attribution is a three stage process: (1) behavior is observed, (2) behavior is determined to be deliberate, and (3) behavior is attributed to internal or external causes.
2. Achievement can be attributed to (1) effort, (2) ability, (3) level of task difficulty, or (4) luck.
3. Causal dimensions of behavior are (1) locus of control, (2) stability, and (3) controllability.

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Attribution theory and motivation

Attribution theory was developed by the social psychologists Heider, Kelley, Jones and Ross.

The theory is concerned with how people explain or attribute various causes to events.

- According to the 'attribution theory' it is normal for people to look for explanations or causes - that can be attributed to their own success or failure.
  An assumption of the attribution theory is that people will interpret their environment in such a way as to maintain a positive self-image.
  There are three main categories of attributes for explaining success or failure:
  - Internal or external
  - Stable or unstable
  - Controllable or uncontrollable
- Examples of internal factors may be that you are either stupid or bright or not interested etc.
  It seems women tend to point to internal factors more than the seemingly more self-confident men.
  External factors are anything or anybody else you can blame.
- An outcome can also be perceived as stable or unstable.
  If you think the outcome is stable, then it is likely to be the same the next time as well. If, on the contrary, it is unstable, the outcome will probably be different on another occasion.
  If you tend to go for the stable explanation, you may tend to rationalise: 'it doesn't really matter how hard I try, I will fail anyway'.
  If you point to the unstable explanation on the other hand, you think you might succeed if you put in more or smarter efforts.
- Success or failure factors may be either controllable or uncontrollable.
  A controllable factor you can alter or influence if you wish to do so.
  An uncontrollable factor is one that you cannot easily alter.
  If you e.g. depend on the teacher for success or if you compete with your peers for the few available high grades, you explain your situation by pointing to uncontrollable factors.
  If you fail in your studies, you can thus attribute this to external, uncontrollable factors by blaming the bad school and the poor teachers.
  This situation you can perceive as stable: No matter how hard you try, these uncontrollable external factors will ensure your failure. In other words, you have very good explanations for your failure, and others are to blame.

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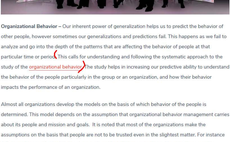

Organizational Behavior – Our inherent power of generalization helps us to predict the behavior of other people, however sometimes our generalizations and predictions fail. This happens as we fail to analyze and go into the depth of the patterns that are affecting the behavior of people at that particular time or period. This calls for understanding and following the systematic approach to the study of the organizational behavior. The study helps in increasing our predictive ability to understand the behavior of the people particularly in the group or an organization, and how their behavior impacts the performance of an organization.

Almost all organizations develop the models on the basis of which behavior of the people is determined. This model depends on the assumption that organizational behavior management carries about its people and mission and goals. It is noted that most of the organizations make the assumptions on the basis that people are not to be trusted even in the slightest matter. For instance McGregor theories X and Y is based on quite contradictory assumptions: Argyris focuses on the immaturity and maturity level of the people providing two opposing views. The Organizational Behavior models formulated would show many different variations and kind of continuum between the two opposite poles.

The organizational behavior revolves around three main theoretical approaches: cognitive, behaviorist and social learning frameworks. These frameworks became the basis on which the organizational behavior model operates. The cognitive theory was developed by Edward and depends on the expectancy and incentive concepts while behavioral framework created by Ivan Pavlov and John B.Watson relies on observation power. While, the social theory depends on how the connection is created between the stimulus and response.

Organizational Behavior Model

In management, the focus is on the study of the five organizational behavior models:

- Autocratic Model
- Custodial Model
- Supportive Model
- Collegial Model
- System Model

1. Autocratic model

This model has its roots in the historical past, and definitely became a most prominent model of the industrial revolution of 1800 and 1900s. It gives the owners and manager's power to dictate and form decisions while making employees obey their orders. The model asserts that employees need to be instructed and motivated to perform while managers do all the thinking. The whole process is formalized with the managers and authority power has the right to give command to the people, "You do this or else..," is a general dictatorship command. As Newstrom suggests, "the psychological result of the employees is dependence on their boss, whose power to "hire, fire and perqui" is almost absolute. Employees receive less wages as they are less skilled and their performance is also minimum, which they do it rather reluctantly as they have to satisfy the needs of their families and themselves." But there are some exceptions as many employees do give higher performance because either they would like to achieve or have a close association with their boss, or either they have been promised a good reward, but overall their performance is minimum.

The theory of X assumption of McGregor states employees do not take responsibility and managers have to supervise over their work to obtain desired results. This model can also be compared to the Likert system in which use of punishment, force, fear or threats sometimes are used as means to get the results from the employees.

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Now as the values are changing the model is giving place to the modernized thinking, but we cannot say that this model has been discarded. In many organizational setups, it is still proving a useful way to get the things done, especially when the employees are being motivated to fulfill physiological needs or whenever there are any organizational crises. However with the increase in the knowledge, changing the societal values better ways to manage organizational behavior systems is emerging. Yet another step was required and it emerged.

2. Custodial Model

Now the time came when managers began to think the security of the employees is imperative- it could be either social as well economic security. Now managers have begun to study about their employees needs, they found out that though in the autocratic setup employees does not talk back yet they have many things to say but incapability to speak result in frustrations, insecurity, and aggressive behavior towards their boss. Since they are not able to display their feelings, they would vent these feelings on their family and neighbors. This causes suffering to the entire community and relationships and this often results in bad performance. Newstrom gave the example of a wood processing plant where the employees were treated very cruelly even to the extent of physical abuse. Since workers were not able to retort back directly they show their aggression by destroying the good sheets of veneer destroying the supervisor's credibility.

Employers now had begun to think of the ways to develop better relations with the employees and to keep them satisfied and motivated. In 1890 and 1900 many companies started the welfare programs for the employees which began later to be known as paternalism. In the 1930s, these welfare programs evolved in many fringe benefits to provide security to the employees which resulted in the development of the Custodial model of organizational behavior.

A successful custodial approach depends on providing economic security which many companies are now offering as high pay scale, remunerations in the form of health benefits, corporate cars, financial packaging and many other forms of incentives. These incentives increase the employees' satisfaction level and help them to achieve competitive advantage. To avoid layoffs employers also tries to "retain employees, reduce overtime, freeze hiring, encourage both the job transfers and relocations, provide early retirement incentives, and reduce subcontracting to adjust to slowdowns especially in the information technology". (Newstrom, p.32)

The custodial approach induces employees now to show their dependency and loyalty towards the company and not to the boss or managers or supervisors. The employees in this environment are more psychologically contended and preoccupied with their rewards but it is not necessary they would be strongly motivated to give the performance. The studies show that though it has been the best way to make them happy employees but not productive employees. The question still remains what should be the better way? But overall this step had been a stepping stone for the creation and development of the next step.

3. Supportive Model

Unlike the two previous approaches, the supportive model emphasis on motivated and aspiring leader. There is no space for any control or authoritative power in this model or on the incentives or reward schemes but it is simply based on motivating staff through the establishment of the manager and employee relationship and the treatment that is given to employees on daily basis.

Quite contrarily to the autocratic mode, it states that employees are self-motivated and can generate value that goes beyond their day to day role or activity. But how the employees get self –motivated? That's through creating a positive workplace where they are encouraged to give their ideas and there is some kind of "buy -in" in the organizational behavior setup and the direction that it takes.

One of the key aspects of the supportive model has been studies conducted at the Hawthorne Plant of Electric in the 1920s and 1930s. The study was led by Elton Mayo and F.J Roethlisberger to implore on the human behavior at work by implementing and placing keen insight on the sociological, psychological perspective in the industrial setup. They came up to a conclusion that a single organization is a social system and a worker is an important component in the system. They found that worker is not a tool that can be used in any way but has its own behavior and personality and needs to be understood. They suggested that understanding of group dynamism including the application of supportive supervision is imperative to make workers contribute and be supportive.

Through the leadership organizations give the space and climate for the employees to develop, form their own thinking and take an initiative. They would take responsibility and improve themselves. Managers are oriented towards supporting the employees to give performances and not just support them through employee benefits as done in custodial approach.

The supportive model is being widely accepted chiefly in the developed nations where the needs of the employees are different as it fulfills many of the employees emerging needs. This approach is less successful in the developing nations where the social and economic need of the working class is different. In short, in the supportive model money is not which retain the satisfaction of the employees but it is a part of the organization's life that has been put to the use and makes other people feel wanted.

4. The Collegial Model

In this scheme, the structure of an organization is developed in a way that there is no boss nor subordinates, but all are colleagues who have to work as a team. Each one of the employees has to participate and work in coordination with each other to achieve the target rate. No one is worried about his status or a job title. Manager's role is here like a coach whose function is to guide the team to perform and generate positive and motivating work environment, instead of focusing on his own personal growth. The team requires adopting new approaches, research and development and new technologies to better their performance.

We can also say Collegial model is an extension of the supportive model. The success of the collegial model depends on the management's ability to foster the feeling of partnership between the employees. This makes the employees feel important and needed. They also feel that managers are not just mere supervisors but are also giving their equal contribution to the team.

To make the collegial model success many organizations have abolished the use of bosses and subordinates during working, as these terms create the distance between the managers and subordinates. While some of the organizations have abolished the system of allotting reserved space for executives. Now any employee can park their vehicle in the common parking space, which increases their convenience and makes them more comfortable.

The manager is oriented towards the team performance while each employee is responsible for his task and towards each other. They are more disciplined and work as per the standards set by the team. In this setup employees feel fulfilled as their contribution is accepted and well received.

5. The System Model

The most emerging model of the today's corporate era is the system model. This model emerged from the rigorous research to attain the higher level of meaning at work. Today's employees need more than salary and security from their job, they need the hours they are putting towards the organization is giving them some value and meaning. To add to it, they need the work that is ethical, respectful, integrated with trust and integrity and gives a space to develop a community feeling among the co-workers.

In the system model, the expectations of the managers are much more than getting the work done by the employees. The managers have to show their emotional side, be more compassionate and caring towards their team and they must be sensitive towards the needs of the diverse workforce. They have to devote their attention to creating the feeling of optimism, hope, trustworthiness, courage, self-determination, and through this, they try to develop the positive work culture where the employees feel more at ease and work as if they are working for their family. This ultimately results in the long time commitment and loyalty of the employees and the success of the company.

Managers also try to foster two main concepts; authenticity and transparency and social intelligence. Managers always try to make the employees feel the part of the project and the organization and give them all the support so that they can increase their efficiency and output. In turn, the employees feel more emotionally and psychologically part of the organization and become more responsible for their actions. Employees feel more inspired, motivated, important and feel that what they are doing and what they think would be good for the organization which goes beyond their personal achievements.

The models have been originated perceiving the changing employee needs with each model have been the stepping stone for the more productive and useful model. To assure that any one of the models has been the best model is wrong as no model is branded perfect but have been evolving all through the years with the changes in our perception, study and social conditions that have been affecting the human behavior. Any of the above models can be modified, applied and extended in many different ways. As there has been advancement in the collective understanding of the human behavior, the new social condition emerged and with it there has been an evolution of the new model.

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Transactional Analysis

Transactional analysis, developed by psychiatrist Eric Berne, is a form of modern psychology that examines a person's relationships and interactions. Berne took inspiration from Sigmund Freud's theories of personality, combining them with his own observations of human interaction in order to develop transactional analysis. In therapy, transactional analysis can be used to address one's interactions and communications with the purpose of establishing and reinforcing the idea that each individual is valuable and has the capacity for positive change and personal growth.

DEVELOPMENT OF TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS

Dr. Eric Berne developed transactional analysis in the last 1950s, using "transaction" to describe the fundamental unit of social intercourse, with "transactional analysis" being the study of social interactions between individuals. His influences included contemporaries such as René Spitz, Erik Erikson, Paul Federn, Edoardo Weiss, as well as Freud and Wilder Penfield, a Canadian neurosurgeon.

Inspired by Freud's theory of personality—primarily his belief that the human psyche is multifaceted and that different components interact to produce a variety of emotions, attitudes and complex behaviors—and Penfield's groundbreaking experiments involving the stimulation of specific brain regions with electrical currents, Berne developed an approach that he described as both neo- and extra-Freudian.

Discerning the need to build upon the philosophical concepts Freud introduced with observable data, Berne developed his own observable ego states of Parent, Adult, and Child, following Freud's proposal of the existence of the Id (emotional and irrational component), Ego (rational component), and Superego (moral component) as different and unobservable factions of personality.

Berne also took special note of the complexities of human communication. He highlighted the fact that facial expressions, gestures, body language, and tone may be regarded as more important by the receiver than any spoken words. In his book Games People Play, he noted that people may sometimes communicate messages underpinned with ulterior motives.

Examining the Ego States of Transactional Analysis

Like Freud, Berne posited that each individual possesses three ego states. His ego states—the Parent, the Adult, and the Child—do not directly correspond to Freud's Id, Ego, and Superego, however. Instead, these states represent an individual's internal model of parents, adults, and children. An individual may assume any of these roles in transactions with another person or in internal conversation. These roles are not directly associated with their typical English definitions but can be described as follows:

Parent consists of recordings of external events observed and experienced by a child from birth through approximately the first five years of life. These recordings are not filtered or analyzed by the child; they are simply accepted without question. Many of these external events are likely to involve the individual's parents or other adults in parent-link roles, which led Berne to call this ego state "the Parent." Examples of external events recorded in this state:

- Do not play with matches.
- Remember to say "please" and "thank you."
- Do not speak to strangers.

Child represents all brain recordings of internal events (feelings or emotions) that are directly linked to the external events observed by the child during the first five years of life. Examples of events recorded in this state may include:

- I feel happy when Mom hugs me.
- Dad's late night movie was very scary.
- I feel sad when Mom is sad.

Adult, the final ego state, is the period in which a child develops the capacity to perceive and understand situations that are different from what is observed (Parent) or felt (Child). The Adult serves as a data processing center that utilizes information from all three ego states in order to arrive at a decision. One important role of the Adult is to validate data which is stored in the Parent:

- I see that Suzie's house was burnt down. Mom was right—I should not play with matches.

COMMUNICATION USING TRANSACTIONAL ANALYTIC THEORY

Any indication (speech, gestures or other nonverbal cues) that acknowledges the presence of another person is called a transactional stimulus. All transactions are initiated via the use of a transactional stimulus. When two individuals encounter each other and the receiver reacts in a manner related to the transactional stimulus, that individual has performed a transactional response. The key to successful person-to-person communication generally lies in identifying which ego state (in the speaker) initiated the transactional stimulus and which ego state (in the receiver) provided the transactional response.

Due to the typically rational and reasonable nature of the Adult, Berne believes that the easiest and simplest transactions occur between Adult ego states, but transactions may occur between any of the three ego states. In a complementary transaction, the transaction response from the receiver is directed to the sending ego state in the speaker. For example, if the Adult in the speaker sends a transactional stimulus to the Child in the receiver, then the transaction will be complementary if the Child in the receiver then sends the transactional response to the Adult in the speaker. According to Berne, communication will continue if the transactions remain complementary.

A crossed transaction occurs when an ego state that did not receive the transactional stimulus sends the transactional response. Crossed transactions may lead to breakdowns in communication, which may sometimes be followed by conflict. For example, the Adult state in an individual may send a transactional stimulus to the Adult in another individual, asking "Have you seen my coat?" But the Child in the second individual may instead send the transactional response to the Parent in the first individual by replying, "You always blame me for everything!"

Not only is communication considered to be an important aspect of everyday life, it is also thought to be an integral part of being human. Even newborns exhibit the need to be recognized and acknowledged. Research conducted by Spitz showed that infants who received less cuddling, handling, and touching were more likely to experience physical and emotional challenges. Berne described this innate need for social recognition as recognition-hunger, defining the fundamental unit of social action or recognition as a stroke.

From Berne's perspective, the adversely affected children in Spitz's studies exhibited physical and emotional deficits due to a lack of strokes. Berne applied this theory to adults, theorizing that men and women also experience recognition-hunger and a need for strokes. However, while infants may desire strokes that are primarily physical, an adult may be contented with other forms of recognition, such as nods, winks, or smiles.

While strokes may be positive or negative, Berne theorized that it is better to receive a negative stroke than no stroke at all. When one person asks another out on a date, for example, and receives a flat refusal, that person may find the refusal to be less damaging than a complete lack of acknowledgment.

TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS IN THERAPY

The goal of transactional analysis is help the individual in therapy gain and maintain autonomy by strengthening the Adult state. Typically, the individual and the therapist will establish a contract that outlines the desired outcome they wish to achieve in therapy. This may contribute to the person in therapy taking personal responsibility for events that take place during treatment. The individual will generally then become more able to rely on their Adult ego states to identify and examine various thoughts, behaviors, and emotions which might hinder the ability to thrive.

The atmosphere that supports transactional analysis is one of comfort, security, and respect. When a positive relationship is forged between the therapist and the person seeking treatment, this often provides a model for subsequent relationships developed outside of the therapy arena. Analysts who practice this form of therapy generally use a broad range of tools gathered from many disciplines including psychodynamic, cognitive behavioral, and relational therapies.

WHO CAN BENEFIT FROM TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS?

Transactional analysis is frequently applied in the areas of medicine, communications, education, and business management as well as therapy. The mainstream appeal of this technique has attracted parents, professionals, social workers, and others who strive to achieve maximum personal development. Transactional analysis is considered to be one effective method of enhancing relationships with oneself and with others.

Studies show that transactional analysis, often used by counselors and clinicians to address issues currently faced by the person in treatment, can be an effective tool in the treatment of emotional and relationship difficulties that may develop as a result of chronic health challenges.

Transactional analysis is used widely in the educational arena, and this method can serve as a vessel through which educational principles and philosophy can be incorporated into the daily lives of students. This type of therapy can be administered to children and adults of all ages, regardless of social circumstances.

HOW TO BECOME A CERTIFIED TRANSACTIONAL ANALYST

In order to qualify as a certified transactional analyst (CTA), individuals must first complete a Transactional Analysis 101 course and then:

- Contract a sponsor who is qualified in the same TA field in order to adequately prepare for certification. The International Board of Certification acts as the third party to the contract.
- Log hours in training (600 hours of tutor contact), supervision (150 hours supervised while professionally applying TA in the field), and application (750 hours of client contact time in the professional field). An additional 500 hours may be spent in any area, bringing the total number of required hours to 2000.
- Complete and pass a written exam (up to 24,000 words).
- Take and pass an oral exam.

References:

1. Bennett, R. (1999). A transactional analysis approach to the categorization of corporate marketing behavior. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 15, 265-289.
2. Key Concepts in Transactional Analysis. (n.d.). Retrieved from https://itaaworld.org/key-concepts-transactional-analysis
3. McLeod, J. (2013). Process and outcome in pluralistic transactional analysis counselling for long-term health conditions: A case series. *Counseling and Psychotherapy Research*, 13(1), 32-43.
4. Qualifying in TA. (n.d.). Retrieved from https://itaaworld.org/qualifying-ta
5. Transactional Analysis. (n.d.). Retrieved from http://www.ericberne.com/transactional-analysis

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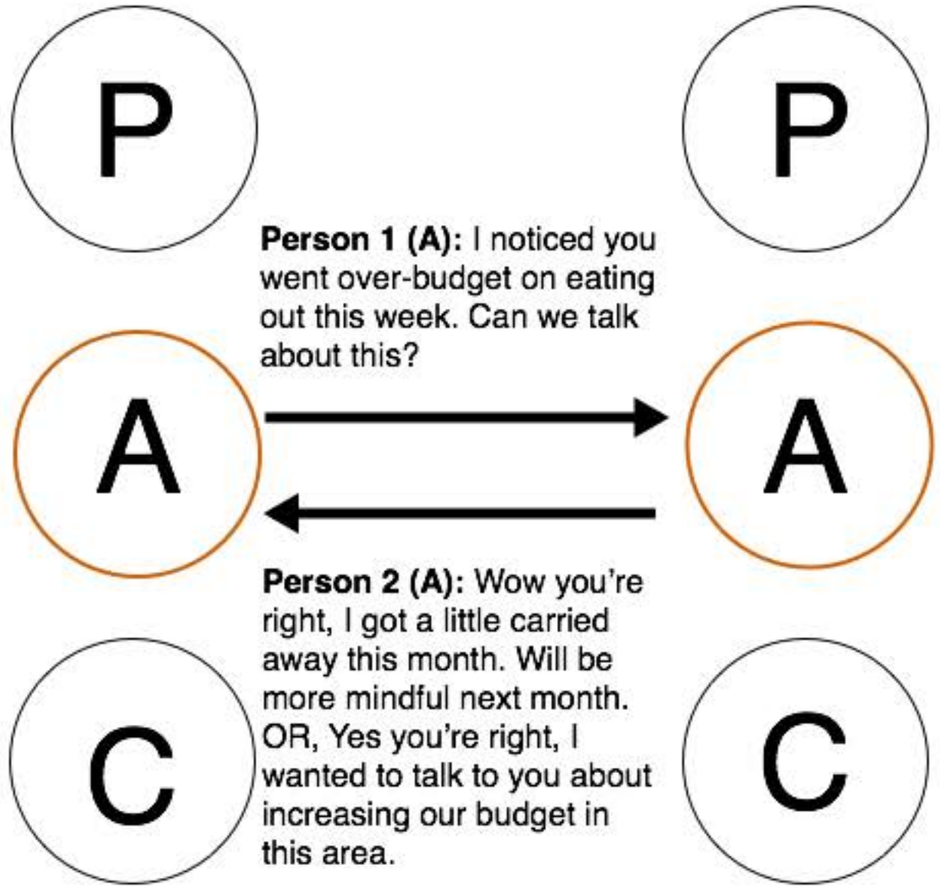
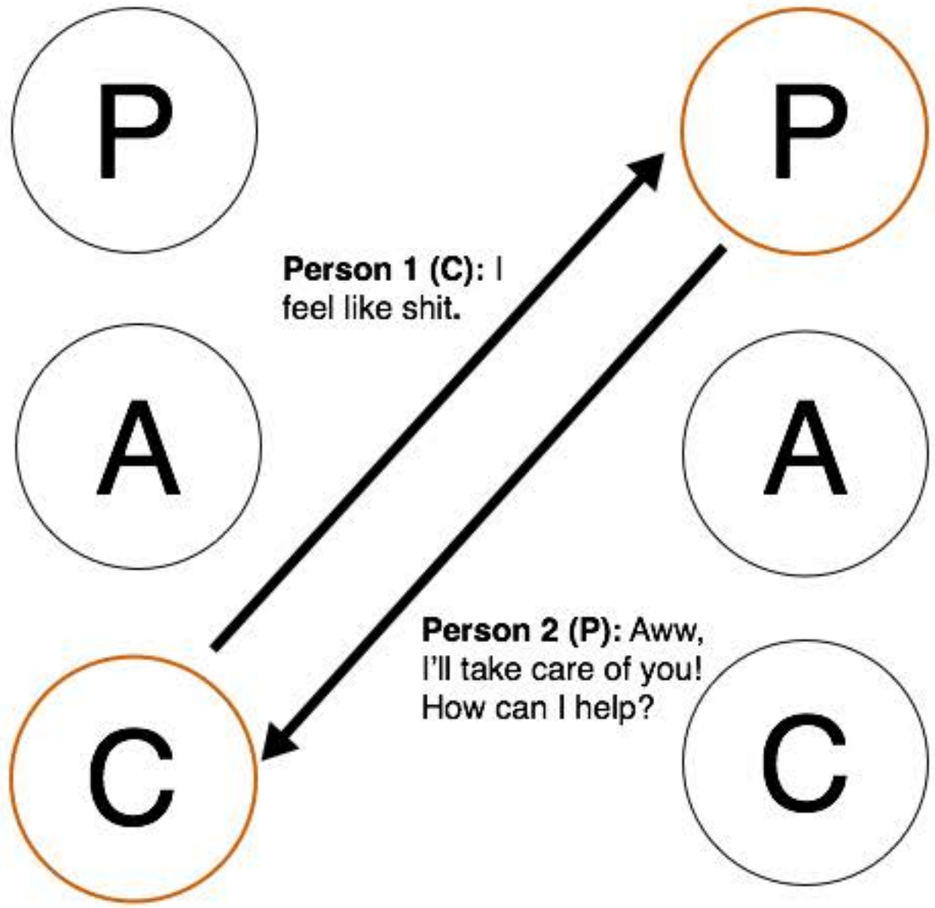


In this transaction, all is good:

- **Person 1** is curious about something, and asks a question from the Adult ego state, hoping they'll receive an answer from Person 2's Adult ego state.
- **Person 2** responds from his/her Adult ego state.
- **Result:** All good, two Adults are working together to understand a problem, make decisions, etc.

*I'm assuming that Person 1's question is fueled by curiosity, thus coming

Another complementary transaction is Parent -> Child. For example, this can occur when one person is sick and wants to be taken care of by the other person (P).



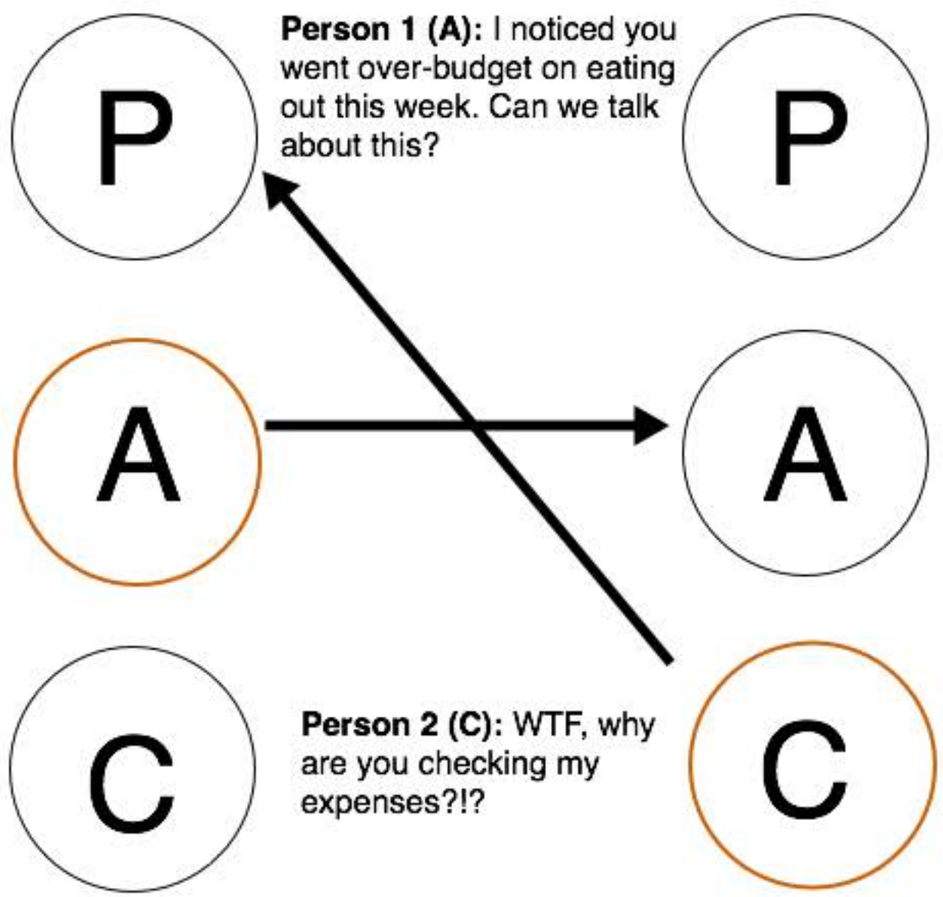
- **Person 1** feels like shit. Their Child ego state is activated because they want to be taken care of. They expect Person 2 to respond as a Parent.
- **Person 2** understands Persons 1's request and is happy to oblige. Person 2's Parent ego state is activated and they happily take care of Person 1.
- **Result**: All is good. There's a balance of 'giving & receiving' and both parties feel loved.

this conversation right now"). This means you can actually reason about things, make decisions, create a plan, etc.

