



ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR

Textbook

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COURSE INFORMATION

Course title: INTRODUCTION TO ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR

Course code:

Credit:

Type: Lecture

Contact hours/week: 2

Evaluation: Lecture: exam mark (five-grade)

Semester:

Prerequisites:

Learning Outcomes

a) regarding knowledge, the student;

- knows the role of individual differences in interaction and in organizations;
- knows the process and importance of communication and conflicts;
- knows the models of leadership and motivation;
- knows the importance of culture, the different models and their impact on cultural differences;

b) regarding competencies, the student

- is capable of skilful assertive communication;
- is capable of choosing the optimal conflict handling mode;
- is capable of applying the appropriate leadership style in a given situation;
- is able to build a team from a group;

c) regarding attitude, the student

- relates positively to problem solving and conflict handling communication styles;
- is capable of critically evaluating communication and conflict situations;
- relates positively to autonomous motivation and participative leadership styles;

d) regarding autonomy, the student

- works individually within several fields of the organizations with responsibility;
- prepares and presents team-related tasks and projects.



Requirements

Written exam during the examination period. Questions will cover the material of both the lecture and the seminar.

There are a few written mid-term tests during the semester and an opportunity is also provided to do a presentation in order to retake mid-term tests: once at the end of the semester.

Class attendance is not compulsory but recommended as well as continuous (weekly) learning and practice during the semester.

Grading

- 0-59%: fail
- 60-69%: pass
- 70-79%: satisfactory
- 80-89%: good
- 90-100%: excellent

INTRODUCTION TO ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR (OB)

Learning outcome of the topic:

The students will learn the definition of organizational behavior and know the topics of several disciplines that contribute to this topic.

The aim of this course is to understand how people behave in an organization. Most people at some point in their life work for an organization and are affected by their experiences in it. We think we have an intuitive common sense knowledge of human behavior in organizations because we have different work experiences. Sometimes our intuitions and common sense are wrong and we do not understand why people act the way they do. The study of Organizational Behavior helps member of organizations to understand the forces affecting their behavior and to make correct decisions about how to motivate coordinate and lead people to achieve organizational goals. Organizational Behavior complements knowledge based on intuition and common sense with well-researched theories and guidelines for managing behavior in organizations.

DEFINITION

Organizational Behavior (OB) deals with the study of factors that have an impact on how people and groups behave in organizations.

Several Disciplines that contribute to OB:

- psychology
- social psychology
- sociology
- anthropology

The topics of OB are the following:

- Models of personality
- Motivation
- Work groups and teams
- Communication in organizations
- Conflict in organizations
- Leadership
- Organizational culture
- Cultural differences in organisations

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES: MODELS OF PERSONALITY

Learning outcome of the topic:

The students will learn the definition of personality and know several psychological models of personality. They will be informed about the role of the psychological knowledge in their study of human nature. The different models of personality help in understanding how people differ from one another and how one can perceive and handle these differences.

Opening case

Procter & Gamble's "Wrecking Ball"

Edwin L. Artzt, Chairman of Procter & Gamble, has made revolutionary changes in how this computer giant markets its products. Perhaps most dramatic, however, are the internal changes he has brought about—changes that have earned him the nickname “Wrecking Ball”. Many of these changes reflect Artzt’s personal style and way of managing. Artzt has no patience for what he views as substandard performance. Stories abound of his demanding and harsh treatment of subordinates.

When Artzt was dissatisfied with the way managers were marketing Noxema skin cream, he indicated his disgust by asking them, “How could you people be so stupid to get into this mess?” He railed at them for more than half an hour until someone reminded him that Procter & Gamble had just acquired Noxema and the managers in question had been assigned to that product for less than two months.

When Artzt had a disagreement with managers in Taiwan concerning the launching of the Oil of Olay product line in that geographic market, he was reported to have called them “stupid” and “imbecilic” and supposedly went so far as to suggest that “You’d better be right, because if you’re not you’re all going to be cleaning toilets.”

Dissatisfied with the lack of foreign sales of the domestically successful shampoo product Pet Plus, Artzt railed against managers who claimed they lacked manufacturing capabilities and suggested they use a tent to produce the product. One manager involved in this incident said that Artzt certainly got them to increase production of Pet Plus and thus helped propel Procter & Gamble into the arena of global marketing.

Artzt appears to be just as demanding of himself as he is of the managers who report to him. During his forty-year climb up the corporate ladder at Procter & Gamble, he has worked in practically every division of the company. He approaches his work with exceptional intensity and pays close attention to detail. Artzt has been characterized as a workaholic who turns out vast quantities of work and gets involved in all aspects of a product such as Old Spice, from advertising plans to the color of packaging. He has been known to call his subordinates in the middle of the night about work-related problems, and he reads the 120 reports a month that they prepare.

Manager's reactions to Artzt have been mixed. Those who tired of Artzt's browbeating left Procter & Gamble and took positions elsewhere. Some of those who remained claim that Artzt pushes them to do their best. Others fear that his harshness prompts subordinates to concentrate on doing what he wants rather than coming up with their own creative ideas.

The marketing changes that Artzt has wrought at Procter & Gamble also have gotten mixed reviews. On the one hand he has been commended for getting rid of unprofitable products such as Citrus Hill orange juice and expanding Procter & Gamble's international sales and cosmetic lines. More than half of Procter and Gamble's sales are now from countries other than the United States, making it a truly global organization. On the other hand, Artzt's strategy of everyday low pricing has raised some eyebrows. In any case, his ability as a marketer is generally hailed, and the numbers confirm it. In 1994, Procter and Gamble made \$2.2 billion in profits, its highest level in twenty-one years.

What's your answer? (George, J. M. – Jones, G. M. 1996.)

1. Why does Procter & Gamble chairman Edwin L. Artzt act the way he does?
2. Why do managers who report to Artzt have different reactions to his demanding and sometimes harsh treatment?

The Nature of personality

You put two people in the same situation and, odds are, they'll react in a range of different ways. Some people might even react in a completely unexpected or extreme way. Why is this? In this lesson there is an insight into personality types and what makes them tick the way they do.