Crossed Transactions

Crossed transactions happen when Person 1 says something from one ego state, and receives a different response than he/she is expecting.

For example: Back to the money topic.



In this transaction, all is NOT good:

- **Person 1** is curious about something, and asks a question from the Adult

Johari window example in 5 minutes

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JOHARI WINDOW (1955):

	Known to self	Not known to self
Known to others	THE ARENA	BLIND SPOT
Not Known to Others	FACADE	UNKNOWN

2:08 / 6:52

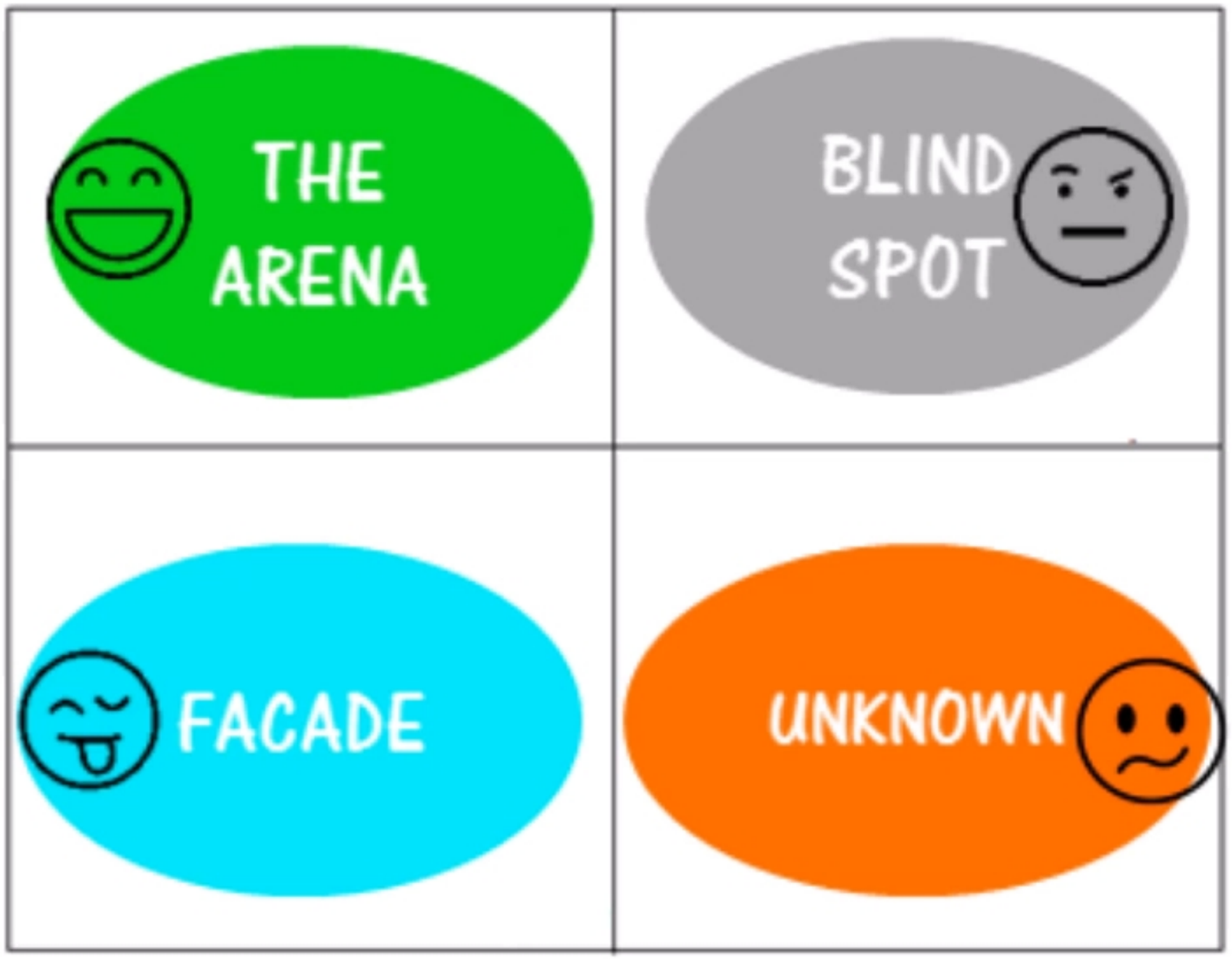
Scroll for details

Johari window example in 5 minutes

JOHARI WINDOW (1955):

adaptable
bold
confident
dependable
independent
kind
mature
patient
powerful

SUBJECT



adaptable
dependable
idealistic
mature
patient
powerful
sensible
trustworthy
warm

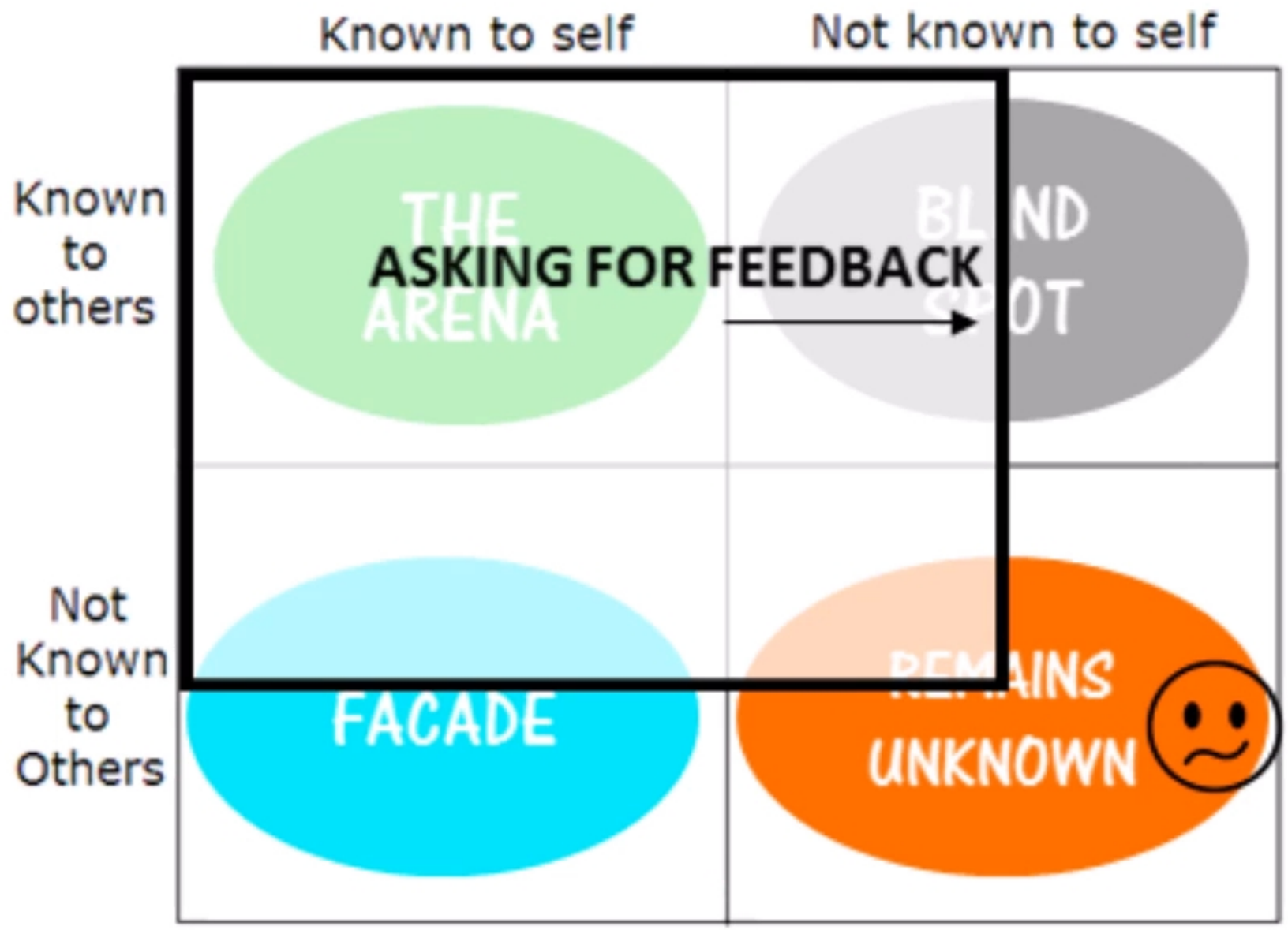
SUBJECT'S PEER

2:58 / 6:52

Scroll for details

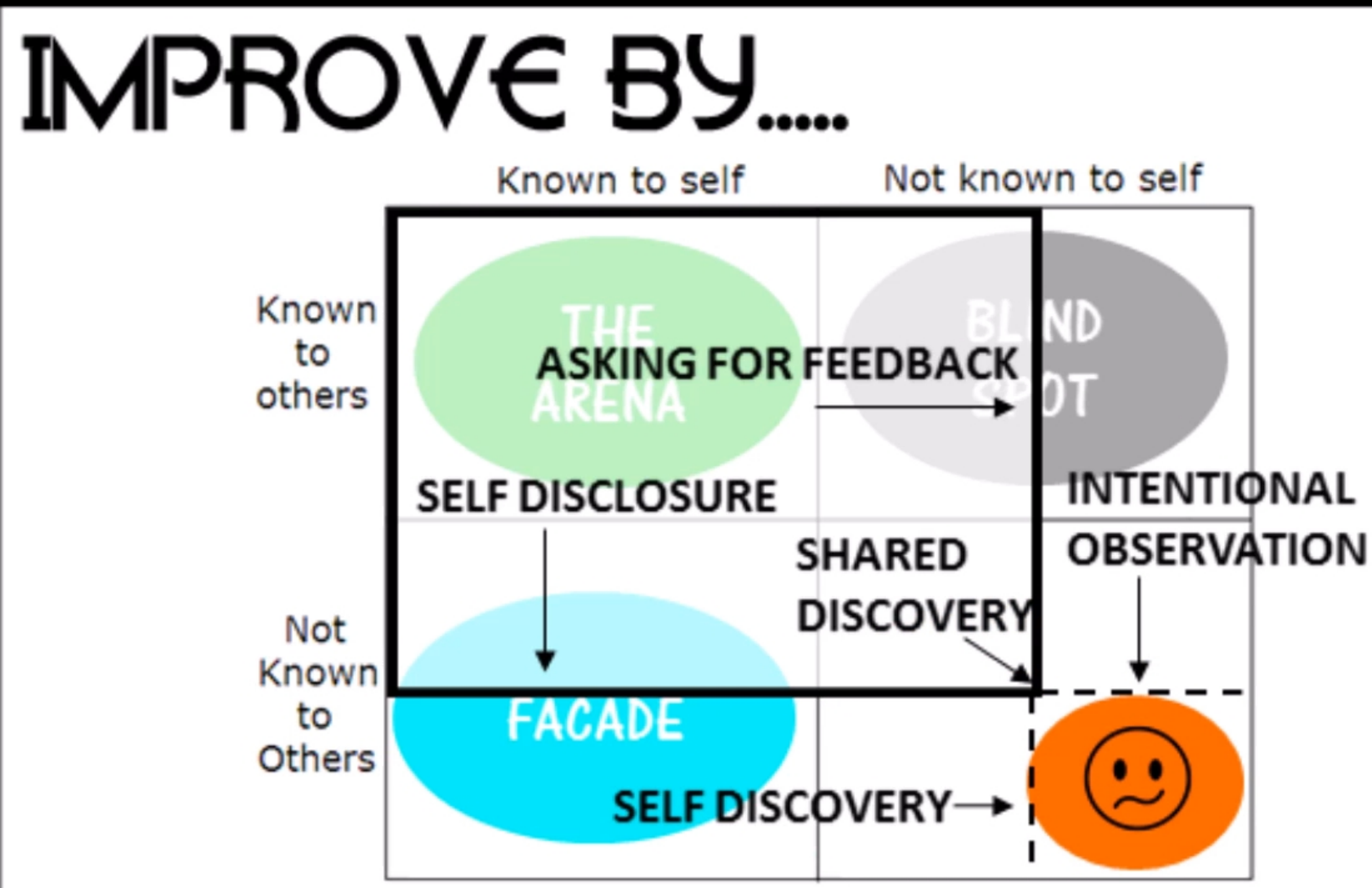
Johari window example in 5 minutes

IMPROVE BY.....



4:53 / 6:52
Scroll for details

Johari window example in 5 minutes



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Understanding the Johari Window model

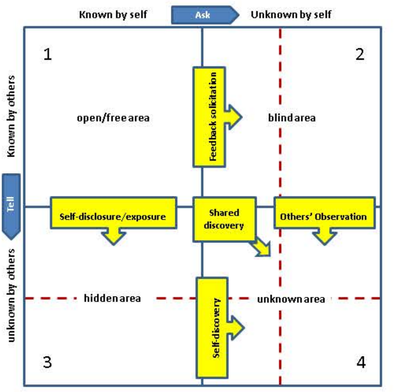
Posted 5:38PM on 10 November 2013

A Johari window is a psychological tool created by Joseph Luft and Harry Ingham in 1955. It's a simple and useful tool for understanding and training:

- self-awareness
- personal development
- improving communications
- interpersonal relationships
- group dynamics
- team development; and
- inter group relationships

It is one of the few tools out there that has an emphasis on "soft skills" such as behaviour, empathy, co-operation, inter group development and interpersonal development. It's a great model to use because of its simplicity and also because it can be applied in a variety of situations and environments.

Johari Window model



In this example we are going to talk about how the Johari window works with an individual within a team. In this instance there are two factors at work within the Johari window. The first factor is what you know about yourself. The second factor relates to what other people know about you.

The model works using four area quadrants. Anything you know about yourself and are willing to share is part of your open area. Individuals can build trust between themselves by disclosing information to others and learning about others from the information they in turn disclose about themselves.

Any aspect that you do not know about yourself, but others within the group have become aware of, is in your blind area. With the help of feedback from others you can become aware of some of your positive and negative traits as perceived by others and overcome some of the personal issues that may be inhibiting your personal or group dynamics within the team.

There are also aspects about yourself that you are aware of but might not want others to know, this quadrant is known as your hidden area. This leaves just one area and is the area that is unknown to you or anyone else – the unknown area.

The balance between the four quadrants can change. You might want to tell someone an aspect of your life that you had previously kept hidden. For example, maybe you are not comfortable contributing ideas in large groups. This would increase your open area and decrease your hidden area.

It is also possible to increase your open area by asking for feedback from people. When feedback is given honestly to you it can reduce the size of your blind area. Maybe you interrupt people before they have finished making their point which can cause frustration. Alternatively people may always want to talk to you because you are a good listener. Sometimes you don't realise these aspects of your character until it is pointed out.

By working with others it is possible for you to discover aspects that neither of you may never have appreciated before.

Some examples of unknown factors can be as follows:

- an ability that is under-estimated or un-tried through lack of opportunity, encouragement, confidence or training
- a natural ability or aptitude that a person doesn't realise they possess
- a fear or aversion that a person does not know they have
- an unknown illness
- repressed or subconscious feeling
- conditioned behaviour or attitudes from childhood

For example in an educational setting, a student's contact with a tutor, may help them understand how their experiences both in and outside of school can have an impact on their learning. This discovery about themself would reduce the size of their unknown area.

From a practical point of view in implementing the Johari window you need to look at two steps.

Step one:

The place to start in the Johari window is in the open area. Make some notes about yourself. Complete the **Self Awareness Diagnostic**. What are your strengths and your weaknesses? What are you comfortable with and willing to share with others? Try and be honest and clear about what you know about yourself already.

Step two:

Involve other people and ask for feedback about yourself. Be prepared to seriously consider it. That doesn't mean that you have to do everything that's suggested, but you should at least listen and think about it. Then give the person who provided the feedback some acknowledgement or thanks for making the effort. Depending on how confident you are you might prefer to do this as either a group exercise or on a one to one basis. Remember that giving effective feedback is a skill and some people may be better at it than others. When receiving feedback, be respectful, listen and reflect on what has been said. It may be on receiving feedback you may want to explore it further that can lead to discovery about yourself.

The Johari window as a tool does have its drawbacks:

- Some things are perhaps better not communicated with others.
- People may pass on the information they received further than you desire or use it in a negative way.
- Some people or cultures have a very open and accepting approach to feedback and some do not. People can take personal feedback offensively so it's important when facilitating to exercise caution and start gradually.

There are many ways to use the Johari model in learning and development. It very much depends on what you want to achieve in your training or development activities? What are your intended outputs and how will you measure that they have been achieved? How can the Johari Window theory and principles are used to assist this.

Johari is a very elegant and potent model, and as with other powerful ideas, simply helping people to understand is the most effective way to optimise the value to people. When people really understand it in their own terms, it empowers them to use the thinking in their own way, and to incorporate the underlying principles into their future thinking and behaviour.

The Self Awareness Diagnostic is a great accompaniment to the Johari window model. It helps people to explore the qualities that make them who they are. The simple online questionnaire provides instant feedback to the participant that they can positively use in understanding their personal strengths and weaknesses, what belongs in their open space. It can also objectively help the participant to start to process some of those attributes that reside in their blind spot and can encourage discussion amongst the group without being confrontational or causing contention.

What is unique about the Self Awareness Diagnostic is it explores not only an individual's 'soft skills' and working style preferences but also how participants like to learn; their learning styles. In an education or business environment this can be a great enabler for a teacher or trainer to ensure all the members of the group are motivated and able to achieve their full potential.

Labels

Johari Window

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Johari Window Model and Free Diagrams

Created by:
Alexander

Updated 04 September 2, 2020
Viewed since Jun 1, 2011

Self Awareness

- Body Language
- Abstract Images for Feelings, Challenge and Change
- Graphology – Handwriting Analysis
- Cherie Carter-Scott's Rules of Life
- Johari Window
- Johari Window Model and Free Diagrams
- The Johari Window Model Diagram
  - What are the Four Regions of the Johari Window Model?
  - Examples of the Johari Window Model
  - Further Ideas

What is the Johari Window Model?

The Johari Window model is a simple and useful tool for discussing and improving self awareness, and mutual understanding between individuals within a group. This model can also be used to assess and improve a group's relationship with other groups. **This model is particularly useful in team development.**

It was devised by American psychologists Joseph Luft and Harry Ingham in 1955 while researching group dynamics at the University of California Los Angeles. The model was first published in the Proceedings of the Western Training Laboratory in Group Development by UCLA Extension Office in 1955, and was later expanded by Joseph Luft. **Today the Johari Window model is especially relevant due to modern emphasis on, and influence of, 'soft' skills, behaviour, empathy, cooperation, inter group development and interpersonal development.**

The Johari Window concept is particularly helpful in understanding employee/employer relationships within the hierarchical structure. Over the years, alternative terminology has been developed and adopted by different people - particularly leading to different descriptions of the four regions, hence the use of different terms in this explanation.

The Johari Window Model Diagram

Download the Johari Window Model as a pdf file here:

- Landscape
- Portrait

Also available in MS/Word format from the Free resources section

Background Information

Luft and Ingham called their Johari Window model 'Johari' after combining their first names, Joe and Harry. In early publications, the word appears as a 'Johari'. The Johari Window model is a useful way of looking at understanding and training self-awareness, personal development, improving communications, interpersonal relationships, group dynamics, team development and inter-group relationships.

How is the Johari Window Model used?

This model is also referred to as a Disclosure Model, and is based on "self-awareness" and by some people an "information processing tool".

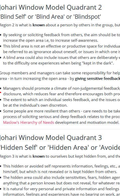
- The Johari Window actually represents information - feelings, experience, views, attitudes, skills, intentions, motivation, etc - within or about a person - in relation to their groups, from four perspectives, which are described below.
- The model can also be used to represent the information for a group in relation to other groups.
- The Johari Window represents information - feelings, etc - about a person, as perceived by an analyst. "Others" means people other than the person in question or team.
- The four Johari Window perspectives are called 'regions' or 'areas' or 'quadrants'. Each of these regions contains and represents the information - feelings, knowledge, etc - known about the person, in terms of whether the information is known or unknown by the person, and whether the information is known or unknown by others in the group. The four regions in the model are outlined in detail below.

Note: When the Johari Window model is used to assess and develop groups in relation to other groups, The 'self' would be the group, and 'others' would be other groups. However, the same of explanation and understanding of the model and examples in this article, think of the model applying to an individual within a group, rather than a group relating to other groups.

What are the Four Regions of the Johari Window Model?

1. What is known by the person about himself/herself and also known by others - **open area, open self, free area, free self, or 'the arena'**
2. What is unknown by the person about himself/herself but which others know - **blind area, blind self, or 'blindspot'**
3. What is known by the person about himself/herself that others do not know - **hidden area, hidden self, avoided area, avoided self or 'facade'**
4. What is unknown by the person about himself/herself and also unknown by others - **unknown area or unknown self**

Like some other behavioural models (eg. Tuckman, Hersey/Blanchard), the Johari Window model is based on a four-square grid. **It is like a window with four "panes", Here's how the Johari Window is normally shown, with its four regions:**



This is the standard representation of the Johari Window model, showing each quadrant the same size.

The four 'panes' can be changed in size to reflect the relevant proportions of each type of 'knowledge' of/about a particular person in a given group or team situation.

- In new groups or teams, the open free space for any team member is small (see below) because shared awareness is relatively small.
- As the team member becomes better established and known, so the size of the team member's open free area quadrant increases (see below).

Explanation of the Johari Window Model

Refer to the free printable Johari Window model diagram in the free resources section - print a copy and it will help you to understand what follows.

Johari Window Model Quadrant 1
'Open Self/Area' or 'Free Area' or 'Public Area', or 'Arena'

Region 1 is also known as the 'area of free activity'. This is the information about the person - behaviour, attitudes, feelings, emotions, knowledge, experience, skills, views, etc - **known** by the person (the self) and **known** by the group (others).

The aim in any group should always be to develop the 'open area' for every person because when we are in our 'open area' we are at our best, most productive, most creative, most happy, most at ease, most productive too. The open free area, or 'the arena', can be seen as the space where good communication and cooperation occur, free from distractions, mistrust, confusion, conflict and misunderstanding.

- Team members/members typically tend to have larger open free areas than new team members. New team members start with relatively small open areas because relatively little knowledge about the new team member is shared. The size of the open area can be expected horizontally into the blind space, by seeking and actively listening to feedback from other group members. This process is known as **'feedback solicitation'**.
- Group members can help a team member expand their open area by offering feedback, sensitively and appropriately. The size of the open area can also be expanded vertically downwards into the hidden or avoided space by the person's disclosure of information, feelings, etc about himself/herself to the group and members.
- Group members can help a person expand their open area into the hidden area by asking the person about himself/herself. Managers and team leaders can play an important role in facilitating feedback and discussion among group members and indirectly giving feedback to individuals about their own blind areas.
- Leaders also have a big responsibility to promote a culture and expectation for open, honest, positive, helpful, constructive, sensitive communications, and the sharing of knowledge throughout their organisation. Top-performing groups, departments, companies and organisations always tend to have a culture of open and honest communication and sharing of information. Promoting the **'open area' or 'open self'** for everyone is a simple yet fundamental aspect of effective leadership.

Johari Window Model Quadrant 2
'Blind Self' or 'Blind Area' or 'Blindspot'

Region 2 is what is **known** about a person by others in the group, but is **unknown** by the person himself/herself.

- By seeking or soliciting feedback from others, the aim should be to reduce this area and thereby to increase the open area i.e. to increase self-awareness.
- This blind area is not an effective or productive space for individuals or groups. This blind area could also be referred to as ignorance about oneself, or issues in which one is deluded.
- Feedback from others should be sensitive, helpful and constructive, and stemming from a person. This relates to the difficulty one experiences when being "kept in the dark".

Group members and managers can take some responsibility for helping an individual to reduce their blind area - to turn increasing the open area - by **giving sensitive feedback and encouraging disclosure.**

- Managers should promote a climate of non-judgmental feedback, and group respect for individual disclosure, which reduces fear and therefore encourages both processes to happen.
- Managers should also give constructive feedback, and be aware which feedback is helpful, most always be at the individual's own discretion.
- Some people are more resilient than others - care needs to be taken to avoid causing emotional upset. The process of soliciting serious and deep feedback relates to the process of 'self actualisation' described in Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs development and motivation model.

Johari Window Model Quadrant 3
'Hidden Self' or 'Hidden Area' or 'Avoided Self' or 'Facade'

Region 3 is what is **known** to ourselves but kept hidden from, and therefore **unknown**, to others.

- This hidden or avoided self represents information, feelings, etc., anything that a person knows about himself, but which is not revealed or is kept hidden from others.
- The hidden area could also includes sensitivities, fears, hidden agendas, manipulative intentions, secrets - anything that a person knows about himself but does not reveal to others.
- It is natural for very personal and private information and feelings to remain hidden; indeed, certain information, feelings and experiences have no bearing on work, and so can and should remain hidden. However, typically, a lot of hidden information is not very personal, it is work or performance related, so is better positioned in the open area.

Relevant hidden information and feelings, etc, should be moved into the open area through the process of 'disclosure'.

- The aim should be to disclose and expose relevant information and feelings - hence the Johari Window terminology 'self-disclosure' and 'exposure process', thereby increasing the open area.
- By telling others how we feel and other information about ourselves we reduce the hidden area and increase the open area, which enables better understanding, cooperation, trust, team-working and effectiveness in relationships.
- Reducing hidden area also reduces the potential for confusion, misunderstanding, poor communication, etc, which all detract from and undermine team effectiveness.

Organisational culture and working atmosphere have a major influence on group readiness/willingness to reveal information. Some cultures are very open, others are very secretive and therefore hold back hidden information and feelings, etc., that if moved into the open area, or known by the group as well, would enhance mutual understanding, and thereby improve group awareness, enabling better individual performance and group effectiveness.

The extent to which an individual discloses personal feelings and information, and the issues which are disclosed, and to whom, must always be at the individual's own discretion. As with friends, some people are more resilient than others - care needs to be taken to avoid causing emotional upset. Also as with soliciting feedback, the process of serious disclosure relates to the process of 'self-actualisation' described in Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs development and motivation model.

Johari Window Model Quadrant 4
'Unknown Self' or 'Area of Unknown Activity' or 'Unknown Area'

Region 4 contains information, feelings, latent abilities, aptitudes, experiences etc, that are **unknown** to the person himself/herself and **unknown** to others in the group. **This unknown area represents issues ranging a variety of forms.**

- They can be feelings, behaviours, attitudes, capabilities, aptitudes, which can be quite close to the surface, and which can be positive and useful, or they can be deeper aspects of a person's personality, influencing his/her behaviour to various degrees. Large unknown areas would typically be expected in younger people, and people who lack experience or self-belief.