Psychology studies personality from a number of different angles. For example, some psychologists are interested in devising ways that personality can be accurately assessed. Psychologists also study personality disorders, or long-lasting patterns of thoughts, feelings and behaviors that deviate from relevant cultural expectations. So, for example, anxiety only becomes regarded as a disorder when it seems excessive compared to relevant cultural norms. Still other psychologists study personality traits, which are a person's typical ways of thinking, behaving and feeling.

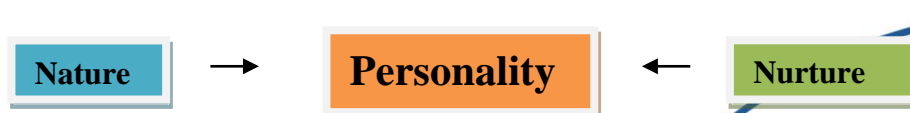
Personality can be formally defined as the pattern of relatively enduring ways (traits) that a person feels, thinks and behaves.

DEFINITION

Personality is the pattern of relatively enduring ways (traits) that a person feels, thinks and behaves. (George, J. M. – Jones, G. M. 1996. p. 35)

The question that has long fascinated psychologists is: what are the origins of our personalities? Is personality **genetic** and hard-wired into us from birth? Or is it something we learn from our parents and friends? As with other qualities, such as intelligence, studies suggest that personality results from a mix of both. Here's another question: regardless of whether the origins of personality are better explained in terms of nature or of nurture, how flexible or inflexible is it? Do people's personalities remain relatively stable across their entire life span, or is personality something that can, and does, change over time? Even though these questions have been heavily researched and theorized about, they are still far from fully understood.

Figure: The determinants of personality, George, J. M. – Jones, G. M. 1996. p. 36.)



The literature in OB suggest that personality is useful for explaining and predicting how workers generally feel,

think and behave on the job. Some researchers, however, dispute the evidence that personality is an important determinant of organizational behavior and argue that personality has little or no role to play.

The importance of personality – ASA framework

According to the model of Ben Schneider (University of Maryland) personality is a determinant of the nature of organizations. The name of his schema is *attraction – selection – attrition (ASA) framework*. He considered that individuals with similar personalities tend to be attracted and hired to an organization and peoples with other personalities tend to leave the organization. As a result of this phenomenon there is some consistency of personalities within an organization and these typical personality shapes determine the nature of the organization itself. (George, J. M. – Jones, G. M. 1996.)

Temperament types

Why do different people have different personalities? The first scholar who tried to explain these differences was Hippocrates coming from ancient Greece. He and his disciple Galen believed that the body is made up of four different types of **humors**. The four humors are **black bile**, **yellow bile**, **phlegm** and **blood**. The theory, which was endorsed until around the nineteenth century, was that various personalities, as well as various diseases, could be explained in terms of different mixes, excesses and deficiencies of these four humors. **Blood** was associated with a **sanguine**, or optimistic disposition; **yellow bile**, a choleric, or easily irritable one; **black bile**, a melancholic temperament; and **phlegm** was associated with a phlegmatic, or calm disposition. So humorism attempts to assess personality based on physical features.

DEFINITION

Temperament means how fast emotions are formed; how steady and strong they are.

The characteristics of the four temperaments are the following:

- *Sanguine*: talkative, lively, funny, sociable, disorganized, careless
- *Choleric*: determined, dominant, can take decisions easily, competitive, unfeeling, stubborn
- *Melancholic*: sensible, organized, precise, sympathetic, pessimistic, touchy
- *Phlegmatic*: quiet, calm, easy-going, balanced, slow, indecisive

Sigmund Freud's structure of personality

Sigmund Freud was a famous Austrian psychologist from the early 20th century. His thoughts are important in terms of the way we think about personality. According to the model of Freud, the structure of personality consists of three parts:

The **id**, the **ego** and the **superego**. To Freud, the characteristics of a person's is the **internal conflict** between the id, ego and superego.

The Id

This is basically the childish and impulsive part of you. So it's the part that kind of just does what it wants, and it wants things really intensely not really thinking about the consequences. Freud describes this as operating basically on a pleasure principle: it is always seeking to increase pleasure and decrease pain.

Here's an example: you come home and to your delight you find your roommate has baked a cake. 'Oh man, I want that cake so badly, that looks delicious.' Now let's say you know your roommate is not going to be

happy if you eat the cake, so first you eat a little piece of the corner and then you kind of have to cut yourself a slice so it doesn't look disgusting, and then soon enough you've eaten the whole thing; it's gone.

That is your id; that's all id. That's what your id aims to do in life. It wants you to eat whole cakes because it wants you to increase pleasure. Cakes are going to make you feel good - why not eat the whole thing? Now, what it also wants to do is decrease pain. So let's say you wake up the next morning and you think, 'Oh God, I just ate a whole cake. That's really bad, maybe I'll get some exercise.' I don't know, let's put him on a mountain - he's hiking. 'Alright, let's get some exercise!' We don't want to do that. So if you're totally id driven, you would basically eat the whole cake and then you would not go hiking the next day to burn off the calories. That's the pleasure principle.

The superego

Controlling the id a little bit is the other part of your personality that's also unconscious (or mainly unconscious): the *superego*. It is basically the part of you that is super judgmental and moralizing. So what does the superego want to do if you come home and you find the cake?

If you had a really, really strong superego, you probably just wouldn't eat the cake at all. You'd see it, you'd think it looks delicious but you'd say, 'No, it's my roommate's; I'm not going to eat this cake'. Like so, the superego is always trying to get you to behave in a socially appropriate way and it's not that socially appropriate to eat other people's baked goods; that's not something that we do.

But let's say instead that you're still a little id driven so you eat a little bit, then you eat a little bit more, oh well, you might as well just eat it all. There it goes into your stomach. But in this case, if you've got some superego action, it makes you feel like although the cake is gone to your belly, it's now been replaced by guilt. Your superego makes you feel really guilty when you do things that are not socially appropriate.

If you do something that's not socially appropriate, you only get "rewarded" with guilt, which keeps you in check. So if you ate the whole cake maybe you'd go jogging and you'd also

maybe apologize to your roommate. The superego gets you to do things that are good and right while controlling your sense of right and wrong. We feel bad when we do things that are wrong and we feel better when we do things that are right, and that's what the superego controls.

The ego

What the *ego* does is also related to the id and the superego. From what I've described before you can imagine the id and the superego are almost always fighting. The id is trying to get you to do things like eat more cake and not go jogging while the superego is basically trying to get you to be a good person; it's trying to get you to be an outstanding citizen. 'There I am; I'm high-fiving the world and I'm happy because I'm outstanding.' What the ego does is basically mediate between the two. The ego is a mediator between these two parts of your personality that always fight with each other.

Now, the ego is really the only one of these three that's fully conscious, so you're actually aware of it. What you think of as 'you' is what Freud would call your ego. And the ego operates on something that's called the reality principle. What the reality principle means is that you are taking these unconscious drives – your id's desire to eat cake and your superego's desire to make you not be a horrible person – and you're interpreting that, making those into real actions.

Big Five personality traits

One of the most important ways researchers have found to describe personality is in terms of traits.

DEFINITION

Trait is a specific component of personality that describes particular tendencies a person has to feel, think and act in certain ways, such as shy or outgoing,

critical or accepting, compulsive or easygoing. (George, J. M. – Jones, G. M. 1996. p. 39)

In psychology, the "Big Five" personality traits are five broad factors or dimensions of personality discovered through empirical research. The first public mention of the model was in 1933, by L. L. Thurstone in his presidential address to the American Psychological Association. Thurstone's comments were published in *Psychological Review* the next year.

The five factors are Openness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism (OCEAN, or CANOE if rearranged). They are also referred to as the "Five Factor Model" (FFM). However, some discussion remains about how to interpret the Openness factor, which is sometimes called "Intellect." Each factor consists of a cluster of more specific traits that correlate together. For example, extraversion includes such related qualities as sociability, excitement seeking, impulsiveness, and positive emotions.

The Five Factor Model is a purely descriptive model of personality, but psychologists have developed a number of theories to account for the Big Five.

Critics argue that there are limitations to the scope of the Big Five as an explanatory or predictive theory. It is argued that the Big Five does not explain all of human personality. The methodology used to identify the dimensional structure of personality traits, factor analysis, is often challenged for not having a universally-recognized basis for choosing among solutions with different numbers of factors. Another frequent criticism is that the Big Five is not theory-driven; it is merely a data-driven investigation of certain descriptors that tend to cluster together under factor analysis. The Big Five was opposed by some researchers in psychology, such as situationists who emphasize the importance of context on personality rather than fixed personality traits. Others emphasize the interaction of the traits and context specific factors in determining personality.

The Big Five factors and their constituent traits can be summarized as follows:

- *Openness* - appreciation for art, emotion, adventure, unusual ideas,

imagination, curiosity, and variety of experience.

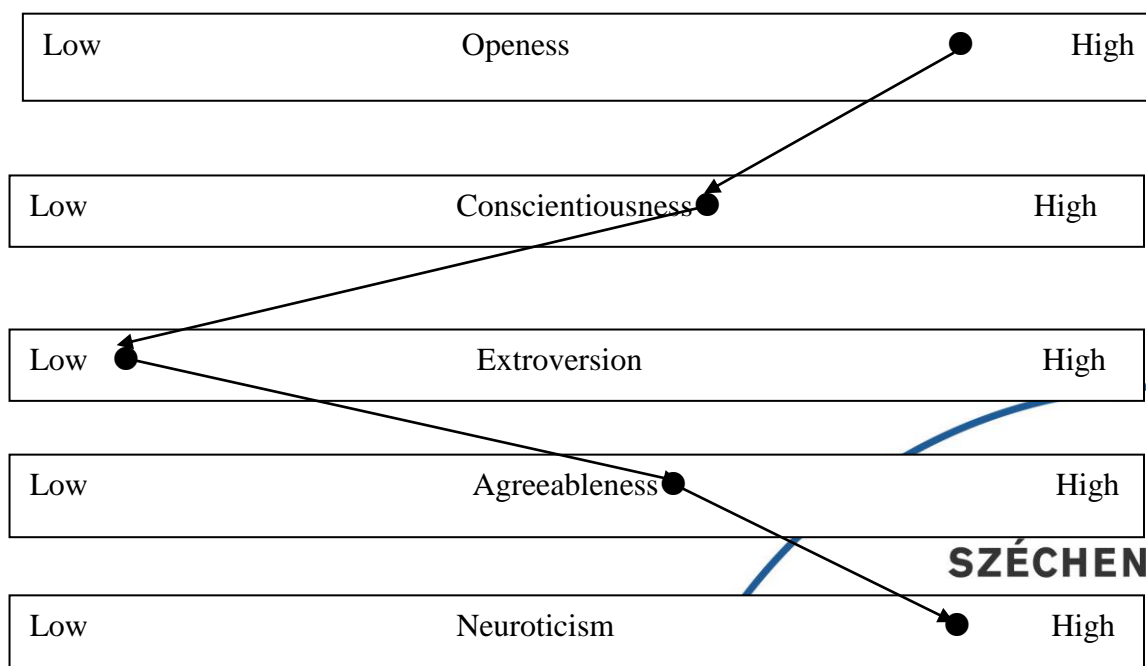
- *Conscientiousness* - a tendency to show self-discipline, act dutifully and aim for achievement; planned rather than spontaneous behavior.

- *Extraversion* - energy, positive emotions and the tendency to seek stimulation and the company of others.

- *Agreeableness* - a tendency to be compassionate and cooperative rather than suspicious and antagonistic towards others.

- *Neuroticism* - a tendency to experience unpleasant emotions easily, such as anger, anxiety, depression or vulnerability; sometimes called emotional instability.