Examples of unknown factors are as follows, and the first example is particularly relevant and common, especially in typical organisations and teams:

- An ability that is under-estimated or un-tried through lack of opportunity, encouragement, confidence or training
- A natural ability or aptitude that a person does not realise they possess
- A fear of failure that a person does not know they have
- An unknown illness
- Repressed or subconscious feelings
- Conditioned behaviour or attitudes from childhood

The processes by which this information and knowledge can be uncovered are various and can be prompted through self discovery or observation by others, or in certain situations through accident or mutual discovery, of the sort of discovery, experienced on outward bound courses or other deep or intensive group work. Counselling can also uncover unknown issues. It may also result from a sudden insight or realisation by one other, rather than by a group.

- Whether unknown 'discovered' knowledge moves into the hidden, blind or open area depends on who discovers it and what they do with the knowledge, notably whether it is then given as feedback, or disclosed. The process of giving feedback and disclosure of information, feelings, experiences and feelings to the unknown is related to the process of 'self actualisation' described in Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs development and motivation model.
- Again as with disclosure and soliciting feedback, the process of self discovery is a sensitive one. The extent and depth to which an individual is able to seek out discover their unknown feelings must always be at the individual's own discretion.
- Uncovering 'hidden talent' - that is unknown aptitudes and skills, not to be confused with developing the 'Johari Hidden area' - is another aspect of developing the unknown area, and is not so sensitive as unknown feelings. Providing people with the opportunity to try new things, with no great pressure to succeed, is often a useful way to discover unknown abilities, and thereby reduce the unknown area.

Managers and leaders can help to develop an environment that encourages self discovery, and to promote the processes of self discovery, constructive observation and feedback among team members. Creating a culture, climate and expectation for self discovery helps people to fulfil more of their potential and thereby to achieve more, and to contribute more to organisational performance.

Note: The unknown area could also include repressed or subconscious feelings rooted in formative events and traumatic past experiences, which can stay unknown for a lifetime. In a work or organisational context the Johari Window should not be used to address issues of a clinical nature. Useful references are Henry Janeway's book "The Primal Scream" (read about the book here) and Transactional Analysis.

Examples of the Johari Window Model

Example 1 - Increasing Open Area Through Feedback Solicitation

This Johari Window model diagram is an example of increasing the open area, by reduction of the blind area, which would normally be achieved through the process of asking for and then receiving feedback.

- Feedback develops the open area by reducing the blind area.
- The open area can also be developed through the process of disclosure, which reduces the hidden area.
- The unknown area can be reduced in different ways by other information (which increases the blind area) by self-discovery (which increases the hidden area), or by mutual enlightenment - typically via group experiences and discussion - which increases the open area at the unknown area expense.

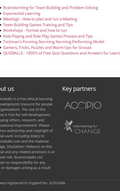
A team which understands itself - that is, each person having a strong mutual understanding with the team - is far more effective than a team which does not understand each other - that is, whose members have large hidden, blind, and/or unknown areas.

Team members - and leaders - should always be striving to increase their open free areas, and to reduce their blind, hidden and unknown areas.

Impact on effectiveness: A person represented by the Johari Window example below will not perform to their best potential, and the team will fail to make full use of the team's potential and the person's potential too. Effort should generally be made by the person to increase his/her open free area, by disclosing information about his/her feelings, experiences, views, motivation, etc, which will reduce the size of the hidden area, and increase the open free area.

Seeking feedback about the blind area will reduce the blind area, and will increase the open free area. Discovery through sensitive communications, active listening and experience, will reduce the unknown area, transferring in part to the blind, hidden areas, depending on who knows what, or better still if known by the person and others, to the open free area.

Example 2 - New Team Member or Member Within a New Team



This Johari Window model diagram is an example of a member of a new team or a person who is new to an existing team.

- The open free region is small because others know little about the new person.
- Similarly the blind area is small because others know little about the new person.
- The hidden or avoided issues and feelings are a relatively large area.

In this particular example, the unknown area is the largest, which might be because the person is young or lacking in self-knowledge or belief.

Example 3 - Established Team Member

This Johari Window model diagram is an example of an established member of a team.

- The open free region is large because others know a lot about the person that the person also knows.
- Through the processes of disclosure and receiving feedback the open area has expanded and at the same time reduced the sizes of the hidden, blind and unknown areas.

Other Related Theories

- It's helpful to compare the Johari Window model to other four-quarter behavioural models, notably Bruce Tuckman's Forming, Storming, Norming Performing team development model, also to a lesser but nonetheless interesting extent, The Hersey Blanchard Situational Leadership team development and management styles model (See both here). The common principle will be that the team matures and communications improve, so performance improves too, as less energy is spent on internal issues and more is spent on the task, and on relating to other groups, teams, customers, etc.
- The Johari Window model also relates to Jungian Personality Theory (1921), and one's awareness and development of emotional intelligence.
- As already stated, the Johari Window relates also to Transactional Analysis (notably understanding deeper aspects of the 'unknown' area, regions 4).
- The Johari Window model also relates to feedback solicitation, disclosure, and striving to uncover one's unknown areas relate to Maslow's 'self actualisation' that is described in the Hierarchy of Needs.
- There are several exercises and activities for Johari Window awareness development among teams featured on the team building games section, for example the ring toss activity.

Further Ideas

The examples of exercises using the Johari Window theory on this website which might begin to open possibilities for use of the Johari Window (kinesiology muscle testing/muscle biofeedback/applied kinesiology justification for mind things that you might think to do with people relating to developing mutual and self-awareness, all of which bring about more effectiveness and performance.

There are many ways to use the Johari model in learning and development - much as using any other theory such as Maslow's, Tuckman's, Transactional Analysis or NLP. It very much depends on what you want to achieve. This being the case, it might help you to ask yourself first:

- What do you want to achieve in your training and development activities?
- And what are your intended outputs and how will you ensure that they have been achieved?

Then think about how the Johari Window theory and principles can be used to assist this.

Researching academic papers (most typically published on university and learning institutions websites) written about theories such as Johari is a fertile method of exploring possibilities for concepts and models like Johari. This approach tends to improve your understanding, instead of simply using specific interpretations or applications of 'off the shelf', which in themselves might provide good ideas for a one-off session, but will not help you much with understanding how to use the thinking as a deeper level.

Also, explore the original work of Ingham and Luft, and reviews of same, relating to the development and applications of the model.

Johari is a very elegant and potent model, and as with other powerful ideas, **simply helping people to understand** is the most effective way to optimise the value to people. Exploring the meaning of the Johari Window theory to people, so they can really properly understand it in their own terms, then empowers people to use the thinking in their own way, and to incorporate the underlying principles into their future thinking and behaviour.

Relevant reading:

- 'Group Processes - An Introduction to Group Dynamics' by Joseph Luft, first published in 1963.
- 'Of Human Interaction: The Johari Model' by Joseph Luft, 1969.

See Also

- Brainstorming for Team Building and Problem Solving
- Ice breakers
- Meetings - How to plan and run a Meeting
- Team Building Games Training and Tips
- Workshops - Format and how to run
- Anti Flaping and Role Play Games Process and Tips
- Tuckman's Forming Storming Norming Performing Model
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The term '**group dynamics**' means the study of forces within a **group**. Since human beings

Group dynamics

Group dynamics is a system of behaviors and psychological processes occurring within a social group, or between social groups. Wikipedia

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Group Dynamics

Meaning and Definitions of Group Dynamics

Group dynamics deals with the attitudes and behavioral patterns of a group. It can be used as a means for problem-solving, teamwork, and to become more innovative and productive as an organization. The concept of group dynamics will also provide you with the strengths, success factors and measures along with other professional tools.

Solve Questions

Which statement is correct with respect to the property of the elements with increase in atomic number in the carbon family?

1 Verified answer

Explain the following with proper reasoning.
Carbon tetrachloride is not affected but silicon tetrachloride is hydrolysed by water.

1 Verified answer

Which is likely to show inert pair effect?

1 Verified answer

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- Stages of Group Formation
- Principles of the Group Dynamics
- Group Cohesiveness

Meaning and Definitions of Group Dynamics

The term 'group dynamics' means the study of forces within a group. Since human beings have an innate desire for belonging to a group, group dynamism is bound to occur. In an organization or in a society, we can see groups, small or large, working for the well-being.

The social process by which people interact with one another in small groups can be called group dynamism. A group has certain common objectives & goals. Because of which members are bound together with certain values and culture.

Importance of Group Dynamism

1. Firstly, a group can influence the way the members think. The members are always influenced by the interactions of other members in the group. A group with a good leader performs better as compared to a group with a weak leader.
2. The group can give the effect of synergy, that is, if the group consists of positive thinkers then its output is more than double every time.
3. Group dynamism can furthermore give job satisfaction to the members.
4. The group can also infuse the team spirit among the members.
5. Even the attitude, insights & ideas of members depend on group dynamism. For example, negative thinkers convert to positive thinkers with the help of the facilitator.
6. Also, if the group works as a cohesive group, the cooperation and convergence can result in maximization of productivity
7. Furthermore, group dynamism can reduce labor unrest. Lastly, it reduces labor turnover due to emotional attachment among the group members.

Stages of Group Development

The following are the five stages of group development

1. Forming
2. Storming
3. Norming
3. Norming
4. Performing
5. Adjourning

Forming	• Little Agreement • Unclear Purpose • Guidance & Direction
Storming	• Conflict • Increased clarity of Purpose • Power Struggles
Norming	• Agreement & Consensus • Clear Roles and Responsibility • Facilitation
Performing	• Clear Vision and Purpose purpose • Focus on Goal Achievement • Delegation
Adjourning	• Task Completion • Good feeling about Achievement • Recognition

Questions on Group Dynamics

Ques 01. Understanding how team decisions are made falls into which stage of development?

1. Forming
2. Storming
3. Norming
4. Performing

Ans. Storming

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gcmohanta29

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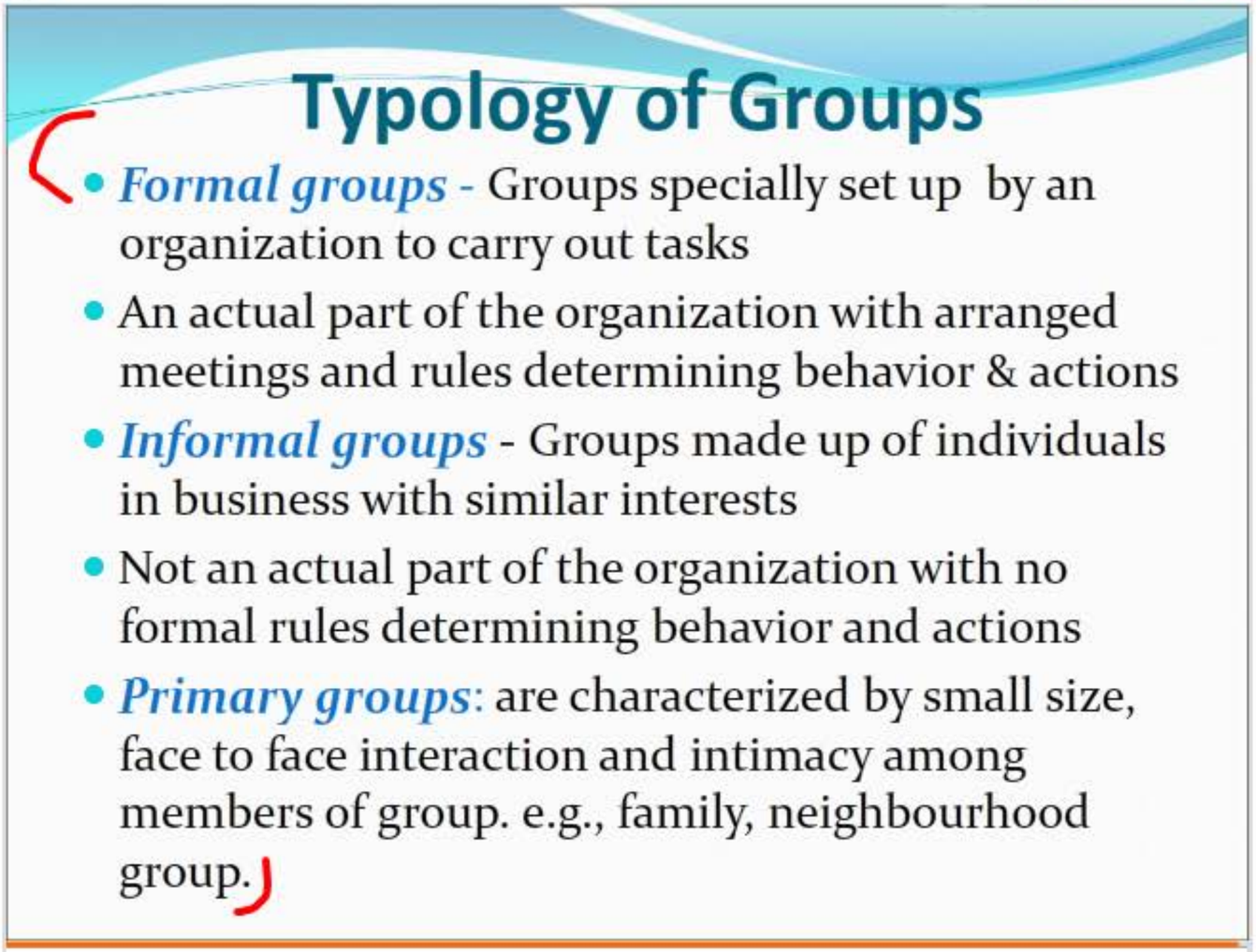

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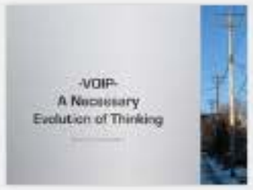

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Typology of Groups

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Typology of Groups

- ***Secondary groups:*** characterized by large size, individual identification with the values and beliefs prevailing in them rather than cultural interaction. e.g., occupational association and ethnic group.
- ***Task groups:*** are composed of people who work together to perform a task but involve cross-command relationship. e.g., for finding out who was responsible for causing wrong medication order, would require liaison between ward in charge, senior sister and head nurse.
- ***Social groups***: refers to integrated system of interrelated psychological group formed to accomplish defined objectives. e.g., political party with its many local political clubs

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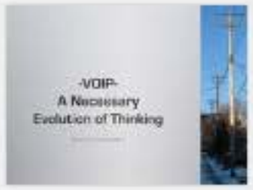

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Typology of Groups (Contd.)

- ***Reference groups***: one in which they would like to belong.
- ***Membership groups***: those where the individual actually belongs.
- ***Command groups***: formed by subordinates reporting directly to the particular manager are determined by formal organizational chart.
- ***Functional groups***: the individuals work together daily on similar tasks.
- ***Problem solving groups:*** it focuses on specific issues in their areas of responsibility, develops potential solution and often empowered to take action.

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Group conflict

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Group conflict, or hostilities between different groups, is a feature common to all forms of human social organization (e.g., sports teams, ethnic groups, nations, religions, gangs),[1] and also occurs in social animals.[2] Although group conflict is one of the most complex phenomena studied by social scientists,[3] the history of the human race evidences a series of group-level conflicts that have gained notoriety over the years. For example, from 1820 to 1945, it has been estimated that at least 59 million persons were killed during conflicts between groups of one type or another.[4] Literature suggests that the number of fatalities[clarification needed] nearly doubled between the years 1914 to 1964 as a result of further group conflict.[5]

Group conflict can be separated into two sub-categories of conflict: inter-group conflict (in which distinct groups of individuals are at odds with one another), and intra-group conflict (in which select individuals that are part of the same group clash with one another). Although both forms of conflict have the ability to spiral upward in severity, it has been noted[by whom?] that conflict present at the group level (i.e., inter-group rivalries) is generally considered to be more powerful than conflict present at an individual level – a phenomenon known as the discontinuity effect.[6]

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2.1 Sources
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Intergroup conflict [edit]

Sources [edit]

Social psychology, specifically the discontinuity effect of inter-group conflict, suggests that "groups are generally even more competitive and aggressive than

Belief domains that contribute [edit]

Through an extensive literature review, Roy J. Eidelson and Judy I. Eidelson, identified parallels between individuals and the collective world views of groups on the basis of five key belief domains.[14]

- **Superiority**: At an individual level, this belief revolves around a person's enduring conviction that he or she is better than other people in important ways. At the group level, superiority includes shared convictions of moral superiority, entitlement, being the chosen and having a special destiny.[14] Being chosen, the belief that one's own group has a superior cultural heritage (e.g., history, values, language, tradition) is common among groups who base their identity on their ethnicity. The development of Hitler's ideology of Aryans as a "master race" is one example of this belief.[15] This belief can be unconscious, with group members unaware – "The power and influence of such a worldview are directly related to its operation as an invisible veil, which makes it difficult for individuals, groups, and institutions to see their harmful consequences".[16] These authors noted that several committees studying racism were using the term ethnocentric monoculturalism to describe this belief in the superiority of your own group's cultural heritage (including history, values, language, traditions, arts and crafts, etc.) over that of other groups. As part of this belief system they also noted a corresponding belief in the inferiority of all other group's heritage, the ability to impose their standards and beliefs on less powerful groups, evidence of the group's core beliefs and values in their practices, programs and policies as well as in the institutions and structures of the group's society, and that they were able to operate outside the level of conscious awareness.[17]
- **Injustice**: At the individual level, this belief revolves around perceived mistreatment by others, and/or the world at large. At the group level, this translates to a world view that the ingroup has significant and legitimate grievances against an outgroup.[14] This belief is seen as contributing greatly to the impetus for war over the past two centuries, as the majority of wars in that time period have centered on issues of *justice* rather than security or power (Welch, 1993). Injustice, in a group setting, can be based on the shared belief that their group has not achieved desired outcomes due to the actions or inactions of a more powerful group that has created a biased or undesirable outcome, and not due to the inadequacies or actions of the group itself.[18] Volkan termed the phrase Chosen Traumas to refer to the "mental representation of an event that has caused a large group to face drastic losses, feel helpless and victimized by another group"[19] that are distorted to perpetuate the injustice belief.
- **Vulnerability**: At the individual level, vulnerability refers to a person's belief that he or she is perpetually in harm's way. At the group level, this belief is manifested in the form of fears about the future. This vulnerability can manifest itself in a group as catastrophic thinking – when the envisioned worst-case scenario is seen as being inevitable.[14] Chirot (2001) notes that the genocides of Armenia, Germany, Cambodia, and Rwanda shared a common belief that "if they did not destroy their real or imagined enemies first, they would themselves be annihilated" (p. 10).
- **Distrust**: At the individual level, this belief focuses on the presumed intent of others to cause harm and/or exhibit hostility. The notion of trust is often seen by psychologists as the first challenge of psychosocial development.[20] At the group level, this worldview focuses specifically on the perspective that outgroups are dishonest, untrustworthy and have negative intentions toward the in group. In more extreme manifestations, this belief is similar to *collective paranoia*, which is defined as collectively held beliefs, either false or exaggerated that cluster around ideas of being harmed, harassed, threatened, or otherwise disparaged by malevolent outgroups[21] Even when no such hostility exists, this distrust belief can cause group members to see any behavior by the other as hostile and malevolent.[14]
- **Helplessness**: At the individual level, helplessness focuses on the belief that even carefully planned and executed actions will fail to produce the desired outcome. When taken at the group level, it translates into a collective mindset of powerlessness and dependency. The group shares a pessimistic approach which focuses on their own weaknesses, and attributes setbacks to their own limitations.[14] Helplessness, when it exists as a shared belief within a group, serves as a constraint on organized political movement, as those who participate in a social movement must see themselves as capable of righting the wrongs they perceive.[22]

Donald Horowitz also argues that the belief, regardless of its accuracy, that ones group is behind another group can also contribute to conflict and that such groups often face severe anxiety about threats emanating from other groups. The backwards group fears it will be ultimately dominated by more advanced groups. Backwards groups tend to view their individual members with negative qualities, such as laziness and lack of intelligence, while collectively they view themselves as unorganized and lacking unity, with members looking out only for themselves and not their group. In contrast, advanced groups' members are perceived as possessing positive qualities, such as conscientiousness, intelligence and industriousness, while collectively they are perceived as well organized, cohesive and

Group Conflicts: 2 Main Types of Group Conflicts (With Diagram) | Business Management

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This article throws light upon the two main types of Group Conflicts. The two types of Group Conflicts are: 1. Inter-Group Conflict 2. Intra-Group Conflict.

1. Inter-Group Conflict:

When a conflict takes place between two or more groups it is called 'inter-group conflict'.

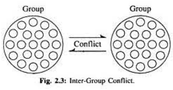

Fig. 2.3: Inter-Group Conflict.

Causes of Inter-Group Conflict:

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The causes of inter-group conflict are as follows:

1. Scarce Resources:

When resources are scarce and different groups within the organisation or outside it want to get hold of the same, they may come into conflict. So, scarce resources are one of the causes of conflict.

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2. Conflicting Interest:

The interests of two groups may not be the same. They may even be opposite. In such cases, conflict between the groups is inevitable.

3. Exercise of Power:

If one group thinks itself to be superior to other group/groups and exercises its power over other group/groups, a conflict is likely to arise, as the oppressed group would try to resist or oppose.

2. Intra-Group Conflict:

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A group often consists of persons of similar values, attitude, interests and goals. Group interests are generally the same but individual interest and goal may differ from person to person in a group. The result is conflict. Thus, a conflict between two or among some members in a group may be referred to as 'intra-group conflict'.

Fig. 2.4: Intra-Group Conflict.

Intra-group conflict may take place owing to the following reasons:

1. Difference in Goals:

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If some members in a group aim at a certain objective and others differ—a conflict is likely to occur. Let us suppose, some members of a production unit of a factory are trying to improve the quality of product and others are interested in increasing the quantity of output. There is a possibility of a conflict between the two sets of members with two different objectives within the group.

2. Denial of Responsibility:

Owing to lack of well-defined responsibility, some people in a group may avoid their work and make other members responsible for non-performance of the same. Thus, conflict among the members of the group emerges.

3. Ineffective Control over the Group:

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When leadership is weak and there is less control over the members of the group, a conflict on a petty issue may crop up.

4. Ideological Differences:

A person's ideology, morality, ethics, etc. may not be in conformity with those of the group to which he/she belongs. A conflict is inevitable in such cases. The person is likely to disassociate himself/herself from the group as a result.

5. High Degree of Competition:

High degree of competition for any scarce thing (e.g., money, power, position, supplies, etc.) among the members of a group may lead to conflict, because the scarce thing is not for all—somebody will get and others will be deprived of it.

6. Communication Gap:

Poor communication or communication gap may create misunderstanding or partial impression about a person in a group. Such impression creates wrong ideas about the person and conflict may take place.

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CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Four Common Types of Team Conflict and How to Resolve Them

October 5, 2020

Conflicts are a natural part of life, both in our personal lives and in the workplace. Workplace conflicts occur because team members don't always agree or know how to work together despite their differences. These differences could be in the way they manage their tasks, their work styles or personalities.

In order for a team to work together effectively, conflicts need to be resolved in a timely and professional manner that minimizes disruption to productivity. The ability to resolve team conflicts is crucial to the success of any organization.

Whether you're involved in a conflict or acting as a mediator, you'll need to remain calm throughout the process and work to understand the different perspectives of all parties involved. In this article, we'll examine the most common types of conflicts that can arise, steps for resolving these conflicts and why conflict resolution is important in workplace.

What is team conflict?

Team conflicts arise when there are disagreements over their goals, methods or needs of the team. Conflicts can also occur when there are differing personalities. At first, these conflicts may seem commonplace, but failing to resolve them could have a negative impact on productivity and overall morale. When conflicts between team members arise, addressing these disagreements and coming to a mutual understanding allows everyone to collaborate in a harmonious and productive way.

Conflict resolution is a valuable leadership skill to have. Individuals with the ability to recognize conflicts, acknowledge differences and find quick and peaceful resolution are essential to any organization.

Why is conflict resolution important?

Conflict resolution is important for the success of any team. Leaving a conflict unresolved can negatively impact morale and productivity, resulting in a tense and uncomfortable work environment for all. Resolving conflicts in the workplace allows teams to trust each other and work better together to achieve their goals. Conflict resolution allows team members to understand each other better and create smoother working relationships in the future.

Related: Conflict Resolution Skills: Definitions and Examples

Types of team conflicts

Here are four different types of team conflicts common to workplace environments:

Task-based conflicts

Task-based conflicts occur in situations when team members rely on each other to successfully complete a task or project. When one person on the team doesn't complete their part of the task, it can affect another team member's ability to finish their part on time. For example, if an employee always turns in their reports late, it causes the accountant to be late with their reports as well. To avoid these conflicts, make sure everyone on the team knows what they should be doing in their position so tasks can be accomplished efficiently and on deadline.

Leadership conflicts

Some conflicts occur because of differences in leadership styles. Everyone has their own way of leading their teams. Some leaders are directive, while others are more open, inclusive and encourage collaboration with their team. To prevent leadership style conflicts, it's important to recognize and appreciate these differences throughout the team. If you're in a management role, you should be aware of your own leadership style and how you interact with your team. It may be necessary to make adjustments to your leadership style to accommodate the different needs and personalities of your team members.

Work style conflicts

Just as there are differences in leadership styles, there are differences in work styles as well. Work style conflicts occur because team members have different preferences in how to accomplish tasks. Some work quickly and move onto the next task as soon as possible, while others prefer to complete tasks slowly and mindfully. Some people are self-starters who require little to no direction to finish a task, and others need guidance every step of the way. The best way to avoid these types of conflicts is to recognize that everyone's work style is different and find ways to collaborate to achieve the same goal despite those differences.

Personality clashes

Personality clashes are some of the most common types of team conflicts. These types of conflicts are caused by differences in personality among team members. You're not always going to get along with or like every person you meet, whether they're your coworker, supervisor or peer. It can be challenging to work with someone whose personality disagrees with your own. However, it's important to try to understand their differences and learn how to work together peacefully and productively.

How to resolve team conflicts

Many conflicts at work are caused by misunderstandings and a lack of communication among team members. However, when these conflicts are resolved properly, team members are able to develop better working relationships and are more productive as a result. Here are some productive steps to take to resolve workplace conflicts:

Stay calm

When a conflict arises, it's important to stay calm and professional. Take several deep breaths and clear your mind before attempting to address the conflict. Come up with a plan to resolve the conflict before tension grows and things worsen.

Communicate (and listen)

Find a place where you can discuss the conflict in private. It's important that all parties involved have the opportunity to share their side and listen to what others have to say. Be attentive and empathetic, and try to understand how the other person feels while still saying everything you need to say.

Acknowledge the conflict and find a resolution

Part of conflict resolution includes acknowledging there's a problem in the first place. Once the conflict has been recognized, everyone involved needs to come to an agreement about reaching a resolution. Try to see the conflict from the viewpoint of your other team members and focus on the things you can agree on. This will help you better understand what they feel and how they think and allow you to come to a resolution together.

Involve leadership or HR

In some cases, you may need to involve your HR department or a supervisor if a conflict can't be resolved, whether it's because someone is failing to cooperate or something much more serious, such as harassment or discrimination.

Resolving workplace conflicts requires teamwork and an understanding of each other's differing viewpoints. Once conflicts are resolved, the best way to move forward is to recognize that mistakes happen. A team that is willing to work together to resolve workplace conflicts can strengthen their relationships and accomplish their goals.