Figure: A Big Five Personality Profile



This is a profile of a person who is low on extraversion, high on neuroticism, about average on agreeableness and conscientiousness, and relatively high on openness to experiences. (George, J. M. – Jones, G. M. 1996. p. 41)

When scored for individual feedback, these traits are frequently presented as percentile scores. For example, a Conscientiousness rating in the 80th percentile indicates a relatively strong sense of responsibility and orderliness, whereas an Extraversion rating in the 5th percentile indicates an exceptional need for solitude and quiet.

Openness to Experience

Openness is a general appreciation for art, emotion, adventure, unusual ideas, imagination, curiosity, and variety of experience. The trait distinguishes imaginative people from down-to-earth, conventional people. People who are open to experiences are intellectually curious, appreciative of art, and sensitive to beauty. They tend to be, compared to closed people, more creative and more aware of their feelings. They are more likely to hold unconventional beliefs.

People with low scores on openness tend to have more conventional, traditional interests. They prefer the plain, straightforward and obvious over the complex, ambiguous and subtle. They may regard the arts and sciences with suspicion, regarding these endeavors as abstruse or of no practical use. Closed people prefer familiarity over novelty. They are conservative and resistant to change.

Sample Openness items:

I am full of ideas.

I am quick to understand things.

I have a rich vocabulary.

I have a vivid imagination.

I have excellent ideas.

I spend time reflecting on things.

I use difficult words.

I am not interested in abstract ideas. (*reversed*)

I do not have a good imagination. (*reversed*)

I have difficulty understanding abstract ideas. (*reversed*)

Conscientiousness

Conscientiousness is a tendency to show self-discipline, act dutifully, and aim for achievement. The trait shows a preference for planned rather than spontaneous behavior. It influences the way in which we control, regulate, and direct our impulses. Conscientiousness includes the factor known as Need for Achievement (NAch).

The benefits of high conscientiousness are obvious. Conscientious individuals avoid trouble and achieve high levels of success through purposeful planning and persistence. They are also positively regarded by others as intelligent and reliable. On the negative side, they can be compulsive perfectionists and workaholics.

Sample Conscientiousness items:

I am always prepared.

I am exacting in my work.

I follow a schedule.

I get chores done right away.

I like order.

I pay attention to details.

I leave my belongings around. (*reversed*)

I make a mess of things. (*reversed*)

I often forget to put things back in their proper place. (*reversed*)

I shirk my duties. (*reversed*)

Extraversion

Extraversion, also called "extroversion," is characterized by positive emotions, surgency, and the tendency to seek out stimulation and the company of others.

The trait is marked by pronounced engagement with the external world. Extraverts enjoy being with people, and are often perceived as full of energy. They tend to be enthusiastic, action-oriented individuals who are likely to say "Yes!" or "Let's go!" to opportunities for excitement. In groups they like to talk, assert themselves, and draw attention to themselves.

Introverts lack the exuberance, energy, and activity levels of extraverts. They tend to be quiet, low-key, deliberate, and less involved in the social world. Their lack of social involvement should not be interpreted as shyness or depression. Introverts simply need less stimulation than extraverts and more time alone.

Sample Extraversion items:

I am the life of the party.

I don't mind being the center of attention.

I feel comfortable around people.

I start conversations.

I talk to a lot of different people at parties.

I am quiet around strangers. (*reversed*)

I don't like to draw attention to myself. (*reversed*)

I don't talk a lot. (*reversed*)

I have little to say. (*reversed*)

Agreeableness

Agreeableness is a tendency to be compassionate and cooperative rather than suspicious and

antagonistic towards others. The trait reflects individual differences in concern for social harmony. Agreeable individuals value getting along with others.

They are generally considerate, friendly, generous, helpful, and willing to compromise their interests with others. Agreeable people also have an optimistic view of human nature. They believe people are basically honest, decent, and trustworthy.

Disagreeable individuals place self-interest above getting along with others. They are generally unconcerned with others' well-being and are less likely to extend themselves for other people. Sometimes their skepticism about others' motives causes them to be suspicious, unfriendly, and uncooperative.

Sample Agreeableness items:

I am interested in people.

I feel others' emotions.

I have a soft heart.

I make people feel at ease.

I sympathize with others' feelings.

I take time out for others.

I am not interested in other people's problems. (*reversed*)

I am not really interested in others. (*reversed*)

I feel little concern for others. (*reversed*)

I insult people. (*reversed*)

Neuroticism

Neuroticism is the tendency to experience negative emotions, such as anger, anxiety, or depression. It is sometimes called emotional instability. Those who score high in neuroticism are emotionally reactive and vulnerable to

stress. They are more likely to interpret ordinary situations as threatening and minor frustrations as hopelessly difficult. Their negative emotional reactions tend to persist for unusually long periods of time, which means they are often in a bad mood. These problems in emotional regulation can diminish a neurotic's ability to think clearly, make decisions, and cope effectively with stress.

At the other end of the scale, individuals who score low in neuroticism are less easily upset and are less emotionally reactive. They tend to be calm, emotionally stable, and free from persistent negative feelings. Freedom from negative feelings does not mean that low scorers experience a lot of positive feelings. Frequency of positive emotions is a component of the Extraversion domain.

Sample Neuroticism items:

I am easily disturbed.

I change my mood a lot.

I get irritated easily.

I get stressed out easily.

I get upset easily.

I have frequent mood swings.

I often feel blue.

I worry about things.

I am relaxed most of the time. (*reversed*)

I seldom feel blue. (*reversed*)

Exercise: A Measure of Neuroticism or Negative Affectivity

Instructions: Listed below are a series of statements a person might say to describe her or his attitudes, opinions, interests and other characteristics. If a statement is true or mostly true, put a "T" in the space next

to the item. If the statement is false or mostly false, mark an "F" in the space.

Please answer *every statement*, even if you are not completely sure of the answer. Read each statement carefully but don't spend too much time deciding on the answer.

- 1. I often find myself worrying about something.
- 2. My feelings are hurt rather easily.
- 3. Often I get irritated by little annoyances.
- 4. I suffer from nervousness.
- 5. My mood often goes up and down.
- 6. I sometimes feel "just miserable" for no good reason.
- 7. Often I experience strong emotions – anxiety, anger – without really knowing what causes them.
- 8. I am easily startled by things that happen unexpectedly.
- 9. I sometimes get myself into a state of tension and turmoil as I think of the day's events.
- 10. Minor setbacks sometimes irritate me too much.
- 11. I often lose sleep over my worries.
- 12. There are days when I am "on edge" all of the time.
- 13. I am too sensitive for my own good.
- 14. I sometimes change from happy to sad, or vice versa, without good reason.

Scoring: Level of neuroticism or negative affectivity is equal to the number of items answered "True".

Behaviorism

Behaviorists focus primarily on environmental factors. The central category of behaviourism is learning. Learning is defined as a relatively

permanent change in knowledge or behavior that results from practice or experience. There are three major theories in learning: classical conditioning, operant conditioning and social learning theory. The topic of classical conditioning belongs to the field of biology in high school education so in this chapter we will only deal with operant conditioning and social learning theory.

DEFINITION

Behaviorism is a systematic approach to the understanding of human and animal behavior. It assumes that the behavior of a human or an animal is a consequence of that individual's history, including especially reinforcement and punishment, together with the individual's current motivational state and controlling stimuli.

The basic ideas of behaviorism are: human behavior is a product of the stimulus-response interaction and that behavior is modifiable. It has triggered scientific experiments and the use of statistical procedures. Most importantly, it has turned the attention of psychology to solving real behavior related problems. Behaviorists believe behavior should be explained in terms of environmental stimuli. It is not necessary to go into the postulating of inner mechanisms or traits because it creates additional mysteries that need to be explained. The doctrines of B.F. Skinner are very appropriate to get a better understanding of this theory.

Skinner's theory – operant conditioning: increasing the probability of desired behaviors

Burrhus Frederic Skinner was born on 20 March 1904. He received his BA's degree in English from Hamilton College in upstate New York. After some traveling, he decided to go back to school; he went to Harvard. He got his masters in psychology in 1930 and his doctorate in 1931 and stayed there to do research until

1936. In 1948 he was invited to go to Harvard, where he remained for the rest of his life, he became one of our best psychology writers.¹

Skinner's entire system is based on operant conditioning. The organism is in the process of "operating" on the environment. During this "operating" the organism encounters a special kind of stimulus, called reinforcing stimulus.

DEFINITION

Operant conditioning means learning that takes place when the learner recognizes the connection between a behavior and its consequences.

A behavior followed by a reinforcing stimulus results in an increased probability of that behavior occurring in the future. Extinction – a behavior no longer followed by the reinforcing stimulus results in a decreased probability of that behavior occurring in the future. Operant conditioning is one of the key ways in which learning takes place. An individual learns to engage in specific behaviors - e. g. being responsive to customers' needs – in order to trigger certain consequences, e. g. a bonus. Students can probably learn that if they study hard they will receive good grades. So they learn how to operate in their environment to achieve their desired goals.

A question Skinner had to deal with was how we get to more complex sorts of behaviors. He responded with the idea of shaping or "the method of successive approximations". Skinner and his students have been quite successful in teaching simple animals to do some quite extraordinary things. Shaping can also account for the most complex of behaviors. You are gently shaped by your environment to enjoy certain things or do well in school.

An aversive stimulus is the opposite of a reinforcing one, something we might find unpleasant or painful. A behavior followed by an aversive stimulus results

¹ <http://webpace.ship.edu/cgboer/skinner.html>

in a decreased probability of that behavior occurring in the future. This both defines an aversive stimulus and describes the form of conditioning known as punishment. If you remove an already active aversive stimulus after a person does a certain behavior, you are doing negative reinforcement. Behavior followed by the removal of an aversive stimulus results in an increased probability of that behavior occurring in the future.

Skinner didn't approve of the use of aversive stimuli – not because of ethics but because they don't work well. That's because whatever is being enforced, the bad behavior itself will not be removed as it would be in the case of extinction.

The importance of Skinner's theory: encouraging desired behaviors through positive and negative reinforcement

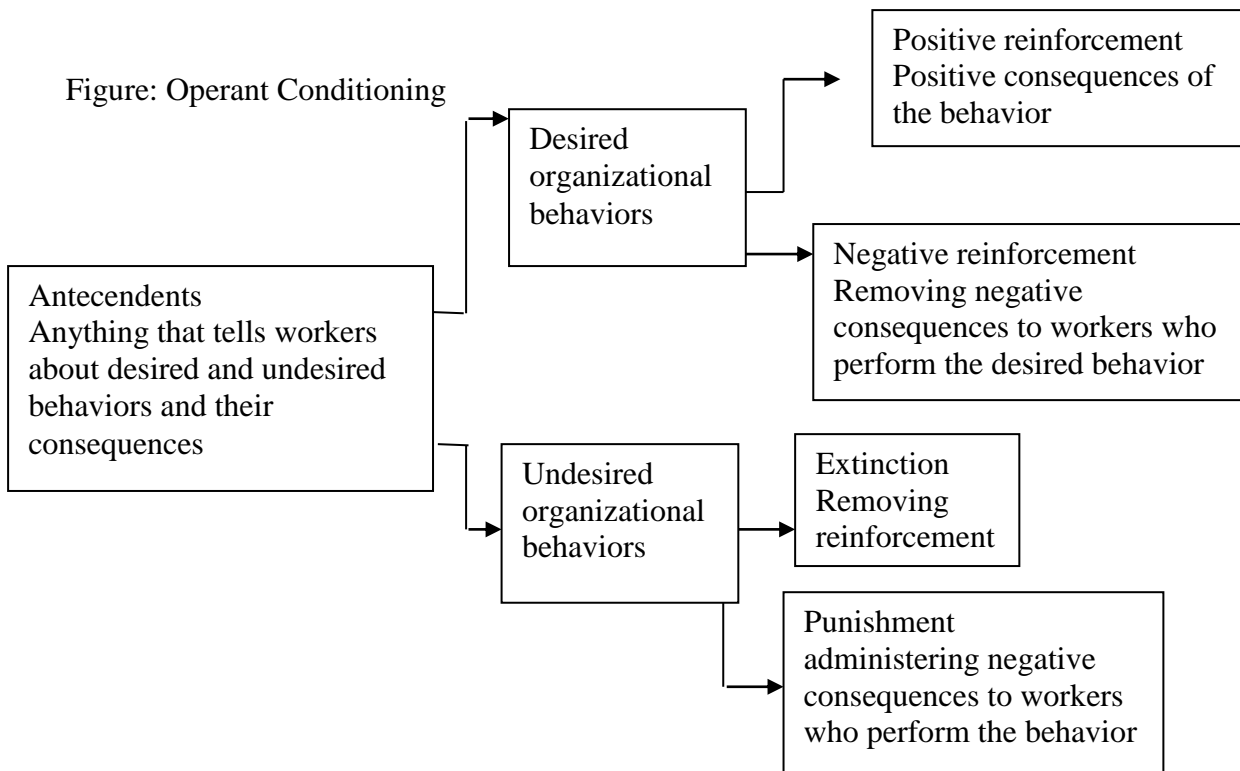
In operant conditioning, reinforcement is the process by which the probability that a desired behavior will occur is increased by applying consequences that depend on the behavior. One of a manager's major responsibilities is to ensure that subordinates learn and continue to perform desired behaviors. In operant conditioning terms, managers need to increase the probability that desired organizational behavior will continue to occur.