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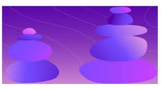

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are more suitable, and it's up to you to assess the situation and decide what option is best.

Ways to deal with group conflict include:

- **Mediation**. It is ideal if you want to keep the situation informal and for people to be actively involved in reaching a compromise. Either you or an external mediator will get people to listen and open up about issues. But be aware that you need training in conflict management and mediation to effectively do this.
- **Arbitration**. This is a more formal approach that involves an arbitrator assessing evidence and reaching a legally-binding decision. Trained arbitrators are experienced in handling cases objectively and reaching a fair resolution. But because people don't talk through differences, relationships may not be repaired as effectively as they would through mediation.
- **Arbitration is generally better suited to large group conflicts**, but mediation can work equally well with multiple mediators.
- **Promote a workplace culture of openness** where people feel free to share complaints about individuals or a team without retribution. Otherwise, issues behind the scenes lead to the quality of work dropping while you struggle to understand why.

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The Nature of Conflict

A conflict is the moment of truth in a relationship-a test of its health, a crisis that can weaken or strengthen it, a critical event that may bring lasting resentment, smoldering hostility, psychological scars. Conflicts can push people away from each other or pull them into a closer and more intimate union; they contain the seeds of destruction and the seeds of greater unity; they may bring about armed warfare or deeper mutual understanding.

How conflicts are resolved is probably the most critical factor in all relationships. Unfortunately, most people try to resolve them by using only two basic approaches in which someone wins and someone loses, both of which outcomes are ineffective and harmful to the relationship.

Few persons accept the fact that conflict is part of life and not necessarily bad. We look on conflict as something to avoid at all costs. We often hear husbands and wives boast that they have never had a serious disagreement-as if that means theirs has been a good relationship.

Parents tell their children, "All right, there is to be no arguing tonight at the dinner table-we don't want to spoil our dinner." Or they yell, "Stop that arguing, right now!" Parents of teenagers can be heard lamenting that now that their children are older there are many more disagreements and conflicts in the family. "We used to see eye to eye on most things." Or, "My daughter was always so cooperative and easy to handle, but now we don't see things her way and she can't see things our way."

At home or at work, most of us hate to experience conflict, are deeply trouble when it occurs, and are quite confused about how to handle it constructively. Actually, it would be a rare relationship if, over a period of time, one person's needs did not conflict with the other's. When any two people (or groups) coexist, conflict is bound to occur just because people are different, think differently, and have needs and wants that sometimes do not match.

Conflict, therefore, is not necessarily bad-it exists as a reality of any relationship. As a matter of fact, a relationship with no apparent conflict may be unhealthier than one with frequent conflict. A good example is a marriage where the wife is always subservient to a dominating husband or vice versa, or a boss-subordinate relationship in which the subordinate is so deathly

flict.

Reactions to External Conflict

External conflict occurs between two or more parties. External and Internal Conflict in Fiction, part two in this series, gives a detailed look at this topic. For this article, I've drawn from the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Model, which names five reactions to external conflict: competition, avoidance, accommodation, compromise, and collaboration.

Competition

Focusing on winning rather than negotiating a resolution, your character responds to conflict with confrontation, intimidation, and outright fighting. Your character believes that compromise is not possible due to the opponent's inflexibility or because of competing goals that are mutually exclusive.

Accommodation

Motivated by fear, your character capitulates in order to preserve a relationship, spare feelings, and avoid conflict. In fiction, this sort of reaction heightens tension as it leads from one obstacle to the next because it doesn't resolve the basic issue.

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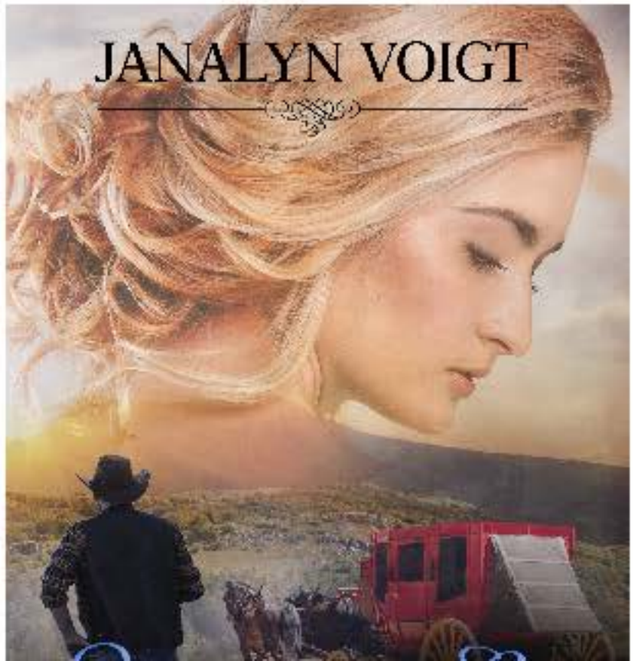


right fighting. Your character believes that compromise is not possible due to the opponent's inflexibility or because of competing goals that are mutually exclusive.

Accommodation

Motivated by fear, your character capitulates in order to preserve a relationship, spare feelings, and avoid conflict. In fiction, this sort of reaction heightens tension as it leads from one obstacle to the next because it doesn't resolve the basic issue.

Avoidance

Escaping seems the only option when your character can't decide what to do, feels the conflict can't be won, or hopes it will resolve on its own.

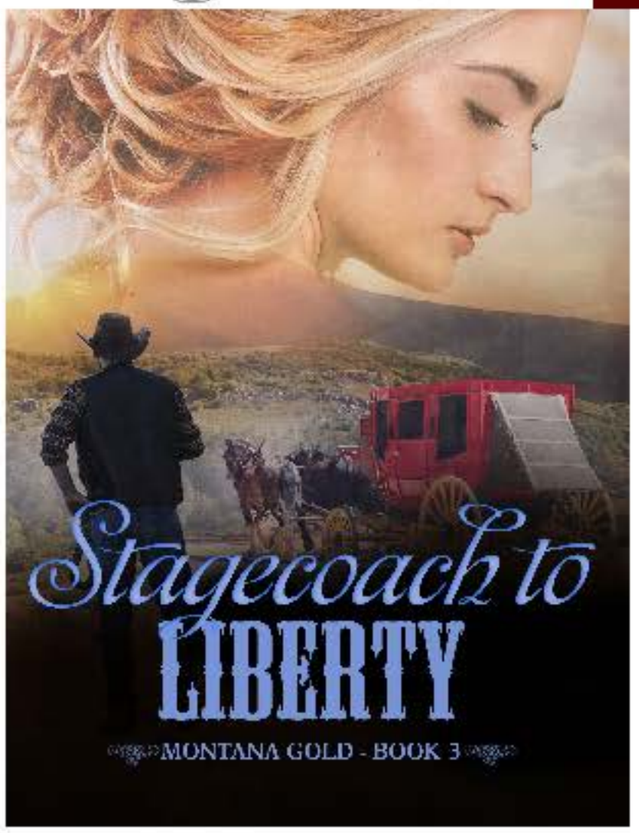
Collaboration

Getting at the root of the problem, your character analyzes the conflict from all perspectives and reasons out a solution with all involved parties. The focus is not on winning but on mutual respect. Creative thinking and problem solving skills are a prerequisite to resolving a conflict by this method.

Compromise

Your characters negotiate with one another, searching for a middle ground that will let them both win in some ways. To do this they need to be willing to give up some of their ideas to accommodate the other person.

Reactions to Internal Conflict



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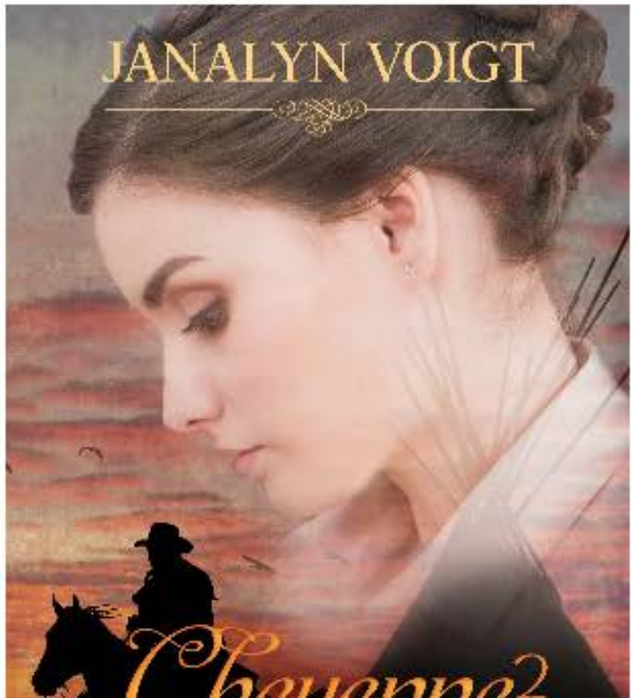
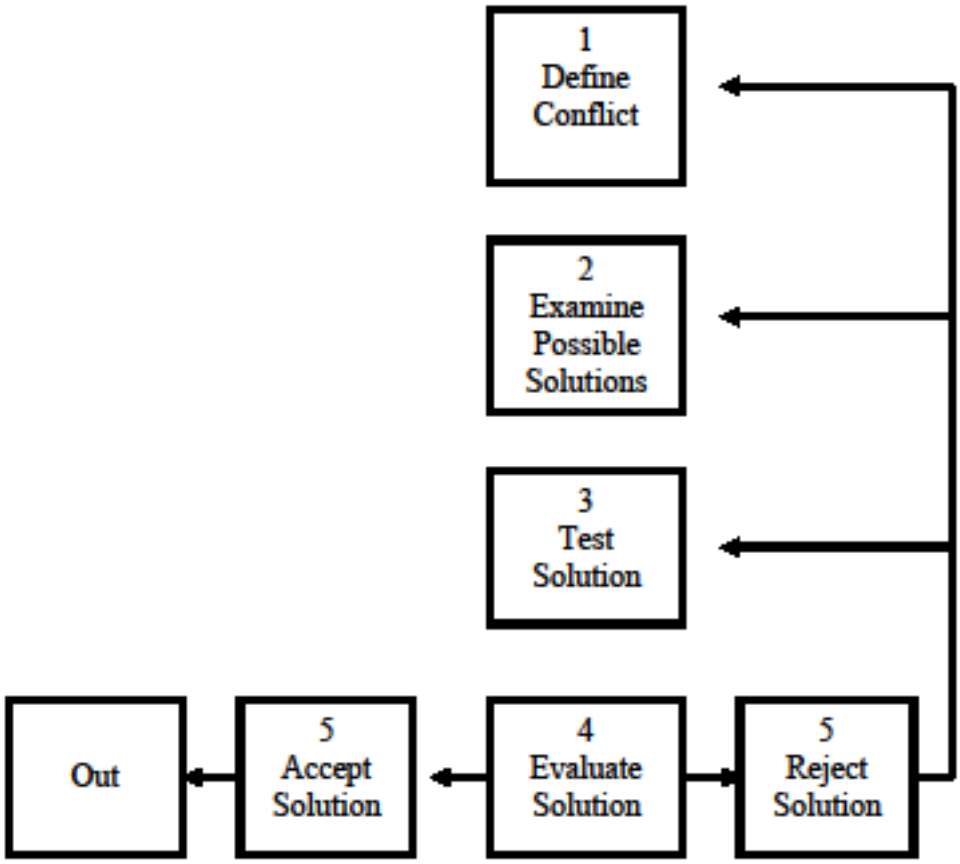


A MODEL OF CONFLICT RESOLUTION

The stages in Figure 11.1 explain conflict more fully and at the same time provide guidance in dealing with conflicts effectively. This model is based on the problem-solving technique introduced by John Dewey (1910) and used by most contemporary theorists (for example, Beebe and Masterson 1990; Patton, Griffin, and Patton 1989). The assumption made here is that interpersonal conflict is essentially a problem that needs to be solved. Begin at number 1 and work through the process of resolving conflict.

Figure 11.1
Stages of Conflict Resolution



Define the Conflict

Your first step is to define the conflict. This is the most essential step in the entire process of managing conflict. *Define both the content and the relationship issues*. Define the obvious content issues (who should do the dishes, who should take the kids to school, who should take out the dog) as well as the underlying relational issues (who's been avoiding household responsibilities, who's been neglecting their responsibilities towards the kid, whose time in more valuable).

CAREER DEVELOPMENT

What is Behavioral Leadership Theory? Definition and Types of Behavioral Leadership

February 25, 2020

Behavioral leadership theory is a management philosophy that evaluates leaders according to the actions they display in the workplace. Supporters of this theory believe that all you need to do to be an effective leader is to learn a certain set of behaviors. If you are interested in becoming a more efficient leader or in implementing a new leadership style, you can benefit from learning about behavioral leadership theory. In this article, we define behavioral leadership and discuss the different types of behaviors associated with certain leadership styles.

Read more: Leadership Skills: Definitions and Examples

What is behavioral leadership theory?

Behavioral leadership theory argues that the success of a leader is based on their behavior rather than their natural attributes. Behavioral leadership theory involves observing and evaluating a leader's actions and behaviors when they are responding to a specific situation. This theory believes that leaders are made, not born. Proponents of this theory suggest that anyone can become an effective leader if they are able to learn and implement certain behaviors.

Behavioral leadership theory is highly relevant in a number of fields. Every project manager, CEO, activities coordinator or any other kind of professional leader can all be evaluated according to the criteria developed by the behavioral leadership theory. This theory promotes the idea that all leaders are capable of learning and developing through adopting beneficial behaviors and performing them in their workplace. Behavioral leadership theory also encourages leaders to be self-aware of their behavior and to recognize how it affects the productivity and morale of their team.

Read more: How to Demonstrate Leadership Skills at Work

Types of behavioral leadership

There are several key styles of behavioral leadership. Each one involves a different set of behaviors and may be more or less effective in certain work environments:

- People-oriented leaders
- Task-oriented leaders
- Participative leaders
- Status-quo leaders
- Indifferent leaders
- Dictatorial leaders
- Country club leaders
- Sound leaders
- Opportunistic leaders
- Paternalistic leaders

People-oriented leaders

People-oriented leaders focus on behaviors that allow them to meet the needs of the people they interact with, including supervisors, employees and clients. They are primarily driven by interpersonal connection and communication. People-oriented leaders build relationships with their team members to motivate them to perform well. This type of leader favors behavior related to:

- Encouraging collaboration
- Rewarding success
- Observing their team's progress
- Mentoring team members

Read more: 10 Common Leadership Styles (With Examples)

Task-oriented leaders

Task-oriented leaders are primarily focused on setting goals and achieving objectives. Task-oriented leaders thrive in a well-structured environment and often show authoritative behavior. They are typically more focused on their team's final results rather than the day-to-day developmental process. Behaviors that are common for a task-oriented leader include:

- Initiating projects
- Organizing processes
- Clarifying instructions
- Gathering relevant data

Participative leaders

Participative leaders make an effort to include their entire team in decision-making processes. They prioritize active communication, collaboration and feedback. Participative leaders know their team's strengths and weaknesses and assign tasks accordingly. This leadership style allows every team member's voice to be heard and considered. Participative leaders are likely to:

- Facilitate team meetings
- Ask for constructive feedback
- Take suggestions for improvement
- Delegate tasks to other team members

Status-quo leaders

Status-quo leaders make an effort to prioritize both productivity and employee satisfaction. They ensure that all tasks are finished on time while also providing support and encouragement to their team members. Staus-quo leaders typically meet the needs of their team without going above or beyond expectations. Some behaviors associated with status-quo leaders include:

- Distributing tasks evenly
- Requiring regular progress reports
- Enforcing company policies fairly
- Responding to feedback neutrally

Indifferent leaders

Indifferent leaders do not prioritize interaction or communication with their team. They usually oversee progress from a distance and do not contribute to their team's daily efforts. They are primarily focused on personal success and advancement. Due to the lack of cooperation, an indifferent leadership style is widely considered the most ineffective of the behavioral leadership types. Behaviors typical for indifferent leaders include:

- Avoiding questions
- Procrastinating
- Self-preserving
- Assigning unwanted tasks to others

Dictatorial leaders

Dictatorial leaders often value results more than they do people. They may pressure their team members to perform well even during stressful or challenging periods. Dictatorial leaders are often successful in delivering high-quality results but may experience high turnover rates due to employee dissatisfaction and burn out. The behaviors of a dictatorial leader include:

- Setting inflexible deadlines
- Disregarding excuses
- Ignoring feedback
- Achieving short-term goals

Country club leaders

Country club leaders prioritize their team members' happiness and satisfaction level. They believe that a team that is comfortable and well-provided for is more likely to be successful. Team members are likely to show high levels of trust and loyalty when working with country club leaders. Some country club leaders might sacrifice productivity in exchange for improving their team's morale or workplace relationships. Country club leaders' behavior often involves:

- Responding to team member feedback
- Focusing on employees' well-being
- Defending employees' interests and rights
- Supporting the team members' decisions

Sound leaders

Sound leadership is considered the most effective type of behavioral leadership. However, it is typically difficult to practically implement. Sound leaders equally prioritize productivity and team morale. They value their team members, set achievable goals and deliver high-quality results. They are intrinsically motivated to succeed and find satisfaction in supporting their team's progress. Sound leaders exhibit behaviors like:

- Encouraging open communication
- Allowing employees to work independently
- Listening to and implementing feedback
- Providing training and continuing education to team members

Opportunistic leaders

Opportunistic leaders pick and choose different behaviors from the previous styles. They are able to adjust and adapt their leadership style to fit a particular situation. They are goal-oriented and will use whatever methods are necessary to achieve their objectives. For example, they might adopt a dictatorial persona in the weeks leading up to a major deadline and then shift to country club leadership afterward to repair their relationship with their team. The specific behaviors of an opportunistic leader vary, but may include:

- Lack of consistency
- Pursuing results regardless of cost
- Enforcing their own standards for success
- Caring for their team with the goal of improving performance

Paternalistic leaders

This leadership style strives to be stern but fair, much like a father with a child. Paternalistic leaders are goal-oriented but are willing to be flexible in regard to methodology. They frequently set lofty goals and reward team members that achieve them. They value their team members' individual skills and offer opportunities for them to develop professionally. Other behaviors associated with the paternalistic style include:

- Rewarding positive behavior or success
- Disciplining failure
- Disregarding feedback
- Offering leadership opportunities to promising employees

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democratic leadership most favorably and authoritarian leadership least favorably (Baumgartel, 1957), but employees working in large groups where opportunities for member interaction was limited preferred authoritarian leader decision making (Vroom & Mann, 1960).

Finally, the effectiveness of each style seems to depend on who is using it. There are examples of effective leaders using both authoritarian and democratic styles. For example, Larry Page and Sergey Brin at Google are known for their democratic decision-making styles. At Hyundai USA, high-level managers use authoritarian decision-making styles, and the company is performing well (Deutschman, 2004; Welch, et. al., 2008).

Figure 10.9

Google cofounders Larry Page and Sergey Brin (shown here) are known for their democratic decision-making styles.
Guety – Sergey Brin, Web 2.0 Conference – CC BY 2.0.

The track record of the laissez-faire decision-making style is more problematic. Research shows that this style is negatively related to employee satisfaction with leaders and leader effectiveness (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Laissez-faire leaders create high levels of ambiguity about job expectations on the part of employees, and employees also engage in higher levels of conflict when leaders are using the laissez-faire style (Skogstad, et. al., 2007).

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Laissez-faire leadership is the direct opposite of autocratic **leadership**. Instead of a single **leader** making all decisions for an organization, group or team, **laissez-faire leaders** make few decisions and allow their staff to choose appropriate workplace solutions. Nov 25, 2014

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Trait Approach to Leadership

May 21, 2016 by Mandee — Leave a Comment

The trait approach to leadership concentrates on the idea that great leaders are born with the given abilities, and not a learned ability. Individuals are brought into this world with all of the characteristics needed to become a great leader.

The trait approach theory of course comes with a fair share of controversy. Numerous studies have tried to narrow down the specific personality traits that make up a good leader giving us items such as drive, self-confidence, honesty, integrity, and tolerant. While these might be good traits of a leader, they are not necessarily traits that all leaders exhibit. For example, one of the most influential leaders in the world was Adolf Hitler. While Hitler exhibited traits such as drive and self-confidence, I would say he was lacking on certain traits such as integrity and honesty. Think of leadership traits in a comparison to your hand. A thumb is a finger, but not all fingers are thumbs. A great leader *can* have honesty and integrity, but not all leaders *have* honesty and integrity.

The trait theory also indicates that great leaders cannot be made, or learned. If you are not born with specific personality traits, you are not destined to be a leader. I think the ability to learn is a quality of a great leader. Being able to learn from your mistakes and apply them towards future leadership situations is a fantastic characteristic to exhibit.

I associate leadership more along the lines of the situational approach theory. According to Northouse (2016, p.93), "the situational approach stresses that leadership is composed of both a directive and a supportive dimension, and that each has to be applied appropriately in a given situation." This theory shows the importance of a leader being able to assess the followers situation and see what the leader feels they are able to handle at that given time. Being able to adjust your leadership style based on the followers is the ultimate goal.

Northouse, P. (2016). *Leadership theory and practice, seventh edition*. Thousand Oaks, California. SAGE Publications.

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Although these core traits do not solely determine whether a person will be a leader—or a successful leader—they are seen as preconditions that endow people with leadership potential. Among the core traits identified are:

- *Drive*—a high level of effort, including a strong desire for achievement as well as high levels of ambition, energy, tenacity, and initiative
- *Leadership motivation*—an intense desire to lead others
- *Honesty and integrity*—a commitment to the truth (nondeceit), where word and deed correspond
- *Self-confidence*—an assurance in one's self, one's ideas, and one's ability
- *Cognitive ability*—conceptually skilled, capable of exercising good judgment, having strong analytical abilities, possessing the capacity to think strategically and multidimensionally
- *Knowledge of the business*—a high degree of understanding of the company, industry, and technical matters
- *Other traits*—charisma, creativity/originality, and flexibility/adaptiveness
  Kirkpatrick & Locke. 1991. The best managers: What it takes. 2000 (Jan. 10). *Business Week*, 158.

While leaders may be "people with the right stuff," effective leadership requires more than simply possessing the correct set of motives and traits. Knowledge, skills, ability, vision, strategy, and effective vision implementation are all necessary for the person who has the "right stuff" to realize their leadership potential.

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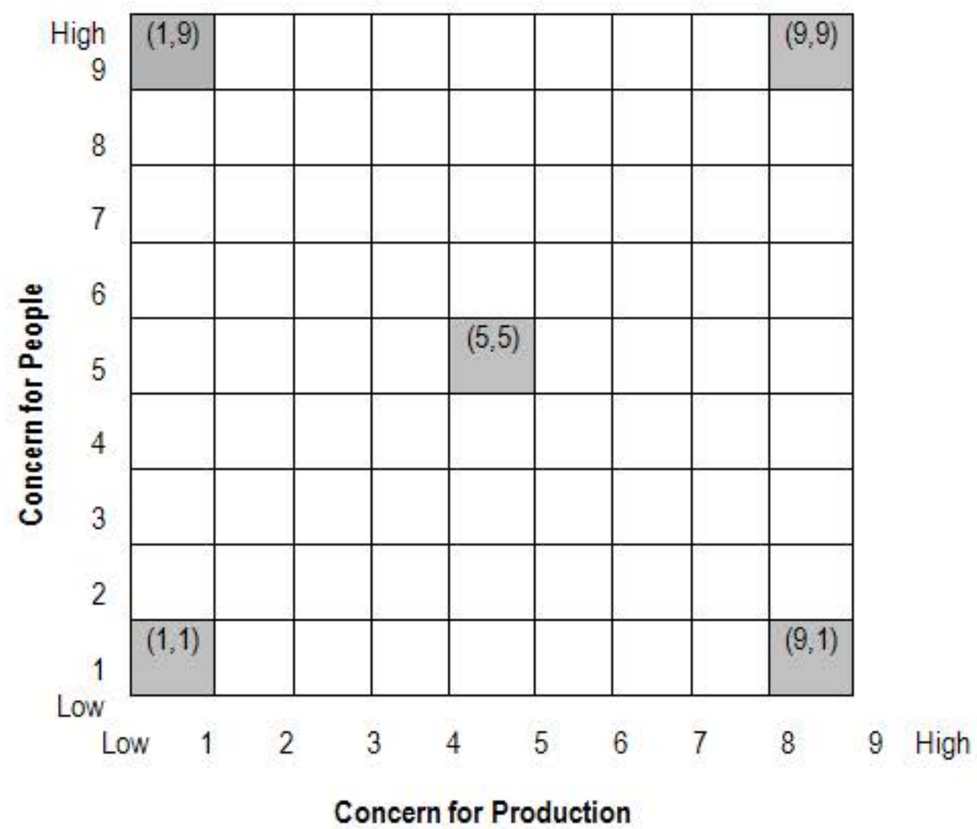
Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid

The treatment of task orientation and people orientation as two independent dimensions was a major step in leadership studies. Many of the leadership studies conducted in the 1950s at the University of Michigan and the Ohio State University focused on these two dimensions.

Building on the work of the researchers at these Universities, Robert Blake and Jane Mouton (1960s) proposed a graphic portrayal of leadership styles through a **managerial grid** (sometimes called *leadership grid*). The grid depicted two dimensions of leader behavior, **concern for people** (accommodating people's needs and giving them priority) on y-axis and **concern for production** (keeping tight schedules) on x-axis, with each dimension ranging from low (1) to high (9), thus creating 81 different positions in which the leader's style may fall. (See figure 1).

Figure 1: Managerial Grid



The five resulting leadership styles are as follows:

The five resulting leadership styles are as follows:

1. **Impoverished Management (1, 1):** Managers with this approach are low on both the dimensions and exercise minimum effort to get the work done from subordinates. The leader has low concern for employee satisfaction and work deadlines and as a result disharmony and disorganization prevail within the organization. The leaders are termed ineffective wherein their action is merely aimed at preserving job and seniority.

2. **Task management (9, 1):** Also called dictatorial or perish style. Here leaders are more concerned about production and have less concern for people. The style is based on theory X of McGregor. The employees' needs are not taken care of and they are simply a means to an end. The leader believes that efficiency can result only through proper organization of work systems and through elimination of people wherever possible. Such a style can definitely increase the output of organization in short run but due to the strict policies and procedures, high labour turnover is inevitable.

3. **Middle-of-the-Road (5, 5):** This is basically a compromising style wherein the leader tries to maintain a balance between goals of company and the needs of people. The leader does not push the boundaries of achievement resulting in average performance for organization. Here neither employee nor production needs are fully met.

4. **Country Club (1, 9):** This is a collegial style characterized by low task and high people orientation where the leader gives thoughtful attention to the needs of people thus providing them with a friendly and comfortable environment. The leader feels that such a treatment with employees will lead to self-motivation and will find people working hard on their own. However, a low focus on tasks can hamper production and lead to questionable results.

5. **Team Management (9, 9):** Characterized by high people and task focus, the style is based on the theory Y of McGregor and has been termed as most effective style according to Blake and Mouton. The leader feels that empowerment, commitment, trust, and respect are the key elements in creating a team atmosphere which will automatically result in high employee satisfaction and production.

Advantages of Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid

The Managerial or Leadership Grid is used to help managers analyze their own leadership styles through a technique known as grid training. This is done by administering a questionnaire that helps managers identify how they stand with respect to their concern for production and people. The training is aimed at basically helping leaders reach to the ideal state of 9, 9.

Limitations of Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid

The model ignores the importance of internal and external limits, matter and scenario. Also, there are some more aspects of leadership that can be covered but are not.

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Understanding People's Motivations

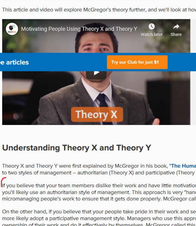
What do you think motivates your people to come to work each morning?

Do you believe that they get great **satisfaction** O from their work and take pride in doing the best possible job? Or do you think that they see it as a burden, and simply work for the money?

These assumptions about your team members can have a significant influence on how you manage them.

In the 1960s, social psychologist Douglas McGregor developed two contrasting theories that explained how managers' beliefs about what motivates their people can affect their management style. He labelled these Theory X and Theory Y. These theories continue to be important even today.

This article and video will explore McGregor's theory further, and we'll look at how it applies in the workplace.



Click here O to view a transcript of this video.

Understanding Theory X and Theory Y

Theory X and Theory Y were first explained by McGregor in his book, "**The Human Side of Enterprise**," and they refer to two styles of management – authoritarian (Theory X) and participative (Theory Y).

If you believe that your team members dislike their work and have little motivation, then, according to McGregor, you'll likely use an authoritarian style of management. This approach is very "hands-on" and usually involves micromanaging people's work to ensure that it gets done properly. McGregor called this Theory X.

On the other hand, if you believe that your people take pride in their work and see it as a **challenge** O, then you'll more likely adopt a participative management style. Managers who use this approach trust their people to take ownership of their work and do it effectively by themselves. McGregor called this Theory Y.

The approach that you take will have a significant impact on your ability to motivate your team members. So, it's important to understand how your perceptions of what motivates them can shape your management style.

We'll now take a more in-depth look at the two different theories, and discover how and when they can be useful in the workplace.

Theory X

Theory X managers tend to take a pessimistic view of their people, and assume that they are naturally unmotivated and dislike work. As a result, they think that their team members need to be prompted, **rewarded** O or punished constantly to make sure that they complete their tasks.

Work in organizations that are managed like this can be ineffective, and people are often motivated with a "carrot and stick" approach. Performance **appraisals** O and **remuneration** O are usually based on tangible results, such as sales figures or product output, and are used to control staff and "keep tabs" on them.

This style of management assumes that workers:

- Dislike their work.
- Avoid responsibility and need constant direction.
- Have to be controlled, forced and threatened to deliver work.
- Need to be supervised at every step.
- Have no incentive to work or ambition, and therefore need to be enticed by rewards to achieve goals.

According to McGregor, organizations with a Theory X approach tend to have several tiers of managers and supervisions to oversee and direct workers. Authority is rarely delegated, and control remains firmly centralized. Managers are more authoritarian and actively intervene to get things done.

Although Theory X management has largely fallen out of fashion in recent times, big organizations may find that adopting it is unavoidable due to the sheer number of people that they employ and the tight deadlines that they have to meet.

Theory Y

Theory Y managers have an optimistic, positive opinion of their people, and they use a decentralized, participative management style. This encourages a more **collaborative** O, **trust-based** O relationship between managers and their team members.

People have greater responsibility, and managers encourage them to develop their skills and suggest improvements. Appraisals are regular but, unlike in Theory X organizations, they are used to encourage open communication rather than control staff.

Theory Y organizations also give employees frequent opportunities for promotion.

This style of management assumes that workers are:

- Happy to work on their own initiative.
- More involved in decision making.
- Self-motivated to complete their tasks.
- Enjoy **taking ownership** O of their work.
- Seek and accept responsibility, and need little direction.
- View work as fulfilling and challenging.
- Solve problems creatively and imaginatively.

Theory Y has become more popular among organizations. This reflects workers' increasing desire for more **meaningful careers** O that provide them with more than just money.

It's also viewed by McGregor as superior to Theory X, which, he says, reduces workers to "cogs in a machine," and likely demotivates people in the long term.

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Theory X and Theory Y in the Workplace

Most managers will likely use a mixture of Theory X and Theory Y. You may, however, find that you naturally favor one over the other. You might, for instance, have a tendency to **micromanage** O or, conversely, you may prefer to take a more **hands-off approach** O.

Although both styles of management can motivate people, the success of each will largely depend on your team's **needs and wants** O and your organizational objectives.

You may use a Theory X style of management for new starters who will likely need a lot of guidance, or in a situation that requires you to take control such as a **crisis** O.

But you wouldn't use it when managing a team of **experts** O, who are used to working under their own initiative, and need little direction. If you did, it would likely have a demotivating effect and may even damage your relationship with them.

However, both theories have their challenges. The restrictive nature of Theory X, for instance, could cause people to become demotivated and non-cooperative if your approach is too strict. This may lead to **high staff turnover** O and could damage your reputation in the long term.

Conversely, if you adopt a Theory Y approach that gives people too much freedom, it may allow them to stray from their key objectives or lose focus. Less motivated individuals may also take advantage of this more relaxed working environment by shirking their work.

If this happens, you may need to take back some control to ensure that everyone meets their team and organizational goals.

Circumstance can also affect your management style. Theory X, for instance, is generally more prevalent in larger organizations, or in teams where work can be repetitive and target-driven.

In these cases, people are unlikely to find reward or fulfillment in their work, so a "**carrot and stick** O" approach will tend to be more successful in motivating them than a Theory Y approach.

In contrast, Theory Y tends to be favored by organizations that have a flatter structure, and where people at the lower levels are involved in decision making and have some responsibility.

Warning

Your assumptions and how you assess your people's needs and wants will likely be the biggest influencers on your management style. However, it's important that you challenge your assumptions and review your team members' individual requirements regularly. This will allow you to adapt your approach appropriately.

Tip:

If you feel that an alternative approach would motivate your team better, you can explore other management models, such as **Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory** O, **McClelland's Human Motivation Theory** O, **Strata's Three-Factor Theory** O, and **Amabile and Kramer's Progress Theory** O. Our article on **Transformational Leadership** O can also give you tips on how to inspire and motivate your people.

Key Points

The concept of Theory X and Theory Y was developed by social psychologist Douglas McGregor. It describes two contrasting sets of assumptions that managers make about their people:

- Theory X – people dislike work, have little ambition, and are unwilling to take responsibility. Managers with this assumption motivate their people using a rigid "carrot and stick" approach, which rewards good performance and punishes poor performance.
- Theory Y – people are self-motivated and enjoy the challenge of work. Managers with this assumption have a more collaborative relationship with their people, and motivate them by allowing them to work on their own initiative, giving them responsibility, and empowering them to make decisions.

Though your assumptions about what motivates your people will likely have the biggest impact on which of these two approaches you take, your choice can also be shaped by several other factors. These include your organizational structure (flexed or flat), the type of work that your people do (repetitive or challenging), and their skill level (amateur or experienced).

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Over a month ago
Midgie wrote
Hi Mark,
Welcome to the Club and thanks for your question. We do not have a quiz about theory x and y, yet.it might be a great question to ask other members in the Forum area to see what they might think. We learn so much from the questions and sharing in the Forums! Hope to get to know you there.

Part of my role in the Club is to help members get the most from their membership so if you have any questions, just let us know.

Midgie
Mind Tools Team

Over a month ago
mcooper73 wrote
Hi, is there any guidance on how to assess one's propensity towards x or y (i.e. a self-assessment tool)?
Thanks Mark

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Leadership Styles

The four leadership styles are:

- **Directive:** Here the leader provides guidelines, lets subordinates know what is expected of them, sets performance standards for them, and controls behavior when performance standards are not met. He makes judicious use of rewards and disciplinary action. The style is the same as task-oriented one.
- **Supportive:** The leader is friendly towards subordinates and displays personal concern for their needs, welfare, and well-being. This style is the same as people-oriented leadership.
- **Participative:** The leader believes in group decision-making and shares information with subordinates. He consults his subordinates on important decisions related to work, task goals, and paths to resolve goals.
- **Achievement-oriented:** The leader sets challenging goals and encourages employees to reach their peak performance. The leader believes that employees are responsible enough to accomplish challenging goals. This is the same as goal-setting theory.

According to the theory, these leadership styles are not mutually excusive and leaders are capable of selecting more than one kind of a style suited for a particular situation.

Contingencies

The theory states that each of these styles will be effective in some situations but not in others. It further states that the relationship between a leader's style and effectiveness is dependent on the following variables:

- Employee characteristics: These include factors such as employees' needs, locus of control, experience, perceived ability, satisfaction, willingness to leave the organization, and anxiety. For example, if followers are high inability, a directive style of leadership may be unnecessary; instead a supportive approach may be preferable.
- Characteristics of work environment: These include factors such as task structure and team dynamics that are outside the control of the employee. For example, for employees performing simple and routine tasks, a supportive style is much effective than a directive one. Similarly, the participative style works much better for non-routine tasks than routine ones.
  When team cohesiveness is low, a supportive leadership style must be used whereas in a situation where performance-oriented team norms exist, a directive style or possibly an achievement-oriented style works better. Leaders should apply directive style to counteract team norms that oppose the team's formal objectives.

Conclusion

The theory has been subjected to empirical testing in several studies and has received considerable research support. This theory consistently reminds the leaders that their main role as a leader is to assist the subordinates in defining their goals and then to assist them in accomplishing those goals in the most efficient and effective manner. This theory gives a guide map to the leaders about how to increase subordinates satisfaction and performance level.

2 Shares
2

What is Path-Goal Theory?

The Path-Goal model is a theory based on specifying a leader's style or behavior that best fits the employee and work environment in order to achieve a goal. The path-goal theory can best be thought of as a process in which leaders select specific behaviors that are best suited to the employees' needs and their working environment so that they may best guide the employees through their path in the obtainment of their daily work activities (goals).

Origins & Theory

The Path-Goal theory, inspired by the work of Martin G. Evans (1970),[1] can best be thought of as a process by which leaders select specific behaviors that are best suited to their employees' needs and their working environment, so that leaders may best guide their employees through their **path** in the obtainment of their daily work activities (**goals**) (Northouse, 2013).

The theory argues that leaders will have to engage in different types of leadership behavior depending on the nature and the demands of a particular situation. It is the leader's role to assist employees in attaining goals and to provide the direction and support needed to ensure that their individual goals are in concert or compatible with the organization's goals.

Path-Goal theory identifies *achievement-oriented*, *directive*, *participative*, and *supportive* leader behaviors rooted in four (4 styles).

The Four Styles:

1. The *directive path-goal clarifying leader behavior* refers to situations where the leader lets employees know what is expected of them and tells them how to perform their tasks. The theory argues that this behavior has the most positive effect when the employees' role and task demands are ambiguous and intrinsically satisfying.
2. The *achievement-oriented leader behavior* refers to situations where the leader sets challenging goals for employees, expects them to perform at their highest level, and shows confidence in their ability to meet this expectation. Occupations in which the achievement motive were most predominant were technical jobs, sales persons, scientists, engineers, and entrepreneurs.
3. The *participative leader behavior* involves leaders consulting with employees and asking for their suggestions before making a decision. This behavior is predominant when employees are highly personally involved in their work.
4. The *supportive leader behavior* is directed towards the satisfaction of employees' needs and preferences. The leader shows concern for the employees' psychological well-being. This behavior is especially needed in situations in which tasks or relationships are psychologically or physically distressing.

How to use it:

If you have a good understanding of what the needs of the group are, then you can adapt to the styles as the situation demands:

- Achievement oriented works best when the staff suffers from lack of challenge and boredom.
- Directive leadership helps workers cope with otherwise vague and unclear job responsibilities.
- Participative leadership is effective in situations where the follower is making poor decisions or improper procedure and the leader can take steps to help them improve.
- Supportive leadership is useful with a team that is new, inexperienced, or otherwise lacking confidence.

Path–Goal theory assumes that leaders are flexible and that they can change their style, as situations require. The theory proposes two contingency variables, such as environment and employee characteristics, that moderate the leader behavior-outcome relationship. Environment is outside the control of the follower-task structure, authority system, and work group. *Environmental factors* determine the type of leader behavior required if the employee outcomes are to be maximized. *Follower characteristics* are the locus of control, experience, and perceived ability. Personal characteristics of employees determine how the environment and leader are interpreted. Effective leaders clarify the path to help their employees achieve goals and make the journey easier by reducing roadblocks and pitfalls. Research demonstrates that employee performance and satisfaction are positively influenced when the leader compensates for the shortcomings in either the employee or the work setting.

In conclusion The Path-Goal theory is useful because it reminds leaders that their central purpose as a leader is to help employees define and reach their goals in an efficient manner.

Sources:

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- www.nwlink.com/~donclark/leader/lead_path_goal.html
- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Path–goal_theory [1]

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Understanding the Model

The Vroom-Yetton model is designed to help you to identify the best decision-making approach and leadership style to take, based on your current situation. It was originally developed by Victor Vroom and Philip Yetton in their 1973 book, "**Leadership and Decision Making**."

No single decision-making process fits every scenario. Instead, Vroom-Yetton offers a number of different processes and directs you toward the best one for your situation. For example, if speed and decisiveness are required then it will likely point you toward an autocratic process. If **collaboration** is what's needed, then it will nudge you toward a more democratic process.

Researchers have found that managers are more effective, and their teams **more productive and satisfied**, when they follow the model. The simplicity of Vroom-Yetton also means that anyone – from the boardroom to the factory floor – can use it.

Although a little long-winded at times, it can be particularly helpful in new or unusual situations. Practice using it, and you'll quickly get a feel for the right approach to take, whether you're making a decision about a day-to-day issue or dealing with a more complex problem.

Before you start using the model, you'll need to consider these three factors:

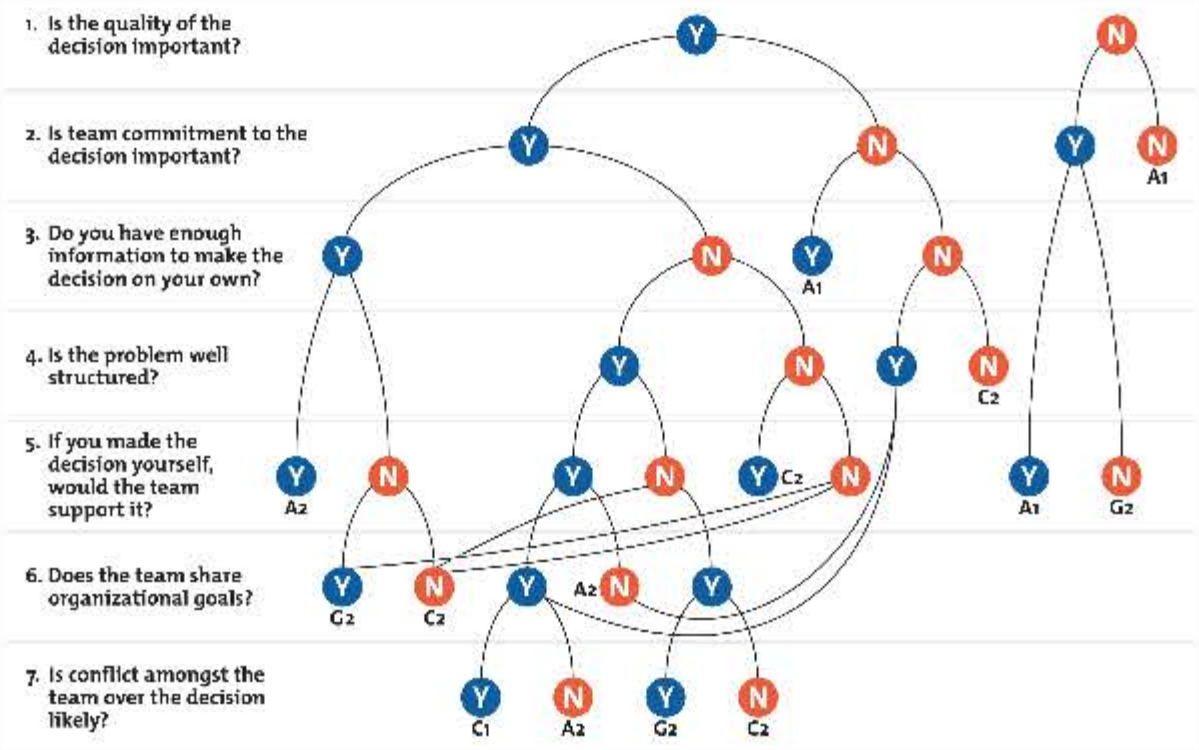
- **Decision quality** – Sometimes, making the "right" decision is critical, and you'll need to use a large number of resources (people, time, information, and so on) to ensure that the action you take has been well thought through and is of high quality.
- **Team commitment** – Some of your decisions will have a major impact on your team, while others will go unnoticed. When a decision will likely impact your team, it's best to use a collaborative process. This will improve the quality of the decision, and you'll likely deliver a successful result faster.
- **Time constraints** – When the issue at hand isn't time sensitive, you have more "space" to research your options and to include others, which will help to boost the quality of your decision. If your time is limited, however, it may not be feasible to include others or to undertake thorough research.

Specific Leadership Processes

Figure 1, below, shows the Vroom-Yetton model. The framework poses seven "yes/no" questions, which you need to answer to find the best decision-making process for your situation.

As you answer each of the questions, you work your way through a decision tree until you arrive at a code (A1, A2, C1, C2, or G2). This code identifies the best decision-making process for you and your team. (Note that, in some scenarios, you won't need to answer all of the questions.)

Figure 1: The Vroom-Yetton Decision Model



The Vroom-Yetton Decision Tree: Adapted from Leadership and Decision Making by Victor H. Vroom and Philip W. Yetton by permission of the University of Pittsburgh Press. Copyright © 1973 University of Pittsburgh Press.

Download Diagram

The following codes represent the five decision-making processes that are described by the model:

Autocratic (A1): You use the information that you already have to make the decision, without requiring any further input from your team.

Autocratic (A2): You consult your team to obtain specific **information** that you need, and then you make the final decision.

Consultative (C1): You inform your team of the situation and ask for members' opinions individually, but you don't bring the group together for a discussion. You make the final decision.

Consultative (C2): You get your team together for a group discussion about the issue and to seek their suggestions, but you still make the final decision by yourself.

Collaborative (G2): You work with your team to reach a group **consensus**. Your role is mostly facilitative, and you help team members to reach a decision that they all agree on.

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In general, a consultative or collaborative style is most appropriate when:

- You need information from others to solve a problem.
- The problem can't be easily defined.
- Team members' buy-in to the decision is important.
- You have enough time available to manage a group decision.

An autocratic style is most appropriate when:

- You have greater expertise on the subject than others.
- You are confident about acting alone.
- The team will accept your decision.
- There is little time available.

Note:

Vroom-Yetton is a useful model, but it's not necessarily appropriate for all eventualities. It misses out several important considerations, and its rigid structure means that it fails to take into account subtleties, such as the **emotions** and **dynamics** of your team, and the task's complexity. The seven questions are imprecise, too – "importance" and "quality," for example, are vague terms – and it can be difficult to give straight "yes" or "no" answers to them.

Vroom and Arthur Jago addressed these weaknesses and amended the original model in their 1988 book, "**The New Leadership**." The newer model is more complex and includes several additional questions, which allow users to take other constraints, such as geographic location, into account when making their decision. It also uses a mathematical formula to help people to pinpoint the optimum decision-making process for their situation. The newer version of the model is often referred to as either Vroom-Jago or Vroom-Yetton-Jago.

Key Points

The underlying assumption of the Vroom-Yetton Decision Model is that no single leadership style or decision-making process fits all situations.

To find the process best suited to your situation, you need to consider a number of factors. These include time constraints, the level of team participation required, and the quality of the final decision.

The model walks you through these factors logically, to help you to identify the most appropriate process and style. It is particularly useful for managers and leaders who are trying to balance the benefits of participative management with the need to make decisions effectively.

Hersey-Blanchard Model

By WILL KENTON | Reviewed By AMY DRURY | Updated Sep 28, 2020

What Is the Hersey-Blanchard Model?

The Hersey-Blanchard Model suggests no single leadership style is better than another. Instead of focusing on workplace factors, the model suggests leaders adjust their styles to those they lead and their abilities.

Under the model, successful leadership is both task-relevant and relationship-relevant. It is an adaptive, flexible style, whereby leaders are encouraged to consider their followers—individuals or a team—then consider the factors that impact the work environment before choosing how they will lead. This ensures they will meet their goals.

The Hersey-Blanchard Model is also referred to as the Situational Leadership Model or Theory.

KEY TAKEAWAYS

- The Hersey-Blanchard Model suggests no leadership style is better than another.
- The model suggests managers adapt their leadership style to tasks and relationships in the workplace.
- The model's leadership styles are related directly to the different maturity categories of followers or employees.

Understanding the Hersey-Blanchard Model

The Hersey-Blanchard Model, or situational leadership style, was developed by author Paul Hersey and leadership expert Ken Blanchard, author of *The One Minute Manager*. The model is not a static leadership style. Instead, it is flexible, wherein the manager adapts their management style to various factors in the workplace, including their relationship with employees.

That means managers who live by the model must choose the leadership style as it relates to the maturity of followers. For example, if follower maturity is high, the model suggests the leader provide minimal guidance. By contrast, if follower maturity is low, the manager may need to provide explicit directions and supervise work closely in order to ensure the group has clarity on their goals and how they are expected to achieve them.

The maturity level of followers is divided into three categories: high, moderate and low. High maturity includes highly capable and confident individuals who are experienced and work well on their own. Moderate maturity is generally divided into two groups: the first are employees who are capable but lack enough confidence to take on the responsibility to do so, and the second group has the confidence but is not willing to do the task at hand. Low maturity employees are not skilled enough to do the task but are very enthusiastic.

Important: Because the Hersey-Blanchard model depends on a leader's decision-making skills, it uses an individualistic rather than a group approach.

Special Considerations

Hersey-Blanchard Model and Leadership Styles

Hersey and Blanchard developed four types of leadership styles based on the task and relationships that leaders experience in the workplace. According to the model, the following are styles of leadership managers can use:

- **Delegating style**: A low-task, low-relationship style wherein the leader allows the group to take responsibility for task decisions. This is best used with high maturity followers.
- **Participating style**: A low-task, high-relationship style that emphasizes shared ideas and decisions. Managers can use this style with moderate followers who are experienced but may lack the confidence to do the tasks assigned.
- **Selling style**: A high-task, high-relationship style in which the leader attempts to sell their ideas to the group by explaining task directions in a persuasive manner. This, too, is used with moderate followers. Unlike the previous style, these followers have the ability but are unwilling to do the job.
- **Telling style**: A high-task, low-relationship style wherein the leader gives explicit directions and supervises work closely. This style is geared toward low maturity followers.

Applying the Model and Its Limitations

This leadership method lets executives, managers and other positions of authority take charge of their followers based on the acumen, understanding and context of the group. By taking into consideration how the strengths, weaknesses and awareness of the followers can affect performance and outcomes of a project, leaders can apply an appropriate structure and degree of control to achieve the desired result.

There are limitations to the model that may be beyond the leader's control. The position and authority of the leader may be restricted by the operational chain-of-command or hierarchy for an organization, which could force them to adopt rigid styles rather than adapt to follower maturity. Furthermore, time constraints, a narrow field of options, and limits on available assets can also force managers to act based on the circumstances they face, eliminating the possibility of enacting strategies built around follower maturity.

Advantages and Disadvantages of the Hersey-Blanchard Model

Although this leadership model may be sound in theory, it may not necessarily apply in every situation. It comes with advantages and disadvantages.

One advantage of an adaptive leadership style is leaders can change their style at their own discretion at any time. Secondly, employees may find a leader who adapts to shifts in the workforce as a desirable trait. It is also a simple and easy-to-apply leadership style, meaning a manager can quickly evaluate a situation and make decisions as they see fit.

On the downside, situational leadership may put too much responsibility on the manager, whose decisions may be flawed. Also, the model may not apply to every work culture. The model may also prioritize relationships and tasks, as opposed to a company's long-term goals.

Related Terms

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WHAT IS ORGANIZATIONAL DESIGN?

BY DR. ROGER K. ALLEN 22 COMMENTS

Organizational design is a step-by-step methodology which identifies dysfunctional aspects of work flow, procedures, structures and systems, realigns them to fit current business realities/goals and then develops plans to implement the new changes. The process focuses on improving both the technical and people side of the business.

For most companies, the design process leads to a more effective organization design, significantly improved results (profitability, customer service, internal operations), and employees who are empowered and committed to the business. The hallmark of the design process is a comprehensive and holistic approach to organizational improvement that touches all aspects of organizational life, so you can achieve:

- Excellent customer service
- Increased profitability
- Reduced operating costs
- Improved efficiency and cycle time
- A culture of committed and engaged employees
- A clear strategy for managing and growing your business

By design we're talking about the integration of people with core business processes, technology and systems. A well-designed organization ensures that the form of the organization matches its purpose or strategy, meets the challenges posed by business realities and significantly increases the likelihood that the collective efforts of people will be successful.

As companies grow and the challenges in the external environment become more complex, businesses processes, structures and systems that once worked become barriers to efficiency, customer service, employee morale and financial profitability. Organizations that don't periodically renew themselves suffer from such symptoms as:

- Inefficient workflow with breakdowns and non value-added steps
- Redundancies in effort ("we don't have time to do things right, but do have time to do them over")
- Fragmented work with little regard for good of the whole (Production ships bad parts to meet their quotas)
- Lack of knowledge and focus on the customer
- Silo mentality and turf battles
- Lack of ownership ("It's not my job")
- Cover up and blame rather than identifying and solving problems
- Delays in decision-making
- People don't have information or authority to solve problems when and where they occur
- Management, rather than the front line, is responsible for solving problems when things go wrong
- It takes a long time to get something done
- Systems are ill-defined or reinforce wrong behaviors
- Mistrust between workers and management

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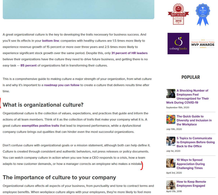
Organizational Culture: Definition, Importance, and Development

Kelly Wang
Content Strategist
Last Updated: August 26, 2020



A great organizational culture is the key to developing the skills necessary for business success. But what is the definition of your better workplace culture? Companies with strong cultures report 4 times higher revenue growth, 40 percent less intent to leave within three years and 2.5 times more likely to experience significant stock growth over the same period. Despite this, only **39 percent of HR leaders** believe their organizations have the culture they need to drive future business success, and getting there is a very task — **89 percent** of organizations fail in transforming their cultures.

This is a comprehensive guide to making culture a major strength of your organization, from what culture is and why it's important to a roadmap you can follow to create a culture that delivers results time after time.

What is organizational culture?

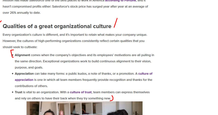
Organizational culture is the collective values, behaviors, and practices that guide and inform the actions of all team members. Think of it as the collection of traits that make your company what it is. A great culture **accomplishes** everything from creating a productive workplace environment, to a performance company culture brings out qualities that can lead to success over the most successful organizations.

Company culture with organizational goals in a mission statement, although both can help define it. Cultures created through consistent and authentic behaviors, are more powerful than any mission statement. You can easily determine what is in action when you see how of CEO responds to a crisis, how a manager responds to new customer demands, or how a manager corrects an employee who makes a mistake.