- The first step of reinforcement is to identify the desired behaviors to be reinforced.
- The second step in the reinforcement process is to decide how to reinforce the behavior. There are two types of reinforcement in operant conditioning: positive and negative. The positive consequences of the behavior are known as positive reinforcements. Negative reinforcement increases the probability of the desired behavior by removing a negative consequence when a worker exhibits the behaviour.
- The third step in the reinforcement process is administering the positive or negative reinforcement to the worker.

In general, positive reinforcement is better than negative reinforcement. Negative reinforcement often has unintended side effects and makes

for an unpleasant work environment.

Figure: Operant Conditioning



(George, J. M. – Jones, G. M. 1996. p. 133.)

Social Cognitive Theory

Social-cognitive theory is a theoretical perspective in which learning by observing others is the focus of study. Social-cognitive theory is grounded in several basic assumptions.

1. People can learn by observing others. Learners can acquire new behaviors and knowledge by simply observing a **model**. A model is a person who demonstrates a given behavior for someone else.
2. Learning is an internal process that may or may not lead to a behavior. Learning may not occur immediately. The observer could process the new behavior but his/her learning may not be affected until a later point or never at all.

3. There's also an assumption of goal-directed behavior. Social-cognitive theorists propose that people set goals for themselves and direct their behavior accordingly. They are motivated to accomplish those goals. In the classroom, learners are motivated by goals such as a high GPA, popularity with classmates or even being the class clown. These goals direct behavior.
4. Behavior eventually becomes self-regulated. Social-cognitivists, unlike behaviorists, believe that people eventually begin to regulate their own learning and behavior.
5. With regard to reinforcement and punishment social-cognitivists believe reinforcement and punishment have an indirect (rather than direct) effect on learning and behavior. People form expectations about the likely consequences of future responses based on how current responses are reinforced or punished. People's expectations are also influenced by the observation of the consequences that follow other people's behavior. This is referred to as vicarious experiences. The non-occurrence of an expected consequence may also have a reinforcing or a punishing effect.

Modelling

We have discussed the assumptions of social-cognitive theory and that models play a critical role in the learning process. Now we will review the different types of models.

Most of the models we observe and learn from are **live models**. These are *individuals whose behavior is observable in real life*. For example, teachers, peers, and supervisors - these are real people. Our second type of model is the **symbolic model**. These are *real or fictional characters that influence the observer's behavior*. These types of models could be real or fictional characters portrayed in books, movies and other media. Researchers do not indicate which type of model is best, as long as the model possesses certain characteristics to make them effective. Let's talk about the characteristics of an effective model now.

The model must be competent. People will typically try to imitate behaviors of models who do something well, not

poorly. In the classroom, a teacher could either demonstrate correct behavior or choose student models that are at or above the observer's skill level to display these skills correctly.

A model must have prestige and power. These are often qualities observers look for. For example, students may look to renowned athletes or world figures for behavioral cues. In the classroom, a teacher might highlight popular actors or sports figures as models for certain behaviors.

A person's cognition, the environment and behavior play important roles in learning new knowledge and skills. This lesson will focus on Albert Bandura's contributions to social learning and vicarious experiences.

Do you have a fear of snakes or perhaps other animals? Do you think that you could get over this fear by observing other people that had snake phobias? This is exactly the experiment that was conducted years ago to help the psychologist Albert Bandura understand the importance of behavioral models.

Social Cognitive Theory of Bandura

The psychologist Albert Bandura discovered the importance of behavioral models when he was working with patients with snake phobias. He found that the patients' observation of former patients handling snakes was an effective therapy. The patients in treatment abstracted the information that others, who were like them, handled snakes with no ill effects. These patients considered that information in reflecting on their own behavior. Bandura found that these observations were more effective in treating their phobias than persuasion and observing the psychologist handle the snakes.

Bandura's social learning theory stresses the importance of observational learning, imitation and modelling. His theory integrates a *continuous interaction between behaviors, personal factors - including cognition - and the environment* referred to as *reciprocal causation model*.

However, Bandura does not suggest that the three factors in the triadic model make equal contributions to behavior. The influence of behavior, environment and

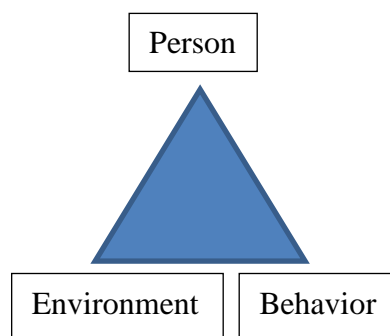
person depends on which factor is strongest at any particular moment.