The importance of culture to your company

Company culture affects all aspects of your business, from employee retention to customer satisfaction and employee benefits. When employees cultivate values align with your philosophies, they're more likely to feel more comfortable, supportive and more productive. A strong workplace culture can also **another difficult** illness and changes in the business environment and come out stronger.

Culture is a key advantage when it comes to attracting talent and outperforming the competition. **77 percent of workers** consider company culture before applying, and **more than half of employees** would leave their current job for a newer paying opportunity at an organization with a better culture. Company culture also **improves employee retention and increases customer satisfaction** and one of the main reasons that around **two-thirds** (65%) of employees stay in their jobs.



Consider Microsoft and Salesforce. Both technology-based companies are wonderfully performance and optimized brands, and both rate their in-house culture by prioritizing culture. Microsoft, known for its cut-throat competitive culture under Steve Ballmer, has recently **transformed** by Satya Nadella, who took over as CEO of the company in 2014. He embarked on a program to refine the company culture, a process that opened unprecedented efficiencies in team of collaborative learning. Instead of pursuing disruptive strategies, employees were encouraged to improve themselves. Today Microsoft's market cap hits **$1 trillion** and it is again a powerhouse.

Salesforce also prioritizes culture **front and center** and has experienced incredible growth **throughout its history**. Marc Benioff, Salesforce's founder and CEO, has created a culture that is so successful that have published the company over the past two years. **60 new Salesforce employees** spend part of their first day volunteering with nonprofits. Benioff credits the success of the company to a culture that "focuses on learning and mission has made Salesforce one of the best places to work in America **according to Fortune**, and is transparent and profitable. Salesforce's stock price has surged over **ten times** over the past year at an average of over 24% annually to date.

Qualities of a great organizational culture

Every organization's culture is different, and it's important to make what suits your company unique. However, the cultures of high-performance organizations consistently reflect certain qualities that you should seek to cultivate:

- **Alignment** comes when the company's objectives and its employees' motivations are all pulling in the same direction. Organizational organizations seek to build consistency in their values, decisions, and goals.
- **Transparency** means having more a public book, a note of thanks, or a website of **appreciation** is now a vehicle of team members frequently provide recognition and thanks for the contributions of others.
- **Trust** is vital to an organization. With a culture of trust, team members can express themselves and rely on others to have their back when they're something wrong.
- **Performance** is key, as great companies create a culture **of high performance** where it. When employees, business employees respond well when it comes to value, and, as shown, greater productivity and productivity are the results.
- **Resilience** is a key quality in highly dynamic environments where change is continuous. A resilient culture will teach leaders to search for and respond to change with ease.
- **Innovation** leads organizations to be the most out of available technologies, resources, and contents, to, culture of innovation means, and, Salesforce, Microsoft, and Google are all companies that are known, **year over cultural initiatives**.
- **Psychological safety** provides the support employees need to take risks and provide forward thinking. Remember that psychological safety starts at the team level, not the individual level, so managers need to take the lead in creating a safe environment where everyone feels comfortable contributing.

Now that you know what a great culture looks like, let's tackle how to build one in your organization.

8 steps to building a high-performing organizational culture

Creating a great organizational culture requires developing and executing a plan with clear objectives that are in line with your company's goals. It's a process that should serve as a roadmap for building a culture that will stand the test of time.

1. Excel in recognition

Recognizing **the contributions of all team members** has a far-reaching, positive effect on organizational culture. Recognition strengthens the team relationships and reinforces the actions and behaviors that are in line that's part of a whole. Know the most valued employees want to know their work matters, and they want to know their work appreciated. **75 percent** of employees are emotionally recognized by experiers. **Experts** agree that when an organization makes appreciating employees part of its culture, employees feel more engaged, more productive, happier, and more **loyal**.

Making recognition **part of your culture** means it not be a regular occurrence, not something that is only reserved for major milestones or work anniversaries. Encourage team members to practice frequent social recognition, and provide tools to make it easy. Employees who receive recognition **are more likely to be remarkable business** because recognition drives them to reach higher levels, feel more motivated, more likely to increase stock price, have less stress, improve NPS scores, and feel more likely to depart individual **recognition**.

Monetary recognition is valuable as well. Consider a points-based recognition program that will allow employees to easily build up substantial point balances. They'll enjoy looking forward to redeeming their points for a reward that's personally meaningful to them, rather than being handed a generic mug or a piece of service award that will **gather dust on a shelf**.

To foster other cultural traits, recognition should also be clearly tied to company values and specific actions. After all, **80 percent** of employees agree when they're recognized for a specific action, they're more likely to take that action again in the future.

Last but not least, **leadership needs to take center stage** in your recognition efforts, as they're the cultural trendsetters for your entire company. Incorporate a recognition task into your leadership training and share tips with managers on how to recognize others and why it matters.

2. Enable employee voice

Creating a culture that values feedback and encourages employee voice is essential. It's time to do so can lead to **lower overall dissatisfaction** and **turnover**.

First, you need to collect feedback using the right **listening tools** that make it easy for employees to express what they're feeling in the moment, like **pulse surveys** and **workplace chatbots**. Then analyze the results for a overall sentiment and what tool to your organization, and so these findings settle they're still relevant. Not only does this strengthen your culture, it leads to **benefits** like higher employee retention, better customer satisfaction, and better business results. Employee feedback also provides a measurable business impact, and Gallup found that **5% organizations** with managers who received feedback on their strengths showed **8.9 percent** greater profitability.

In addition to gathering feedback using the methods described above, make sure you're paying attention to more subtle expressions of feedback and take cues from cultural deficiencies. For example, pay attention to body language, as it can tell you much even when employees aren't willing to share. If you're working with **remote teams**, video conferences can help provide the nonverbal channel of communication again. Managers should lead all their sessions with employees as opportunities to gather and respond to feedback and act on it based cues.

3. Make your leaders culture advocates

Your company's success in building a strong workplace culture rests in the hands of team leaders and managers. For example, if your company values practice collaboration and your leadership doesn't demonstrate it, your — or even displays behaviors that go against them — it undermines the company culture. Leaders are the ones who set the tone for the rest of the organization. They may even **unconsciously negative behaviors** because they believe those behaviors have been rewarded by management.

Your leadership team can help build the culture you need by prioritizing it in every **aspect of their work** daily. They must be open and transparent, discuss the organization's goals and values, and they should also be prepared to incorporate feedback from employees into their cultural advocacy efforts. Leaders benefit employees' perspective — after all, they're the people who have a different view of their organization than a well-communicated value system, only 31 percent of employees agree. When employees see leaders living your culture, they'll follow suit.

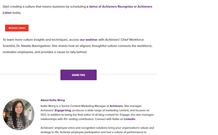
4. Live by your company values

Your company's values are the foundation of its culture. While creating a mission statement is a great start, it's important to incorporate your values into your day-to-day operations. Your company's values should inform every decision, from hiring to benefits programs, and even out of office initiatives. Employees, prospects, and customers will recognize and appreciate that your organization puts its values into practice every day. You can also recognize employees who exemplify your values, and let everyone know that they're more than just words and incentivize employees to build the **value-based culture** you want to see.

5. Forge connections between team members

Building a workplace culture that can handle adversity requires establishing strong connections between team members, but with increasingly remote and hybrid workplaces, creating these bonds can be challenging. Encouraging collaboration and engaging in **team building activities** — even and **including remote teams** — is one way to bring your team together virtually successfully.

Look for and encourage shared personal interests between team members as well, especially among those from **different departments**. This might otherwise have a difficult time relating to each other. You can create new pathways for understanding and empathy that are vital to improving communication, creativity, and even conflict resolution.



6. Focus on learning and development

Direct workplace cultures are formed by employees who are continually learning and companies that invest in staff development. **Training initiatives, coaching, and providing employees with new responsibilities** are a great way to show your team that you're invested in their success.

A culture of learning has a significant business impact. Fred Coursner **most recent benchmark study** found that companies with highly engaged employees were 13 times more likely to practice soft skills development. It also found that companies that had experienced increase employee engagement were 2.5 times more likely to use innovative learning methods and more than three times more likely to increase their learning and development budgets.

7. Keep culture in mind from day one

When an employee's perspective is formed around their company culture, internal discord is likely to be the result. Organizations should be intentional and mindful of culture by introducing process and beyond. Attention and processes must be taught, and values should be shared.

When hiring, ask **questions focused on cultural fit**. Be what matters to the interviewee and why they're attracted to working at your company. But these questions shouldn't be the only factors being taken into evaluating a candidate, as the best organizations keep an open mind to diverse perspectives that can help keep their cultures fresh.

You should also prioritize **building social relationships** during the onboarding process so that employees have the insight necessary to understand your company's culture and values. These relationships will test the compatibility of the culture within the company, so that cultures are not initially reinforced on a continuous basis.

8. Personalize the employee experience

As modern consumers, your employees expect personalized experiences, so you need to focus on ways to keep each team member satisfied with your culture. Both the pulse surveys and workplace journey mapping are great ways to discover what your employees value and what their ideal corporate culture looks like. Take action on these insights and tailor your actions to personalize the employee experience for your team. Once you start tracking your employees with the **same sake you keep your customers**, a culture that **motivates each individual of your organization** will develop.

Developing culture made easy

Organizational culture will develop even without your input, but in the absence of that guidance, it may not be ideal for productivity. Keep these three basic techniques in mind when developing your company culture: communication, recognition, and action. Keeping the steps in this guide, you can improve creating a culture of communication, recognition, and action, and ensure that all members of your team get your culture right into.

Your company can start practicing all three techniques with **Achievers Recognition** and **Achievers Listen**. Achievers Recognition allows managers to recognize their team members and social recognition and create rich and easy user experiences for employees. With Achievers Listen, employees can give you valuable feedback through checklists and pulse surveys, so you can see what aspects of your culture are working and what needs tweaking.

Start creating a culture that means business by scheduling a **demo of Achievers Recognition or Achievers Listen** today.

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About Kelly Wang
Kelly Wang is a Senior Content Marketing Manager at Achievers. She manages Achievers' Engage blog, produces a wide range of marketing content, and focuses on SEO. Kelly's passion for helping people and companies succeed has led her to specialize in relationships and the coaching profession. Connect with Kelly on LinkedIn.

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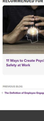
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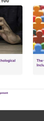
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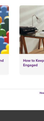
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Organisation climate

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Organizational climate (sometimes known as Corporate Climate) is a concept that has academic meaning in the fields of Organizational Behavior and I/O Psychology as well as practical meaning in the business world.[1] There is continued scholarly debate about the exact definition of organizational climate for the purposes of scientific study. The definition developed by Lawrence R. James (1943-2014) and his colleagues makes a distinction between *psychological* and *organizational* climate.

> "*Psychological* climate is defined as the individual employee's perception of the psychological impact of the work environment on his or her own well-being (James & James, 1989). When employees in a particular work unit agree on their perceptions of the impact of their work environment, their shared perceptions can be aggregated to describe their *organizational* climate (Jones & James, 1979; Joyce & Slocum, 1984)."[2]

Employees' collective appraisal of the organizational work environment takes into account many dimensions of the situation as well as the psychological impact of the environment. For instance, job-specific properties such as role clarity, workload and other aspects unique to a person's specific job have a psychological impact that can be agreed upon by members of the organization. Work group or team cooperation and effectiveness as well as leadership and organizational support are other dimensions of shared experience that factor into organizational climate. Surveys are the most common way of quantifying organizational climate. Aspects of climate that influence performance of specific sets of behaviors and outcomes can be measured, such as the *climate for safety* and the *climate for innovation*.

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Organizational climate versus organizational culture [edit]

Organizational climate and organizational culture are distinct concepts.[3] Climate and culture are both important aspects of the overall context, environment or situation. Organizational culture tends to be shared by all or most members of some social group, is something that older members usually try to pass on to younger members, and shapes behavior, structures, and perceptions of the world. Cultures are often studied and understood at a national level, such as the American or French culture. Culture includes deeply held values, beliefs and assumptions, symbols, heroes, and rituals. Culture can be examined at an organizational level as well. The main distinction between organizational and national culture is that people can choose to join a place of work, but are usually born into a national culture.

Organizational climate, on the other hand, is often defined as the recurring patterns of behavior, attitudes and feelings that characterize life in the organization,[4] while an organization culture tends to be deep and stable. Although culture and climate are related, climate often proves easier to assess and change. At an individual level of analysis the concept is called individual psychological climate. These individual perceptions are often aggregated or collected for analysis and understanding at the team or group level, or the divisional, functional, or overall organizational level.

Approaches [edit]

There are two difficulties in defining organization climate: how to define climate, and how to measure it effectively on different levels of analysis. Furthermore, there are several approaches to the concept of climate. Two in particular have received substantial patronage: the cognitive schema approach and the shared perception approach.

The cognitive schema approach regards the concept of climate as an individual perception and cognitive representation of the work environment. From this perspective climate assessments should be conducted at an individual level.

The shared perception approach emphasizes the importance of shared perceptions as underpinning the notion of climate.[5] Organisational climate has also been defined as "the shared perception of the way things are around here".[6] There is great deal of overlap in the two approaches.

Cognitive schema approach [edit]

Cognitive representations of social objects are referred to as schemas. These schemas are a mental structure that represents some aspect of the world. They are organized in memory in an associative network. In these associative networks, similar schemas are clustered together. When a particular schema is activated related schemas may be activated as well. Schema activation may also increase the accessibility of related schemas in the associative network. When a schema is more accessible this means it can more quickly be activated and used in a particular situation. When related schemas are activated, inferences beyond the information given in a particular social situation may influence thinking and social behavior, regardless of whether those inferences are accurate or not. Lastly, when a schema is activated a person may or may not be aware of it.

Two processes that increase the accessibility of schemas are salience and priming. Salience is the degree to which a particular social object stands out relative to other social objects in a situation. The higher the salience of an object the more likely that schemas for that object will be made accessible. For example, if there is one female in a group of seven males, female gender schemas may be more accessible and influence the group's thinking and behavior toward the female group member. Priming refers to any experiences immediately prior to a situation that caused a schema to be more accessible.

Shared perception approach [edit]

Some researchers have pursued the shared perception model of organizational climate. Their model identifies the variables which moderate an organisation's ability to mobilise its workforce in order to achieve business goals and maximise performance.[7]

One of the major users of this model are departments of the Queensland State Government Australia. These departments use this model of climate to survey staff in order to identify and measure those aspects of a workplace which impact on: stress, morale, quality of worklife, wellbeing, employee engagement, absenteeism/presenteeism, turnover and performance.

While an organisation and its leaders cannot remove every stressor in the daily life of its employees, organisational climate studies have identified a number of behaviours of leaders which have a significant impact on stress and morale. For instance, one Queensland state government employer, Queensland Transport, has found that increasing managers' awareness of these behaviours has improved quality of work life employees and the ability of QT's to deliver its organisational goals.

Climate surveys [edit]

Theories of cognitive and neuropsychology and emotional intelligence provide additional scientific rationale for why leaders should improve stress and morale in the workplace to achieve maximum performance. Climate surveys can provide concrete evidence of how this works in action.

Organisational climate surveying enables the impact of human resource (HR) strategies to be evaluated to create HR return on investment (HRROI) calculations. This data has been found to be highly effective in changing the perspective of people-based initiatives as being an "investment" rather than a "cost" and transforming HR into a "mission-critical strategic partner" from its perception of "personnel administration".

A number of studies by Dr Dennis Rose and colleagues between 2001-2004 have found a very strong link between organisational climate and employee reactions such as stress levels, absenteeism and commitment and participation.[8][9][10][11]

A study has found that Hart, Griffin et al.'s (1996) organisational climate model accounts for at least 16% single-day sick leave and 10% separation rates in one organisation.[12][13] Other studies support the links between organizational climate and many other factors such as employee retention, job satisfaction, well-being, and readiness for creativity, innovation and change. Hunter, Bedell and Mumford have reviewed numerous approaches to climate assessment for creativity. They found that those climate studies that were based on well-developed, standardized instruments produced far higher effect sizes than did studies that were based on locally developed measures.[14]

See also [edit]

- Adaptive performance
- Group dynamics
- Happiness at work
- Job performance
- Organization development
- Organizational culture
- Organizational studies
- Person-environment fit

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- Sample organizational client survey by Reliantt, at Zipsurveys.com

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Organizational climate definition: Everything you need to know

February 4, 2019 by Pierre Veyrat

HR

To understand what the organizational climate definition is we should begin by reading an interpretation from one of the most respected authors on Human Resources, Professor **Idalberto Chiavenato**:

> *"A set of measurable properties of the perceived work environment, directly or indirectly, created by individuals who live and work in this environment and that influences the motivation and behavior of these people."*

In this definition of organizational climate, we can note two striking features:

1. The organizational climate is a concept "perceived" by employees. Importantly, it is dependent on a value judgment which can vary greatly from person to person.
2. The organizational climate affects productivity, motivation and employee behavior.

Besides these two factors, it is interesting to note some others to understand fully what the organizational climate definition is.

An Organizational climate definition: What are the main features?

- It is a perception of the work environment.
- It is a "psychological atmosphere."
- It is a quick picture of the relationship between the organization and its employees.
- It is a set of properties that can be measured by the correct instruments.
- It is related to the quality and suitability of the work environment.
- It has to do with the support that employees feel they receive from the organization.
- The organizational structure strongly influences the organizational climate.
- The organizational climate is a reflection of the degree of employee motivation.
- It has positive and negative effects on people's behavior in the workplace.

When analyzing all of these features, the importance of maintaining a good organizational climate in the company is clear. However, how do you achieve this result? What do you need to do to ensure this?

Usually, the first step towards the improvement of the organizational climate is to do a "climate survey". After all, isn't an organizational climate just your employees' perception? For this reason, only with a survey can you understand what they perceive to be as positive or negative in the workplace.

However, some factors are recurrent and should be the subject of attention of anyone who is interested in maintaining a good organizational climate in your company.

Let's talk about some of them, but remember: only a climate survey can properly detail the perception of employees on these aspects.

See also: **Read about 25 sample Organizational climate survey questions here.**

Key Points for Creating a Great Organizational Climate

Now that you understand more about what the organizational climate definition is, it will be easy to see why it is important to pay attention to the following aspects within a company:

It is important to find out what factors have motivated or unmotivated employees

Sometimes simple actions have reactions far beyond what you think and can be an organizational climate degradation factor as much as a factor of improvement. For example, the desire to **reduce costs**, it is common for some companies to cut the coffee supply. However, often these 5 small minutes the groups spend chatting in the cafe between one task and another encourages integration and stress relief, and when lost, suddenly becomes an adverse effect on the climate of the organization.

Team spirit and unity of the group

It is a crucial factor. Be sure always to have a united team that takes pleasure in achieving common goals. One way to achieve this is through targets and clear and attainable goals. Also, it is always essential to give feedback on the results of initiatives and projects in progress, as well as **recognize the performance** of those who stand out.

See also: **Definition of 25 organizational climate survey questions.**

Publicize the mission, vision, and values of the company

Do the employees know what the strategic objectives of the organization are? Imagine how demotivating it could be not knowing exactly what it is your work and daily efforts are for and if they contribute to the achievement of the objectives of the company as a whole.

Keep your employees informed of the reason for the company, where it wants to go and what personal and corporate values it cherishes and encourages.

How is the delegation of tasks perceived?

It is a point that causes many conflicts, especially when working with competitive and motivated teams. And all of this motivation can be lost if employees do not understand the criteria used to choose who will take on the most important tasks, the most challenging projects or the most profitable accounts.

Make sure that the teams believe in the competence of its leaders

It has almost certainly happened at some point in your career: all employees under a particular director or manager consider them to be unfit to hold the position and only there because they are lucky, have contacts or are charming. Whether this is true for you or not, the organizational climate is a "perception" and when this happens in your organization you need to do something to change it.

As noted, what is a healthy and pleasant organizational climate for some employees, may not be for others. That is why we insist on the importance of conducting climate surveys.

To successfully manage this and other challenges of Human Resources, an agile and transparent **BPM system** can be of great help.

See also: **What is Human-centric BPM? Find out here.**

Also, find out about **Human Resource processes and their applicability to your organization here**

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Personnel Management

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- Handling Employees After Performance Appraisals
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Employee Stress - Strategies for managing stress at workplace

What is Employee Stress ?

Employees stress is a growing concern for organizations today. Stress can be defined as a lively circumstance in which people face constraints, opportunities, or loss of something they desire and for which the consequence is both unpredictable as well as crucial. Stress is the response of people to the unreasonable/excessive pressure or demands placed on them.

Stress is not always negative. It may also bring out the best in individuals at times. It may induce an individual to discover innovative and smarter way of doing things. This positive dimension of stress is called as eustress. But usually, the term stress has a negative implication and this negative aspect of stress is termed as distress. For instance - When a subordinate is harassed or warned by his superior, unhappiness of unsuitable job, etc. We can say that "Stress causes some people to break, and other to break records."

Symptoms of Stress

Some of the symptoms of stress at workplace are as follows-

- Absenteeism, escaping from work responsibilities, arriving late, leaving early, etc.
- Deterioration in work performance, series of error, poor work, memory loss, etc.
- Cribbing, over-reacting, arguing, getting irritated, anxiety, etc.
- Deterioration of health, more of accidents, etc.
- Improper eating habits (over-eating or under-eating), excessive smoking and drinking, sleeplessness, etc.

It is thus very essential to have effective stress management strategies in an organization so that the detrimental repercussions of stress on the employees as well as their performance can be reduced and controlled.

Sources/Causes of Stress

The factors leading to stress among individual are called as stressors. Some of the factors/stressors acting on employees are-

1. **Organizational factors-** With the growth in organizational stress and complexity, there is increase in organizational factors also which cause stress among employees. Some of such factors are-
   a. Discrimination in pay/salary structure
   b. Strict rules and regulations
   c. Ineffective communication
   d. Peer pressure
   e. Goals conflicts/goals ambiguity
   f. More of centralized and formal organization structure
   g. Less promotional opportunities
   h. Lack of employees participation in decision-making
   i. Excessive control over the employees by the managers
2. **Individual factors-** There are various expectations which the family members, peer, superior and subordinates have from the employee. Failure to understand such expectations or to convey such expectations lead to role ambiguity/role conflict which in turn causes employee stress. Other individual factors causing stress among employees are inherent personality traits such as being impatient, aggressive, rigid, feeling time pressure always, etc. Similarly, the family issues, personal financial problems, sudden career changes all lead to stress.
3. **Job concerning factors-** Certain factors related to job which cause stress among employees are as follows-
   a. Monotonous nature of job
   b. Unsafe and unhealthy working conditions
   c. Lack of confidentiality
   d. Crowding
4. **Extra-organizational factors-** There are certain issues outside the organization which lead to stress among employees. In today's modern and technology savvy world, stress has increased. Inflation, technological change, social responsibilities and rapid social changes are other extra-organizational factors causing stress.

Strategies for Managing Stress

Stress experienced by the employees in their job has negative impact on their health, performance and their behaviour in the organization. Thus, stress needs to be managed effectively so as to set off these harmful consequences. Strategies for managing stress are as follows-

Organizational strategies for managing stress

1. Encouraging more of organizational communication with the employees so that there is no role ambiguity/conflict. Effective communication can also change employee views. Managers can use better signs and symbols which are not misinterpreted by the employees.
2. Encourage employees' participation in decision-making. This will reduce role stress.
3. Grant the employees greater independence, meaningful and timely feedback, and greater responsibility.
4. The organizational goals should be realistic, stimulating and particular. The employees must be given feedback on how well they are heading towards these goals.
5. Encourage decentralization.
6. Have a fair and just distribution of incentives and salary structure.
7. Promote job rotation and job enrichment.
8. Create a just and safe working environment.
9. Have effective hiring and orientation procedure.
10. Appreciate the employees on accomplishing and over-exceeding their targets.

Individual strategies for managing stress

1. The employees should make a "to-do" list daily, prioritize the acts in the list and plan the acts accordingly. Take regular breaks during work to relax you. By effective time management, the employees can achieve their targets timely and can meet work pressures and, thus, avoid stress.
2. Do hard work. Strive to achieve your goals but do not do it to the harm of family, health, or peer.
3. Indulge in physical exercises. It helps in effective blood circulation, keeps you fit, diverts mind from work pressures.
4. Encourage a healthy lifestyle. Take a regular sleep, have plenty of water, have healthy eating habits, promote relaxation techniques such as yoga, listening music and meditation.
5. The employees should have optimistic approach about their work. They should avoid connections with negative approach employees.
6. The employees should have emotional intelligence at workplace. They should have self-awareness, self-confidence and self-control at workplace.
7. The employees should build social support. They should have close connections with trustworthy peer who can listen to their problems and boost their confidence level. This social network will help the employees to overcome stress.
8. Employee counselling is a very good strategy to overcome employee stress. Through counselling, employees can become aware of their strengths and how to develop those strengths; their weaknesses and how to eliminate them; and they can develop strategies for changing their behaviour. Employees are also given career counselling which helps in reducing their ambiguities with regard to career.
9. Find a fun way to release stress, such as, cracking jokes, playing tennis, golf, etc.
10. Do not remain pre-occupied with yourself. Turn your focus outwards. Help others. This will release some stress.

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Employee Stress and Performance

Employee Stress is negatively correlated to their work performance. In short, more the level of stress, lower is the performance. It was conventionally perceived that reasonable levels of stress would boost the employees and improve their work performance. But this perception no longer holds true. Today it is believed that even a little bit of stress will inhibit employees' work performance. This is due to:

Even relatively slight stress distracts an employee. People facing stress concentrate more on the repulsive feelings and emotions rather than on the work/job at hand and consequently their work performance suffers. Stress affects people's intellectual, emotional, and interpersonal functioning.

Extended or repeated exposure even to minor levels of stress may have detrimental effects on health and this might lower employee's work performance.

It has been researched that as stimulation increases, work performance initially increases, but after a point of time begins declining. The exact location of this variation point (at which the function's direction or trend reverses) appear to depend on the complication of the work/task/job being performed. The more the work complication, the less the stimulation levels at which a decline in performance occurs.

Employees under stress loose their creativity and innovativeness. Their thinking ability is narrowed.

But there are certain exceptions to the rule that stress interferes with work performance. For instance, some people are at their best in times of calamity / crises. They meet the expectations and show remarkable performance at times of great stress. This may stem out from the fact that they have great expertise in the tasks being performed, making their variation/reflection as very high. People who have exceptional skills and competencies at a task may cognitively evaluate a possibly stressful scenario as a challenge and not as a threat.

Thus, while concluding we can say that whether stress can spoil or increase performance is dependent on factors such as work complication, the skills and expertise of the employee in performing a task, personal traits of individuals/employees involved, etc. Organizations which encourage an open and honest communication develop an environment in which employees are less likely to be stressed out, enabling the employees to best utilize their abilities and skills and, thus, stimulating the employees work performance.

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Stress Management

While it may seem like there's nothing you can do about stress at work and home, there are steps you can take to relieve the pressure and regain control.

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Stress Symptoms, Signs, and Causes

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Stress at Work

The importance of managing stress

If you're living with high levels of stress, you're putting your entire well-being at risk. Stress wreaks havoc on your emotional equilibrium, as well as your physical health. It narrows your ability to think clearly, function effectively, and enjoy life. It may seem like there's nothing you can do about stress. The bills won't stop coming, there will never be more hours in the day, and your work and family responsibilities will always be demanding. But you have a lot more control than you might think.