In the model, B, or behavior, refers to things like *complexity, duration, skill, etc.* The E stands for environment, and it's comprised of *the situation, roles, models and relationships.* P, or person, is comprised mainly of *cognition but also other personal factors such as self-efficacy, motives and personality.*

Here's a classroom example to help make this point more clear. In the classroom as a teacher presents a lesson to the class, students reflect on what the teacher is saying. This is where the environment influences cognition, a personal factor. Students who don't understand a point raise their hands to ask a question. This is where personal factors influence behavior. So, the teacher reviews the point (behavior influences environment).

Bandura's most famous experiment was the 1961 Bobo Doll study. Briefly, he made a video in which an adult woman was being aggressive to a Bobo doll hitting it and shouting aggressive words.

Figure: Diagram Reciprocal causal model



The film was shown to groups of children. Afterwards, the children were allowed to play in the room with the same doll. The children began imitating the model by beating up the doll and using similar, aggressive words. The study was significant because it departed from behaviorism's insistence that all behavior is directed by reinforcement or rewards. The children

received no encouragement or incentives to beat up the doll; they were simply imitating the behavior they had observed.

Through the Bobo doll experiment and others, Bandura grounded his understanding of a model's primary function which is to transmit information to the observer. This function occurs in any of the following three ways:

1. Modelled behaviors serve as cues to initiate similar behaviors in others.
2. They also serve to strengthen or weaken the learner's existing restraints against the performance of a modelled behavior.
3. They're used to demonstrate new patterns of behavior.

An example of behavior serving as a social prompt is the hostess at an elaborate dinner party. A guest, unfamiliar with the array of silverware, observes the hostess to select the correct utensil appropriate for each course.

Another example for strengthening or weakening behavior is when an observer's restraints against imitating a behavior are strengthened when the model is punished. For example, if a classmate violates a school rule and is punished, this will make the observer think twice before attempting to break the rule. In contrast, observers' restraints are weakened in one of two ways. One is lack of punishment for reprehensible behaviors. The other is the modelling of defensible violence, which adds legitimacy to the use of violence as a solution to a problem. Unfortunately, we see violence daily on TV and in media, which may lead to weaken the observer's behavioral restraints toward violent behavior.

The third influence of modelling is to demonstrate new patterns of behavior. Models are particularly important in the socialization of both children and adults. Language, social values and family customs, as well as educational, social and political practices are modelled in countless situations.

The role of consequences in learning from models

Although Bandura believed that learning is not facilitated only by reinforcement, behaviors enacted by others often do either reinforce or punish. These outcomes of the modelled behavior are referred to as **vicarious** because they

trigger emotional reactions in the observer. For example, a teacher acknowledges a child who shares her crayons with others at a table, and a child who observed the situation experiences positive feelings.

The two components of vicarious reinforcement are: the behavior of a model produces reinforcement for a particular behavior, and second, positive emotional reactions are triggered in the observer.

Television commercials rely on this type of situation. For example, a well-known actress eats a particular low-calorie food and demonstrates her weight loss or a handsome actor dressed in a tuxedo demonstrates the features of a luxury car before joining other expensively dressed people to enter a large house for a party.

In these situations, the vicarious reinforcement for a particular group of viewers is the positive feelings associated with being slim or acquiring social status. Similarly, players at slot machines, for example, see and hear the other players winning. The loud noises and flashing lights announce the winner to others. Also, advertisements of contests often include pictures of previous winners. These pictures may elicit positive emotional reactions in readers.

DEFINITION

Self-efficacy is the belief that one is capable of organizing and executing certain behaviors or reaching certain goals.

Self-efficacy affects choice of activities, effort and persistence. For example, people who hold a low self-efficacy for accomplishing a task may avoid it; those who believe they are capable are likely to participate.

Differences between self-efficacy and self-concept

Self-efficacy and self-concept are similar in the sense that both constructs account for one's judgments of their own capabilities. However, self-efficacy is

different from self-concept in several ways.

First, the definition of self-efficacy includes 'organize and execute,' which specifically focuses on the perceived competence in terms of including the behavioral actions or cognitive skills that are necessary for performance for a given skill or ability. For example, self-efficacy isn't simply the recognition of 'I'm good in sports,' but rather, explicit judgments of having the necessary skills and physical fitness level to do well in those types of activities.

Second, self-efficacy is used in reference to a specific goal. For example, a student that usually does well in math may experience low self-efficacy toward a particular problem set or equation because of the difficulty of the material compared to previous material learned.

Chart: Self-efficacy and outcome expectations

Self-efficacy	Low outcome expectations	High outcome expectations
High Self-efficacy	High expectations for a task but overall low outcome expectations Social activism Grievances Protests	High cognitive engagement Assures opportunity for success
Low Self-efficacy	Resignation Apathy Withdrawal	Self-devaluation Depression

Third, a student may have an overall self-concept for a skill or ability while holding a differing perceived self-efficacy for a specific task within that area. For example, a student may hold a negative self-concept for science classes but have high self-efficacy for a particular project or task. They still think of themselves as being poor science students but feel particularly apt in one area within the class.

Factors that influence self-efficacy

Similar to self-concept, self-efficacy is influenced by multiple factors: previous performance, behaviors of others, verbal encouragement by others, and physiological reactions.

- Previous performance

A child's self-assessment of skills and abilities depends on how successful their actions have been in the past. For example, children are likely to believe they will do well in future science courses if they have been successful in science courses in the past.

- Behaviors of others

The second influencer is the behavior of others. Children's self-concept can be influenced by others' behavior in two ways. First, children evaluate their performance based on the performance of other children around them. How their performance compares to their peers will influence their self-concept. For example, receiving a 90 on a test when all other classmates received an 80 or below would be evaluated by the child as successful. Receiving a 90 on a test when all other classmates received a 95 or above would be deemed as a failure, despite the fact that 90 is a high score.

- Verbal encouragement of others

Self-efficacy can be increased among students by pointing out their previous successes or giving them reasons to believe that they can be successful in the future. Verbal encouragements like, 'You tried hard before when you didn't think you could do it,' or 'I bet she will play with you if you ask her' can encourage students to take a risk and persist in an activity.