Effective stress management helps you break the hold stress has on your life, so you can be happier, healthier, and more productive. The ultimate goal is a balanced life, with time for work, relationships, relaxation, and fun—and the resilience to hold up under pressure and meet challenges head on. But stress management is not one-size-fits-all. That's why it's important to experiment and find out what works best for you. The following stress management tips can help you do that.

Tip 1: Identify the sources of stress in your life

Stress management starts with identifying the sources of stress in your life. This isn't as straightforward as it sounds. While it's easy to identify major stressors such as changing jobs, moving, or going through a divorce, pinpointing the sources of chronic stress can be more complicated. It's all too easy to overlook how your own thoughts, feelings, and behaviors contribute to your everyday stress levels.

Sure, you may know that you're constantly worried about work deadlines, but maybe it's your procrastination, rather than the actual job demands, that is causing the stress.

To identify your true sources of stress, look closely at your habits, attitude, and excuses:

- Do you explain away stress as temporary ("I just have a million things going on right now") even though you can't remember the last time you took a breather?
- Do you define stress as an integral part of your work or home life ("Things are always crazy around here") or as a part of your personality ("I have a lot of nervous energy, that's all")?
- Do you blame your stress on other people or outside events, or view it as entirely normal and unexceptional?

Until you accept responsibility for the role you play in creating or maintaining it, your stress level will remain outside your control.

Start a stress journal

A stress journal can help you identify the regular stressors in your life and the way you deal with them. Each time you feel stressed, keep track of it in your journal or use a stress tracker on your phone. Keeping a daily log will enable you to see patterns and common themes. Write down:

- What caused your stress (make a guess if you're unsure).
- How you felt, both physically and emotionally.
- How you acted in response.
- What you did to make yourself feel better.

Tip 2: Practice the 4 A's of stress management

While stress is an automatic response from your stress nervous system, some stressors arise at predictable times: your commute to work, a meeting with your boss, or family gatherings, for example. When handling such predictable stressors, you can either change the situation or change your reaction. When deciding which option to choose in any given scenario, it's helpful to think of the four A's: avoid, alter, adapt, or accept.

The four A's – Avoid, Alter, Adapt & Accept

Avoid unnecessary stress

It's not healthy to avoid a stressful situation that needs to be addressed, but you may be surprised by the number of stressors in your life that you can eliminate.

Learn how to say "no." Know your limits and stick to them. Whether in your personal or professional life, taking on more than you can handle is a surefire recipe for stress. Distinguish between the "shoulds" and the "musts" and, when possible, say "no" to taking on too much.

Avoid people who stress you out. If someone consistently causes stress in your life, limit the amount of time you spend with that person, or end the relationship.

Take control of your environment. If the evening news makes you anxious, turn off the TV. If traffic makes you tense, take a longer but less-traveled route. If going to the market is an unpleasant chore, do your grocery shopping online.

Pare down your to-do list. Analyze your schedule, responsibilities, and daily tasks. If you've got too much on your plate, drop tasks that aren't truly necessary to the bottom of the list or eliminate them entirely.

Alter the situation

If you can't avoid a stressful situation, try to alter it. Often, this involves changing the way you communicate and operate in your daily life.

Express your feelings instead of letting them go. If something or someone is bothering you, be more assertive and communicate your concerns in an open and respectful way. If you've got an exam to study for and your chatty roommate just got home, say up front that you only have five minutes to talk. If you don't voice your feelings, resentment will build and the stress will increase.

Be willing to compromise. When you ask someone to change their behavior, be willing to do the same. If you both are willing to bend at least a little, you'll have a good chance of finding a happy middle ground.

Create a balanced schedule. All work and no play is a recipe for burnout. Try to find a balance between work and family life, social activities and solitary pursuits, daily responsibilities and downtime.

Adapt to the stressor

If you can't change the stressor, change yourself. You can adapt to stressful situations and regain your sense of control by changing your expectations and attitude.

Reframe problems. Try to view stressful situations from a more positive perspective. Rather than fuming about a traffic jam, look at it as an opportunity to pause and regroup, listen to your favorite radio station, or enjoy some alone time.

Look at the big picture. Take perspective of the stressful situation. Ask yourself how important it will be in the long run. Will it matter in a month? A year? Is it really worth getting upset over? If the answer is no, focus your time and energy elsewhere.

Adjust your standards. Perfectionism is a major source of avoidable stress. Stop setting yourself up for failure by demanding perfection. Set reasonable standards for yourself and others, and learn to be okay with "good enough."

Practice gratitude. When stress is getting you down, take a moment to reflect on all the things you appreciate in your life, including your own positive qualities and gifts. This simple strategy can help you keep things in perspective.

Accept the things you can't change

Some sources of stress are unavoidable. You can't prevent or change stressors such as the death of a loved one, a serious illness, or a national recession. In such cases, the best way to cope with stress is to accept things as they are. Acceptance may be difficult, but in the long run, it's easier than railing against a situation you can't change.

Don't try to control the uncontrollable. Many things in life are beyond our control, particularly the behavior of other people. Rather than stressing out over them, focus on the things you can control such as the way you choose to react to problems.

Look for the upside. When facing major challenges, try to look at them as opportunities for personal growth. If your own poor choices contributed to a stressful situation, reflect on them and learn from your mistakes.

Learn to forgive. Accept the fact that we live in an imperfect world and that people make mistakes. Let go of anger and resentments. Free yourself from negative energy by forgiving and moving on.

Share your feelings. Expressing what you're going through can be very cathartic, even if there's nothing you can do to alter the stressful situation. Talk to a trusted friend or make an appointment with a therapist.

Tip 3: Get moving

When you're stressed, the last thing you probably feel like doing is getting up and exercising. But physical activity is a huge stress reliever—and you don't have to be an athlete or spend hours in a gym to experience the benefits. Exercise releases endorphins that make you feel good, and it can also serve as a valuable distraction from your daily worries.

While you'll get the most benefit from regularly exercising for 30 minutes or more, it's okay to build up your fitness level gradually. Even very small activities can add up over the course of a day. The first step is to get yourself up and moving. Here are some easy ways to incorporate exercise into your daily schedule:

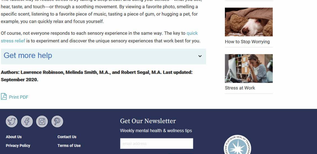
- Put on some music and dance around.
- Take your dog for a walk.
- Walk or cycle to the grocery store.
- Use the stairs at home or work rather than an elevator.
- Park your car in the farthest spot in the lot and walk the rest of the way.
- Pair up with an exercise partner and encourage each other as you work out.
- Play ping-pong or an activity-based video game with your kids.

The stress-busting magic of mindful rhythmic exercise

While just about any form of physical activity can help burn away tension and stress, rhythmic activities are especially effective. Good choices include walking, running, swimming, dancing, cycling, tai chi, and aerobics. But whatever you choose, make sure it's something you enjoy so you're more likely to stick with it.

While you're exercising, make a conscious effort to pay attention to your body and the physical (and sometimes emotional) sensations you experience as you're moving. Focus on coordinating your breathing with your movements, for example, or notice how the air or sunlight feels on your skin. Adding this mindfulness element will help you break out of the cycle of negative thoughts that often accompanies overwhelming stress.

Tip 4: Connect to others



There is nothing more calming than spending quality time with another human being who makes you feel safe and understood. In fact, face-to-face interaction triggers a cascade of hormones that counteracts the body's defensive "fight-or-flight" response. It's nature's natural stress reliever (as an added bonus, it also helps stave off depression and anxiety). So make it a point to connect regularly—and in person—with family and friends.

Keep in mind that the people you talk to don't have to be able to fix your stress. They simply need to be good listeners. And by not to let worries about looking weak or being a burden keep you from opening up. The people who care about you will be flattered by your trust. It will only strengthen your bond.

Of course, it's not always realistic to have a pal close by to lean on when you feel overwhelmed by stress, but by building and maintaining a network of close friends you can improve your resiliency to life's stressors.

Tips for building relationships

1. Reach out to a colleague at work.
2. Help someone else by volunteering.
3. Have lunch or coffee with a friend.
4. Ask a loved one to check in with you regularly.
5. Accompany someone to the movies or a concert.
6. Call or email an old friend.
7. Go for a walk with a workout buddy.
8. Schedule a weekly dinner date.
9. Meet new people by taking a class or joining a club.
10. Confide in a clergy member, teacher, or sports coach.

Tip 5: Make time for fun and relaxation

Beyond a take-charge approach and a positive attitude, you can reduce stress in your life by carving out "me" time. Don't get so caught up in the hustle and bustle of life that you forget to take care of your own needs. Nurturing yourself is a necessity, not a luxury. If you regularly make time for fun and relaxation, you'll be in a better place to handle life's stressors.

Set aside leisure time. Include rest and relaxation in your daily schedule. Don't allow other obligations to encroach. This is your time to take a break from all responsibilities and recharge your batteries.

Do something you enjoy every day. Make time for leisure activities that bring you joy, whether it be stargazing, playing the piano, or working on your bike.

Keep your sense of humor. This includes the ability to laugh at yourself. The act of laughing helps your body fight stress in a number of ways.

Take up a relaxation practice. Relaxation techniques such as yoga, meditation, and deep breathing activate the body's relaxation response, a state of restfulness that is the opposite of the fight or flight or mobilization stress response. As you learn and practice these techniques, your stress levels will decrease and your mind and body will become calm and centered.

Tip 6: Manage your time better

Poor time management can cause a lot of stress. When you're stretched too thin and running behind, it's hard to stay calm and focused. Plus, you'll be tempted to avoid or cut back on all the healthy things you should be doing to keep stress in check, like socializing and getting enough sleep. The good news: there are things you can do to achieve a healthier work-life balance.

Don't over-commit yourself. Avoid scheduling things back-to-back or trying to fit too much into one day. All too often, we underestimate how long things will take.

Prioritize tasks. Make a list of tasks you have to do, and tackle them in order of importance. Do the high-priority items first. If you have something particularly unpleasant or stressful to do, get it over with early. The rest of your day will be more pleasant as a result.

Break projects into small steps. If a large project seems overwhelming, make a step-by-step plan. Focus on one manageable step at a time, rather than taking on everything at once.

Delegate responsibility. You don't have to do it all yourself, whether at home, school, or on the job. If other people can take care of the task, why not let them? Let go of the desire to control or oversee every little step. You'll be letting go of unnecessary stress in the process.

Tip 7: Maintain balance with a healthy lifestyle

In addition to regular exercise, there are other healthy lifestyle choices that can increase your resistance to stress.

Eat a healthy diet. Well-nourished bodies are better prepared to cope with stress, so be mindful of what you eat. Start your day right with breakfast, and keep your energy up and your mind clear with balanced, nutritious meals throughout the day.

Reduce caffeine and sugar. The temporary "highs" caffeine and sugar provide often end with a crash in mood and energy. By reducing the amount of coffee, soft drinks, chocolate, and sugar snacks in your diet, you'll feel more relaxed and you'll sleep better.

Avoid alcohol, cigarettes, and drugs. Self-medicating with alcohol or drugs may provide an easy escape from stress, but the relief is only temporary. Don't avoid or mask the stress at hand; deal with problems head on and with a clear mind.

Get enough sleep. Adequate sleep fuels your mind, as well as your body. Feeling tired will increase your stress because it may cause you to think irrationally.

Tip 8: Learn to relieve stress in the moment

When you're frazzled by your morning commute, stuck in a stressful meeting at work, or fried from another argument with your spouse, you need a way to manage your stress levels right now. That's where quick stress relief comes in.

The fastest way to reduce stress is by taking a deep breath and using your senses—what you see, hear, taste, and touch—or through a soothing movement. By viewing a favorite photo, smelling a specific scent, listening to a favorite piece of music, tasting a piece of gum, or hugging a pet, for example, you can quickly relax and focus yourself.

Of course, not everyone responds to each sensory experience in the same way. The key to quick stress relief is to experiment and discover the unique sensory experiences that work best for you.

Get more help

Authors: Lawrence Robinson, Melinda Smith, M.A., and Robert Segal, M.A. Last updated: September 2020.

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Employee Counselling: Meaning, Definition, Characteristics and Objectives

Author(s): Neha Sharma

Last Updated: Mar 11, 2022

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Employee counselling is a method of assisting an employee to cope with a problem that affects his performance. It is a method of helping employees to understand themselves and their problems so that they can take decisions and solve their problems by themselves. It is a method of giving advice to employees to help them to cope with the problems. It consists of talking about the problem with the employee and helping him to solve it.

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Employee Counselling: Meaning, Definition, Characteristics, Objectives
Definition
Characteristics of Employee Counselling
Objectives of Employee Counselling
Advantages of Employee Counselling
Disadvantages of Employee Counselling
Types of Employee Counselling
Process of Employee Counselling
Conclusion

Employee Counselling: Meaning, Definition, Characteristics, Objectives

Definition

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Conclusion

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WHAT IS CHANGE MANAGEMENT?

Quality Glossary Definition: Change management

Change management is defined as the methods and manners in which a company describes and implements change within both its internal and external processes. This includes preparing and supporting employees, establishing the necessary steps for change, and monitoring pre- and post-change activities to ensure successful implementation.

Significant organizational change can be challenging. It often requires many levels of cooperation and may involve different independent entities within an organization. Developing a structured approach to change is critical to help ensure a beneficial transition while mitigating disruption.

Changes usually fail for human reasons: the promoters of the change did not attend to the healthy, real and predictable reactions of normal people to disturbance of their routines. Effective communication is one of the most important success factors for effective change management. All involved individuals must understand the progress through the various stages and see results as the change cascades.

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HOW TO IMPLEMENT CHANGE MANAGEMENT

1. Define the change.
2. Select the change management team.
3. Identify management sponsorship and secure commitment.
4. Develop implementation plan including metrics.
5. Implement the change—in stages, if possible.
6. Collect and analyze data.
7. Quantify gaps and understand resistance.
8. Modify the plan as needed and loop back to the implementation step.

TUTORIAL FOR OVERCOMING RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

Resistance to change can be defined as any obstacle that becomes an impediment to implementing change. The source of resistance is often individuals or groups, but it can also be systems or processes that are outdated or that fail to fit current business conditions.

Figure 1 depicts the elements of a change management model and the sequence in which they occur.

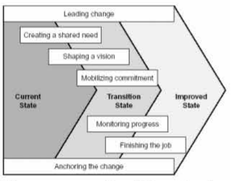

Figure 1 Change management model for making change work

In the center of the change management model figure, all changes move from the current state, through a transition phase, and into the desired improvement state.

- In the beginning, it is important to create, or affirm, a broadly understood need for the change (creating a shared need).
- It is equally important to create and share an idea of what the outcome will look like (shaping a vision).
- Throughout the change effort, there must always be sufficient resources dedicated to it (mobilizing commitment).
- There must be a way to track the change efforts (monitoring progress).
- A person or team must ensure that the change reaches completion (finishing the job).
- From the very beginning until the end, the change effort must have the backing of management, and leadership from an accountable person or people (leading change).

1. Leading change

1. Leading change
The change effort has a champion who sponsors the change, provides adequate resources, develops management support, and supports the goal with words and deeds.

2. Creating a shared need
The reason for a change, whether driven by threat or opportunity, is instilled within the organization and widely shared through data, demonstration, demand, or diagnosis. The need for change must exceed its resistance.

3. Shaping a vision
The desired outcome of change is clear, legitimate, widely understood, and shared.

4. Mobilizing commitment
There is a strong commitment from key constituents to invest in the change, make it work, and demand and receive management attention.

5. Monitoring progress
Progress is real, benchmarks set and realized, and indicators established to guarantee accountability.

6. Finishing the job
Once change is started, it endures and flourishes. Necessary learning and skills are transferred throughout the organization.

7. Anchoring the change in systems and structures
Appropriate management systems, such as information technology, performance reviews, and audits, are used to reinforce and anchor the change.

7. Anchoring the change

Figure 2 Elements of the change management model

CHANGE MANAGEMENT RESOURCES

The Human Side of Change Leadership (PDF) Identify potential resistance to planned changes and design motivation into the new process.

15 Waste Scenarios (PDF) Fifteen scenarios of waste are possible when an effective model is not used to facilitate effective change.

Driving Performance Results at American Express (PDF) The American Express Change Process, a change model applied in the launch of Six Sigma, shows how addressing human variables makes project initiatives work.

Adapted from *Making Change Work: Practical Tools for Overcoming Human Resistance to Change*, ASQ Quality Press.

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Organizational Development

An objective-based methodology used to initiate a change of systems in an entity

What Is Organizational Development?

Organizational development can be defined as an objective-based methodology used to initiate a change of systems in an entity. Organizational development is achieved through a shift in communication processes or their supporting structure. Studying the behavior of employees enables professionals to examine and observe the work environment and anticipate change, which is then effected to accomplish sound organizational development.

Benefits of Organizational Development

Increasing productivity and efficiency comes with many benefits. One of the best ways to encourage positive results in these metrics is by using a well-thought-out organizational development structure. Organizational development is used to equip an organization with the right tools so that it can adapt and respond positively (profitably) to changes in the market. The benefits of organizational development include the following:

1. Continuous development

Entities that participate in organizational development continually develop their business models. Organizational development creates a constant pattern of improvement in which strategies are developed, evaluated, implemented, and assessed for results and quality.

In essence, the process builds a favorable environment in which a company can embrace change, both internally and externally. The change is leveraged to encourage periodic renewal.

2. Increased horizontal and vertical communication

Of considerable merit to organizational development is effective communication, interaction, and feedback in an organization. An efficient communication system aligns employees with the company's goals, values, and objectives.

An open communication system enables employees to understand the importance of change in an organization. Active organizational development increases communication in an organization, with feedback shared continuously to encourage improvement.

3. Employee growth

Organizational development places significant emphasis on effective communication, which is used to encourage employees to effect necessary change. Many industry changes require employee development programs. As a result, many organizations are working toward improving the skills of their employees to equip them with more market-relevant skills.

4. Enhancement of products and services

Innovation is one of the main benefits of organizational development and is a key contributing factor to the improvement of products and services. One approach to change is employee development – a critical focal point is a reward for motivation and success.

Successful engagement of employees leads to increased innovation and productivity. Through competitive analysis, consumer expectations, and market research, organizational development promotes change.

5. Increased profit margins

Organizational development influences the bottom line in many different ways. As a result of increased productivity and innovation, profits and efficiency increase. Costs come down because the organization can better manage employee turnover and absenteeism. After the alignment of an entity's objectives, it can focus entirely on development and product and service quality, leading to improvements in customer satisfaction.

Organizational Development Process

A conventional approach in the organizational development process is the action research model. This model is used by many organizations to guide the OD process. It entails what its name describes – research and action.

However, there is much more to the OD process than just research and development. There are multiple loops used to transmit feedback, which makes an organization more responsive to change.

Components of the Action Research Model

The action research model comprises six key components:

1. Problem diagnosis

The organization development process begins by recognizing problems. The method of diagnosis usually takes the form of data gathering, assessment of cause, as well as an initial investigation to ascertain options.

2. Feedback and assessment

The feedback and assessment step often involves proper investigation of identified problems so that there is a deep understanding of the challenge at hand. This can include an appraisal of documents, focus groups, customer or employee surveys, hiring consultants, and interviewing current employees. Information gathered is used to re-evaluate the challenges in the first step.

3. Planning

Once an organization defines and understands its challenge, an action plan is put together. The plan lays down all the intervention measures that are considered appropriate for the problem at hand. Usually, the measures include such things as training seminars, workshops, team building, and changing the makeup or structure of teams. Additionally, measurable objectives, which define the expected results, form an integral part of the overall plan.

4. Intervention and implementation

Once a plan is in place, the intervention phase commences. Since the organizational development process is complicated, implementation processes are a key element of the model. As an example, if training classes are preferred over other methods, test results will form the basis upon which the training process is evaluated. The objective at this point is to ensure the required changes take place. If that is not the case, feedback is assessed and used to bring about the required change.

5. Evaluation

As soon as the intervention plan is complete, the outcome of the change in the organization is assessed. If the required change does not take place, the organization looks for the cause. Adjustments are made to ensure the obstacle is eliminated.

6. Success

Success denotes that the desired change took place. A proper plan and efficiency standards are put in place to ensure that the new switch is sustainable. Ongoing monitoring is needed to ensure that implemented changes last. Furthermore, as markets and organizations change, new problems can arise, leading to the push for further development. Great organizations evolve continuously.

Final Thoughts

Organizational development is essential, as it helps organizations transition into a more productive phase. Change helps in bring new ideas and ways of doing things, and it ensures that an entity is innovative and profitable.

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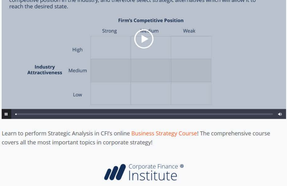

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Organizational Behavior

By CAROL M. KOPP | Updated Jun 25, 2019

What Is Organizational Behavior?

Organizational behavior (OB) is the academic study of how people act within groups. Its principles are applied primarily in attempts to make businesses operate more effectively.

1:09

Organizational Behavior

The study of organizational behavior includes areas of research dedicated to

Feedback

Emerging aspects of Organizational Behaviour:

- Managing Diversity.
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- Changed employee expectations.
- Globalization.
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The Role of Communication

Communication plays a key role in the success of any workplace program or policy and serves as the foundation for all five types of psychologically healthy workplace practices. Communication about workplace practices helps achieve the desired outcomes for the employee and the organization in a variety of ways:

- Bottom-up communication (from employees to management) provides information about employee needs, values, perceptions and opinions. This helps organizations select and tailor their programs and policies to meet the specific needs of their employees.
- Top-down communication (from management to employees) can increase utilization of specific workplace programs by making employees aware of their availability, clearly explaining how to access and use the services and demonstrating that management supports and values the programs.

Examples of communication strategies that can help make your workplace programs successful include:

- Providing regular, on-going opportunities for employees to provide feedback to management. Communication vehicles may include employee surveys, suggestion boxes, town hall meetings, individual or small group meeting with managers, and an organizational culture that supports open, two-way communication.
- Making the goals and actions of the organization and senior leadership clear to workers by communicating key activities, issues and developments to employees and developing policies that facilitate transparency and openness.
- Assessing the needs of employees and involving them in the development and implementation of psychologically healthy workplace practices.
- Using multiple channels (for example, print and electronic communications, orientation and trainings, staff meetings and public addresses) to communicate the importance of a psychologically healthy workplace to employees.
- Leading by example, by encouraging key organizational leaders to regularly participate in psychologically healthy workplace activities in ways that are visible to employees.
- Communicating information about the outcomes and success of specific psychologically healthy workplace practices to all members of the organization.

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Communication

Communications is fundamental to the existence and survival of humans as well as to an organization. It is a process of exchanging ideas and sharing ideas, information, views, facts, feelings, etc. among the people to reach a common understanding.
Communication is the key to the Directing function of management.

A manager may be highly qualified and skilled but if he does not possess good communication skills, all his ability becomes irrelevant. A manager must communicate his directives effectively to the subordinates to get the work done from them properly.

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Solve Questions

An e-mail message sent from the production supervisor to a customer is classified as _____

✓ Verified answer

_____ delegation goes by a stream of understanding between the superior subordinate.

✓ Verified answer

Which one of the following is a form of informal communication?

✓ Verified answer

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Communications Process

Communications is a continuous process which mainly involves three elements viz. sender, message, and receiver. The elements involved in the communication process are explained below in detail:

1. Sender

The sender or the communicator generates the message and conveys it to the receiver. He is the source and the one who starts the communication.

2. Message

It is the idea, information, view, fact, feeling, etc., that is generated by the sender and is then intended to be communicated further.

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- Elements of Direction
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- Leadership

3. Encoding

The message generated by the sender is encoded symbolically such as in the form of words, pictures, gestures, etc. before it is being conveyed.

4. Media

It is the manner in which the encoded message is transmitted. The message may be transmitted orally or in writing. The medium of communication includes telephone conversation, fax, letter, E-mail, Internet, Intranet, Extranet, Electronic Data Interchange, internet, post, fax, e-mail, etc. The choice of medium is decided by the sender.

Learn more about Types of Communication here in detail.

5. Decoding

It is the process of converting the symbols encoded by the sender. After decoding the message is received by the receiver.

6. Receiver

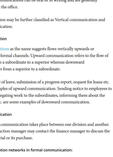
He is the person who is last in the chain and for whom the message was sent by the sender. Once the receiver receives the message and understands it in proper perspective and acts according to the message, only then the purpose of communication is successful.

7. Feedback

Once the receiver confirms to the sender that he has received the message and understood it, the process of communication is complete.

8. Noise

It refers to any obstructions that is caused by the sender, message or receiver during the process of communication. For example, bad telephone connection, faulty encoding, faulty decoding, inattentive receiver, poor understanding of message due to prejudice or inappropriate gestures, etc.



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Importance of Communication

1. The Basis of Co-ordination

The manager explains to the employees the organizational goals, modes of their achievement and also the interpersonal relationships amongst them. This provides coordination between various employees and also departments. Thus, communication act as a basis for coordination in the organization.

2. Fluent Working

A manager coordinates the human and physical elements of an organization to run it smoothly and efficiently. This coordination is not possible without proper communication.

3. The Basis of Decision Making

Proper communication provides information to the manager that is useful for decision making. No decisions could be taken in the absence of information. Thus, communication is the basis for taking the right decisions.

Learn more about Importance of Communication here in detail.

4. Increases Managerial Efficiency

The manager conveys the targets and issues instructions and allocates jobs to the subordinates. All of these aspects involve communication. Thus, communication is essential for the quick and effective performance of the managers and the entire organization.

5. Increases Cooperation and Organizational Peace

The two way communication process promotes co-operation and mutual understanding amongst the workers and also between them and the management. This leads to less friction and thus leads to industrial peace in the factory and efficient operations.

6. Boosts Morale of the Employees

Good communication helps the workers to adjust to the physical and social aspect of work. It also improves good human relations in the industry. An efficient system of communication enables the management to motivate, influence and satisfy the subordinates which in turn boosts their morale and keeps them motivated.

Types of Communication

1. Formal Communication

Formal communications are the one which flows through the official channels designed in the organizational chart. It may take place between a superior and a subordinate, a subordinate and a superior or among the same cadre employees or managers. Communication may be in a lateral or among the same cadre employees or managers. These communications can be oral or in writing and are generally recorded and filed in the office.

Formal communication may be further classified as Vertical communication and Horizontal communication.

Vertical Communication

Vertical Communication as the name suggests flows vertically upwards or downwards through formal channels. Upward communication refers to the flow of communication from a subordinate to a superior whereas downward communication flows from a superior to a subordinate.

Application for grant of leave, submission of a progress report, request for loans etc. are some of the examples of upward communication. Sending notice to employees to attend a meeting, delegating work to the subordinates, informing them about the company policies, etc. are some examples of downward communication.

Horizontal Communication

Horizontal or lateral communication takes place between one division and another. For example, a production manager may contact the finance manager to discuss the delivery of raw material or its purchase.

Types of communication networks in formal communication:

- **Single chain:** In this type of network communication flows from every superior to his subordinate through a single chain.
- **Wheel:** In this network, all subordinates under one superior communicate to him or not services, as, supervisors come to a supervisor communicate through him only. They are not allowed to talk among themselves.
- **Circular:** In this type of network, the communication moves in a circle. Each person is able to communicate with his adjoining two persons only.
- **Free flow:** In this network, each person can communicate with any other person freely. There is no restriction.
- **Inverted V:** In this type of network, a subordinate is allowed to communicate with his immediate superior as well as his superior's superior also. However, in the latter case, only ordained communication takes place.

2. Informal Communication

Any communication that takes place without following the formal channels of communication is said to be informal communication. The Informal communication is often referred to as the 'grapevine' as it spreads throughout the organization and in all directions without any regard to the levels of authority.

The informal communication spreads rapidly, often gets distorted and it is very difficult to detect the source of such communication. It also leads to rumors which are not true. People's behavior is often affected by the rumors and informal discussions which sometimes may hamper the work environment.

However, sometimes these channels may be helpful as they carry information rapidly and, therefore, may be useful to the manager at times. Informal channels are also used by the managers to transmit information in order to know how the reactions of his/her subordinates.

Learn more about Vertical Communication here in detail.
Learn more about Horizontal Communication here in detail.

Types of Grapevine network:

- **Single strand:** In this network, each person communicates with the other in a sequence.
- **Gossip network:** In this type of network, each person communicates with all other persons on a non-selective basis.
- **Probability network:** In this network, the individual communicates randomly with other individuals.
- **Cluster Network:** In this network, the individual communicates with only those people whom he trusts. Out of these four types of networks, the Cluster network is the most popular in organizations.

Barriers to Communication

The communication barriers may prevent communication or carry incorrect meaning due to which misunderstandings may be created. Therefore, it is essential for a manager to identify such barriers and take appropriate measures to overcome them. The barriers to communication in organizations can be broadly grouped as follows:

1. Semantic Barriers

These are concerned with the problems and obstructions in the process of encoding and decoding of a message into words or impressions. Normally, such barriers result due to use of wrong words, faulty translations, different interpretations, etc.

For example, a manager has to communicate with workers who have no knowledge of the English language and on the other side, he is not well conversant with the local language. Here, language is a barrier to communication as the manager may not be able to communicate properly with the workers.

2. Psychological Barriers

Emotional or psychological factors also act as barriers to communication. The state of mind of both sender and receiver of communication reflects in effective communication. A worried person cannot communicate properly and an angry recipient cannot understand the message properly.

Thus, at the time of communication, both the sender and the receiver need to be psychologically sound. Also, they should trust each other. If they do not believe each other, they cannot understand each other's message in its original sense.

3. Organizational Barriers

The factors related to organizational structure, rules and regulations authority relationships, etc. may sometimes act as barriers to effective communication. In an organization with a highly centralized pattern, people may not be encouraged to have free communication. Also, rigid rules and regulations and cumbersome procedures may also become a hurdle to communication.

4. Personal Barriers

The personal factors of both sender and receiver may act as a barrier to effective communication. If a superior thinks that a particular communication may adversely affect his authority, he may suppress such communication.

Also read the remedies for overcoming the communication difficulties

Also, if the superiors do not have confidence in the competency of their subordinates, they may not ask for their advice. The subordinates may not be willing to offer useful suggestions in the absence of any reward or appreciation for a good suggestion.

Solved Question for You

Q. List the measures to improve communication effectiveness?

Answer: Measures to improve communication effectiveness are as follows:

1. Communication of Clarification of the idea.
2. Communication should be according to the needs of the receiver.
3. Consulting others before communication.
4. Awareness about the language, tone and body postures and gestures.
5. Convey information useful to the receiver.
6. Ensure proper feedback.
7. Follow up communications.
8. Be a good listener.

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Communications management

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Communications management is the systematic planning, implementing, monitoring, and revision of all the channels of communication within an organization, and between organizations; it also includes the organization and dissemination of new communication directives connected with an organization, network, or communications technology. Aspects of communications management include developing corporate communication strategies, designing internal and external communications directives, and managing the flow of information, including online communication.

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Communication management and project management [edit]

In project management, communication management must address the following questions:[1]

- What information needs to flow in and out of the project?
- Who needs what information?
- When is the information needed?
- What is the format of the information?
- Who will be responsible for transmitting and providing the information?

Weekly reporting method [edit]

One simple and popular communications method is called the weekly reporting method: every employee composes an e-mail report, once a week, including information on their activities in the preceding week, their plans for the following week, and any other information deemed relevant to the larger group, bearing in mind length considerations. Reports are sent to managers, who summarize and report to their own managers, eventually leading to an overall summary led by the CEO, which is then sent to the board of directors. The CEO then sends the board's summary back down the ladder, where each manager can append an additional summary or note before referring it to their employees.

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Negotiation

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

For other uses, see Negotiation (disambiguation).

Negotiation is a dialogue between two or more people or parties intended to reach a beneficial outcome over one or more issues where a conflict exists with respect to at least one of these issues. Negotiation is an interaction and process between entities who compromise to agree on matters of mutual interest, while optimizing their individual utilities.[1] This beneficial outcome can be for all of the parties involved, or just for one or some of them. Negotiators need to understand the negotiation process and other negotiators to increase their chances to close deals, avoid conflicts, establishing relationship with other parties and gain profit.[1]

Alternative dispute resolution
or **External dispute resolution**
Arbitration · Conciliation · Mediation · **Negotiation** · Collaborative law · Conflict resolution · Dispute resolution · Lawyer-supported mediation · Party-directed mediation · Restorative justice
V · T · E

It is aimed to resolve points of difference, to gain advantage for an individual or collective, or to craft outcomes to satisfy various interests. It is often conducted by putting forward a position and making concessions to achieve an agreement. The degree to which the negotiating parties trust each other to implement the negotiated solution is a major factor in determining whether negotiations are successful.

Signing the Treaty of Trianon on 4 June 1920. Albert Apponyi standing in the middle.

People negotiate daily, often without considering it a negotiation.[2][3][page needed] Negotiation occurs in organizations, including businesses, non-profits, and within and between governments as well as in sales and legal proceedings, and in personal situations such as marriage, divorce, parenting, etc. Professional negotiators are often specialized, such as union negotiators, leverage buyout negotiators, peace negotiator, or hostage negotiators. They may also work under other titles, such as diplomats, legislators, or brokers. There is also negotiation conducted by algorithms or machines known as autonomous negotiation.[4][1][5] For automation, the negotiation participants and process have to be modeled correctly.[6]

The ministers of foreign affairs of the United States, the United Kingdom, Russia, Germany, France, China, the European Union and Iran negotiating in Lausanne for a Comprehensive agreement on the Iranian nuclear programme (30 March 2015)

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Approaches to Negotiation

There are four different approaches to negotiation and the outcome of the negotiation depends on the approach. The various approaches to negotiation are as follows:

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Distributive Negotiation or Win-Lose Approach

This is also called competitive, zero sum, or claiming value approach. This approach is based on the premise that one person can win only at the expense of the other. It has the following characteristics:

(i) One side 'wins' and one side 'loses'.
(ii) There are fixed resources to be divided so that the more one gets, the less the other gets.
(iii) One person's interests oppose the other's.
(iv) The dominant concern in this type of bargaining is usually to maximize one's own interests.
(v) The dominant strategies in this mode include manipulation, forcing and withholding information.

Strategy to be used: In this mode, one seeks to gain advantage through concealing information, misleading or using manipulative actions. Of course, these methods have serious potential for negative consequences. Yet even in this type of negotiation, both sides must feel that at the end the outcome was the best that they could achieve and that it is worth accepting and supporting.

The basic techniques open to the negotiator in this kind of approach are the following:

- Influence the other person's belief in what is possible.
- Learn as much as possible about the other person's position especially with regard to resistance points.
- Try to convince the other to change his/her mind about their ability to achieve their own goals.
- Promote your own objectives as desirable, necessary, ethical, or even inevitable.

READ Characteristics of Negotiation and Steps of Negotiation Process

Lose-Lose Approach

This negotiation approach is adopted when one negotiating partner feels that his own interests are threatened and he does all he can to ensure that the outcome of the negotiation is not suitable to the interests of the other party as well. In the bargain, both the parties end up being the loser. This type of situation arises when the negotiating partners ignore one another's needs and the need to hurt each other outweighs the need to find some kind of an acceptable solution. This is the most undesirable type of outcome and hence this negotiation approach is best avoided.

Compromise Approach

This approach provides an outcome which is some improvement over the lose-lose strategy outcome. To avoid a lose-lose situation, both parties give up a part of what they had originally sought and settle for something less than that. A compromise is the best way out when it is impossible for both parties to convince each other or when the disputed resources are limited.

Integrative Negotiation or Win-Win Approach

This negotiation approach is also called as collaborative or creating value approach. It is superior to all negotiation approaches. It results in both the parties feeling that they are achieving what they wanted. It results in satisfaction to both the parties. It has the following characteristics.

(i) There are a sufficient amount of resources to be divided and both sides can 'win'

(ii) The dominant concern here is to maximize joint outcomes.

(iii) The dominant strategies include cooperation, sharing information, and mutual problem-solving. This type is also called 'creating value' since the goal here is to have both sides leave the negotiating feeling they had greater value than before.

READ What is Integrative Negotiation or Win-Win Approach

Since the integrative approach is most desirable, some of the guidelines to integrative bargaining are listed below:

- Orient yourself towards a win-win approach. Your attitude while going into negotiation plays a huge role in the outcome.
- Plan and have a concrete strategy. Be clear on what is important to you and why it is important.
- Know your Best Alternative to a Negotiated Alternative (BATNA).
- Separate people from the problem.
- Focus on interests, not positions; consider the other party's situation.
- Create options for mutual gain.
- Generate a variety of possibilities before deciding what to do.
- Aim for an outcome based on some objective standard.
- Pay a lot of attention to the flow of negotiation.
- Take the intangibles into account, communicate carefully.
- Use active listening skills, rephrase and ask questions and then ask some more

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Common questions
Understanding negotiations
Winning and losing
You as a negotiator
Your experience of negotiation
Your negotiating skills
Do you have a preferred negotiation style?
Your negotiating strategy
Possible negotiating strategy responses
Deciding whether or not to negotiate
Preparing for negotiations (before)
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Possible solutions
Preparing for the next negotiation (after)
The ten commandments of negotiation
Glossary
Want to know more?

Conducting negotiations (during)

There are four recognisable stages for you to notice during successful negotiations:

1. Engaging
2. Suggesting
3. Bargaining
4. Agreeing.

Of course, these stages don't always follow each other neatly and sequentially, so you'll need to be prepared to go back over ground that you thought you'd already covered.

1. Engaging

- Building trust
- Reviewing the history
- Agreeing the process and negotiating ground rules
- Mapping out the issues and context of the negotiations
- Setting the agenda.

2. Suggesting

Making speculative opening negotiating gambits:

- If you... we might be prepared to...

> ...perceptions are all that matter when it comes to deciding whether or not to accept an agreement.
>
> — Brad Spangler

3. Bargaining

Making a firm provisional offer:

- If you... , we will...

4. Agreeing and closing

- Agreeing the outcomes
- Summarising your agreement or contract **in writing** (the parties exchange drafts, check, and confirm the final written agreement or settlement)
- Setting the scene for next time you want to negotiate with each other.
- Shaking hands (if that is culturally acceptable) and celebrating a mutually beneficial outcome!

> **TIP**
>
> If you cannot agree at this stage, which would constitute a 'win-win or no deal' situation, and if you still wish to achieve a negotiated outcome, then you might try either to look for some sort of mediation or arbitration, or agree to make contact at some later stage.

What are the possible outcomes of negotiation?

Whatever the specific issue that is under negotiation, in terms of Stephen Covey's paradigms of human interaction, there are only five possible outcomes, of which the win-win outcome is the one to aim for.

ME	THEY
Win	Win
Win (no deal)	Win (no deal)
Win	Lose
Lose	Win
Lose	Lose

If you think you might want to negotiate with each other again in future, it is essential to reach some form of win-win or win (no deal)-win (no deal) outcome, even if there are differential gains for the different parties involved (see From win-win to lose-lose).

How can you overcome an impasse?

An impasse occurs in a situation where the respective parties become locked into seemingly-fixed positions from which they are not prepared to budge.

How can you seek to overcome apparent obstacles to reaching a negotiated agreement? You can use a combination of the following four methods.

1. Carry out a reality check – how strong is each party's negotiating position?
2. Create BATNAs, EATNAs and WATNAs (best-case, estimated and worst-case scenarios). Discuss these openly in order to determine possible options outside the negotiations.
3. Foster a greater understanding of the other party's views and feelings, in order to help them to overcome their unwillingness to negotiate with you. For example, sometimes you may need to help the other party to change their perception that your negotiating position is too strong or too weak.
4. Enlist the services of a mutually-acceptable third party to help you to break the deadlock.

Time out

We need to find opportunities to assess the situation, and choose an appropriate set of negotiating behaviours accordingly. Too often, people tend to adopt a fixed set of behaviours in every set of negotiations in which they're involved. Especially if strong feelings are aroused, this reflex reaction can prejudice the achievement of a satisfactory outcome. In other words, you may need a cooling-off period.

If you feel that you or the other party are becoming angry, frightened, frustrated or excited, that's often a good occasion to call for time out, so that you can decide what to do next.

You might call time out for a number of possible reasons:

- When you feel you have reached an impasse
- To regain control, if the discussion has become heated
- To generate ideas by asking 'what if' questions
- To run some reality checks
- To rehearse some possible dialogues
- To try to identify potential areas of agreement.

Arriving at a negotiated agreement

Especially if the matter under negotiation is a business deal, a critical moment will probably arrive at which you need to make the transition from an oral to a written agreement. What are the factors that you must take into account? Some of the most important are listed below, but there may be others that are case specific.

- Be sure you know who has the authority to sanction and sign the final agreement. Is it you, your boss or someone else?
- The agreement should cover the all the Kipling Questions, plus 'How much?'

> **The Kipling questions**
>
> I keep six honest serving men
>
> (They taught me all I knew);
>
> Their names are What and Why and When
>
> And How and Where and Who.
>
> — Rudyard Kipling, *Just-So Stories*, following 'The Elephant's Child'

- Include explicit monitoring and enforcement arrangements for ensuring compliance with the agreement
- Address any issues of confidentiality. (There might be some secret information or clauses, or classified business information that the parties agree must be kept securely under restricted access.)

What if you cannot reach a negotiated settlement?

Even if you decide to close the negotiations without an agreement (a win-win or no deal outcome), it's generally worth:

1. Declaring an impasse
2. Emphasising the positive aspects of the experience
3. Holding open the possibility of future talks.

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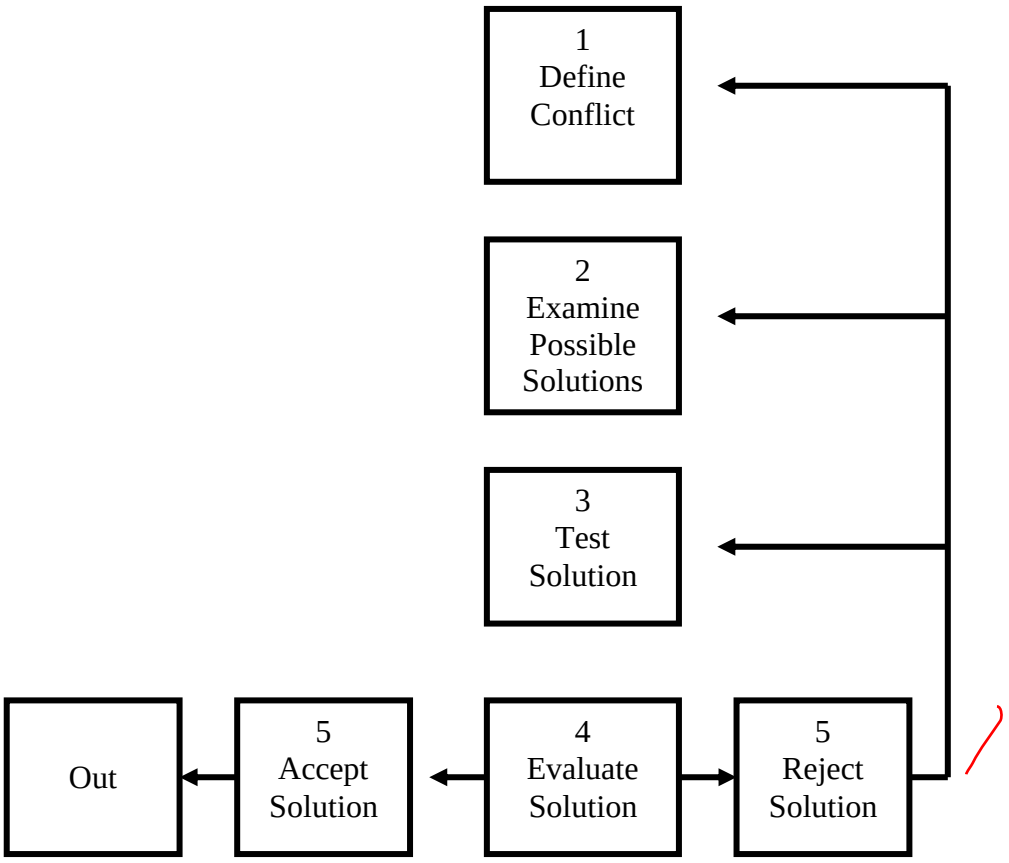
A MODEL OF CONFLICT RESOLUTION

The stages in Figure 11.1 explain conflict more fully and at the same time provide guidance in dealing with conflicts effectively. This model is based on the problem-solving technique introduced by John Dewey (1910) and used by most contemporary theorists (for example, Beebe and Masterson 1990; Patton, Griffin, and Patton 1989). The assumption made here is that interpersonal conflict is essentially a problem that needs to be solved. Begin at number 1 and work through the process of resolving conflict.

Figure 11.1
Stages of Conflict Resolution



Define the Conflict
Your first step is to define the conflict. This is the most essential step in the entire process of managing conflict. *Define both the content and the relationship issues*. Define the obvious content issues (who should do the dishes, who should take the kids to school, who should take out the dog) as well as the underlying relational issues (who's been avoiding household responsibilities, who's been neglecting their responsibilities towards the kid, whose time in more valuable).

Define the problem in specific terms. Conflict defined in the abstract is difficult to deal with and resolve. For example, the husband who complains that his wife is "cold and unfeeling" is defining the problem in such abstract terms that it will be difficult to reach agreement as to the conflict's nature, let alone to resolve it. Instead, define the conflict by identifying specific behaviours. It is one thing for the husband to say his wife is "cold and unfeeling" and quite another to say she does not call him at the office or kiss him when he comes home or hold his hand when they are at a party. You can agree on and deal with these behaviours. The abstract "cold and unfeeling" remains elusive.

Throughout this definitive process, try to understand the conflict's nature from the other person's point of view. *Exercise your perspective-taking skills.* Why is your lover disturbed that you are not doing the dishes? Why is your neighbour complaining about taking the kids to school? Why is your mother insisting you take out the dog?

Avoid attempting to read the other person's mind. Ask questions to make sure you *see the problem from the other person's point of view.* Ask directly and simply. For example, "why are you insisting that I take the dog out now when I have to call three clients before nine o'clock?"'

Whenever you think you understand the problem as seen by the other person, *check your perception again.*

Confirm the other person's definition of the problem. Let the other person know that you understand how she or he thinks and feels about the problem. Watch assuming that the other person will be able to tell whether or not you understand.

Let us select an example and work it through the remaining steps. This conflict concerns Raul and Julia and revolves around Raul not wanting to socialise with Julia's friends. While Julia is devoted to them, Raul actively dislikes them. Julia thinks they are wonderful and exciting. Raul thinks they are unpleasant and boring. Julia says these friends make her feel important and intelligent. For example, her friends frequently look to her for advice.

Examine Possible Solutions

Look for possible ways to resolve the conflict. Most conflicts probably can be resolved through a variety of solutions. At this stage try to identify as many solutions as possible.

Look for *win-win* solutions. Look for solutions that will enable both parties to win – to get something each wants. Avoid *win-lose* solutions. These solutions, in which one wins, and one loses will cause frustration and resentment.

In examining various solutions, carefully weigh the costs and the rewards that each solution will entail. Most will involve costs to one or both parties (after all someone has to take the dog out). Seek solutions in which the costs will be evenly shared. Similarly, seek solutions in which both parties share equally (or about equally) in the rewards. Once you have examined all possible solutions, select one and test it out.

Among the solutions that Raul and Julia identify are these:

1. Julia should not interact with her friends anymore.
2. Raul should interact with Julia's friends.
3. Julia should see her friends without Raul.

Clearly solutions 1 and 2 are win-lose solutions. In solution one Raul wins and Julia loses. In solution two Julia wins and Raul loses. Solution 3 has some possibilities. Both might win and neither must necessarily lose. Let's examine this solution more closely by testing it.

Test the Solution

Test the solution mentally. How does it feel now? How will it feel tomorrow? Are you comfortable with the solution? Would Raul be comfortable with Julia socialising with her friends without him? Some of Julia's friends are attractive unmarried men, is this going to make a difference? Would Julia be comfortable socialising with her friends without Raul? Will she give people too much to gossip about? Will she feel guilty? Will she enjoy herself without Raul?

Test the solution by putting it into operation. How does it work in practise? If it doesn't work, discard it and try another. Give each solution a fair chance, but don't hang on to one when it is clear that it won't resolve the conflict.

Perhaps Julia might go out without Raul once to try it out. How was it? Did her friends think there was something wrong with her relationship with Raul? Did she feel guilty? Did she enjoy herself? How did Raul feel? Did he feel jealous? Did he feel lonely or abandoned?

Evaluate the Solution

Did the solution help resolve the conflict? Is the situation better now than it was before the solution was put into operation? Share your feelings and evaluations of the solution.

Raul and Julia now need to share their perceptions of this possible solution. Would they be comfortable with this solution on a monthly basis? Is the solution worth the costs that each will pay? Are the costs and the rewards about evenly distributed? Might other solutions be more effective?

De Vito, Joseph A. (1993). *Messages: Building Interpersonal Communication Skills (2nd edition).* Harper Collins College Publishers: New York.

Perception Distortion

Meaning

- Perceptual distortions are incorrect understanding or abnormal interpretation of a perceptual experience. A perceptual distortion occurs when a persons responses to stimuli varies from how it is commonly perceived. Perceptual distortion can relate to either sensory or psychological disorders, medication or drugs, or physical damage to the brain or sensory organ.

Perceptual Distortion Types

- Personality
- Mental Set
- Attribution
- HALO Effect
- Stereotype
- First Impression

Personality

- Personality of the perceiver greatly influence the perception of other persons.
- Personality influence perception because of 2 reason
  - First, the perceiver tries to project his personality attributes in others, known as projection.
  - Second, the perceiver tries to fit his attitude, beliefs, expectation to reality known as process of self-fulfilling.

Mental Set

- Mental set is the tendency on has to react in a certain way to a given situation.
- In organization setting, people have tendency to perceive about others on the basis of this mental set which cause misperception.
- For ex. Suppose you are a contestant in a track meet and are positioning yourself in your starting blocks as you hear the preparatory command, get ready, get set when you hear the command, Go you take off at once since you are already set and ready to this command.

Attribution

- Attribution is the process by which we make sense of our environment through our perception of our causality.
- Why is that person so successful? Why did that project fail? If we understand the causes of success, failure and conflicts , we may be able to adjust our behavior and other factors accordingly.

Attribution Theory

To what do you attribute your performance?

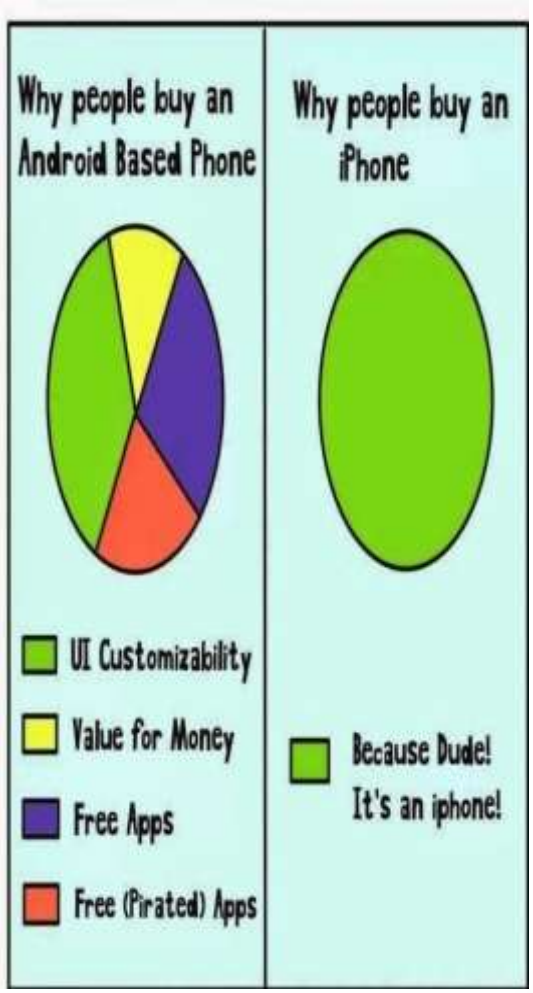
		Perceived Ability	
		High	**Low**
Performance	**Success**	Ability/Effort	Luck
	Failure	(Lack of) Effort	(Lack of) Ability

Cont..

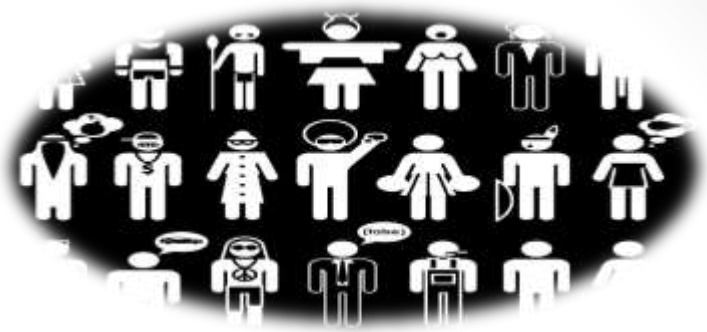
- Attribution is simply the process of attaching or attributing causes or reason to the actions and events we see. Causality is usually described in terms of internal causality and external causality.
- For ex. We may explain a particular individuals success or promotion with reference to his/her superior skills and knowledge (internal causality) or with reference to luck, 'friends in high places' and coincidence (external causality).

HALO Effect

- The term halo effect was used by the psychologist Edward Thorndike in 1920.
- A HALO Effect is a judgment based on a single striking characteristics such as an aspects of dress, speech, posture, or nationality. HALO Effect can be negative as well as positive.
- For ex. It is a natural human response on a meeting a stranger, to make judgment about the kind of person they are and whether we will like them or not.



Stereotyping



Stereotyping occurs when the perceiver judges or perceives a person on the basis of characteristics of the group to which he belongs.

- The person is not perceived as an individual with specific set of his characteristics but on the basis of his group characteristics.
- For ex. There are some stereotyping at the international level like; Japanese are industrious, Italian are quick tempered American are materialistic and ambitious.

First Impression

- It is very common that people evaluate others on the basis of first impression.
- The evaluation based on first impression may be correct if it is based on adequate and significant evidence.
- However, since first impression evaluation is not based on adequate information, it may not be true reflection of peoples being perceived.
- This can be corrected by more frequent interaction, though erasing of first impression evaluation is not that easy.

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