How do you perceive yourself? Are you good in a particular academic discipline? Do you like being around others or do you prefer to spend time alone? The answers to these questions help make up your self-concept and self-efficacy. This lesson will differentiate between these two concepts and explore outcomes of high and low self-efficacy.

Self-efficacy vs. self-concept

One's overall perceptions, beliefs, judgments and feelings are referred to as a **sense of self**. Answering questions such as: 'How do you describe yourself? Are you a good test taker? Are you good at sports? Do you like to be around others?' all tell you something about yourself. Encompassed in the construct of sense of self is self-concept and self-efficacy. This lesson will differentiate between self-efficacy and concept and explore how these perceptions affect academic outcomes.

Other relevant traits

- Locus of control
- Self-monitoring
- Needs for achievement, affiliation, power

What is locus of control?

Locus of Control (LOC) is considered to be an important aspect of personality. The concept was developed originally by psychologist Julian Rotter in the 1950s. He suggested that our behavior was controlled by rewards and punishments and that it was these consequences that determined our beliefs about the underlying causes for these actions. Our beliefs about what causes our actions then influence our behaviors and attitudes.

The full name Rotter gave the construct was Locus of Control of Reinforcement. By calling it that Rotter was bridging behavioural and cognitive psychology. Rotter's view was that behavior was largely guided by "reinforcements" (rewards and punishments) and that through contingencies such as rewards and punishments, individuals come to hold beliefs about what causes their actions. These beliefs, in turn, guide what kinds of attitudes and behaviors people adopt.

DEFINITION

Locus of control refers to an individual's perception about the underlying main causes of events in

his/her life. Or, more simply: Do you believe that your destiny is controlled by yourself or by external forces?

"A locus of control orientation is a belief about whether the outcomes of our actions are contingent on what we do (internal control orientation) or on events outside our personal control (external control orientation)." (Zimbardo, 1985)

In 1966, Rotter published a scale designed to measure and assess external and internal locus of control. The scale utilizes a forced-choice between two alternatives, requiring respondents to choose just one of two possibilities for each item. While the scale has been widely used, it has also been the subject of considerable criticism from those who believe that locus of control cannot be fully understood or measured by such a simplistic scale.

It is also important to note that locus of control is a continuum. No one has a 100 percent external or internal locus of control. Instead, most people lie somewhere on the continuum between the two extremes.

People with an internal locus of control:

- Are more likely to take responsibility for their actions
- Tend to be less influenced by the opinions of other people
- Often do better at tasks when they are allowed to work at their own pace
- Usually have a strong sense of self-efficacy
- Tend to work hard to achieve the things they want
- Feel confident in the face of challenges
- Tend to be physically healthier
- Report being happier and more independent
- Often achieve greater success in the workplace

People with an external locus of control:

- Blame outside forces for their circumstances
- Often credit luck or chance for any successes
- Don't believe that they can change their situation through their own efforts
- Frequently feel hopeless or powerless in the face of difficult situations
- Are more prone to experiencing learned helplessness

Research has suggested that men tend to have a higher internal locus of control than women and that locus of control tends to become more internal as people grow older. Despite these cautions, psychological research has found that people with a more internal locus of control seem to be better off, e.g., they tend to be more achievement oriented and to get better paid jobs. However, thought regarding causality is needed here too.

Sometimes locus of control is seen as a stable, underlying personality construct, but this may be misleading since theory and research indicates that locus of control to be largely learned. There is evidence that, at least to some extent, LOC is a response to circumstances. Some psychological and educational interventions have been found to produce shifts towards internal locus of control

However, it is also important to remember that internal does not always equal "good" and external does not always equal "bad." In some situations an external locus of control can actually be a good thing, particularly if a person's level of competence in a particular area is not very strong.

For example, a person who is terrible at sports might feel depressed or anxious about their performance if they have a strong internal locus of control. If the person thinks, "I'm bad at sports and I don't try hard enough," they might feel stressed out in situations where they need to participate in athletics, such as during a physical education class. If this person takes an external focus during such activities ("The game is too hard!" or "The sun shone in my eyes!"), they will

probably feel more relaxed and less stressed.

Exercise: do you have an external or internal locus of control?

Measuring LOC

Instructions: Listed below are a series of statements a person might say to describe her or his attitudes, opinions, interests, and other characteristics. If a statement is true or mostly true, put a "T" in the space next to the item. If the statement is false or mostly false, mark an "F" in the space.

Please answer *every statement* even if you are not completely sure of the answer. Read each statement carefully but don't spend too much time deciding on the answer.

1.I often feel that I have little control over my life and what happens to me.
2.People rarely get what they deserve.
3.It isn't worth setting goals or making plans because too many things can happen that are outside of my control.
4.Life is a game of chance.
5.Individuals have little influence over the events of the world.
6.If you work hard and commit yourself to a goal, you can achieve anything.
7.There is no such thing as fate or destiny.
8.If you study hard and are well-prepared, you can do well on exams.
9.Luck has little to do with success; it's mostly a matter of dedication and effort.
10.In the long run, people tend to get what they deserve in life.

The statements 1-5 are about external locus of control:

The statements 6-10 about internal locus of control: ...

Do you have an external or internal locus of control?

Where does your locus of control fall on the continuum?

Resource: <http://wilderdom.com/psychology/loc/LocusOfControlWhatIs.html>

Self-monitoring

Self-monitoring is the ability to both observe and evaluate one's behavior. *Self-monitoring*, or the capacity to observe (or measure) and evaluate one's behavior is an important component of executive functioning in human behavior. *Executive functioning* is a part of cognitive processing and includes a person's ability to connect past knowledge with present experiences in a way that allows the individual to plan, organize, strategize, pay attention to details and manage time.

Self-monitoring allows humans to measure their behavioral outcomes against a set of standards. Small children typically do not have the ability to self-monitor. It develops over time.

Theory of self-monitoring of expressive behavior

Psychologist Dr. Mark Snyder found that self-monitoring serves the following purposes:

- To communicate an emotional state
- To communicate an emotional state that is not necessarily in line with the actual emotional experience
- To conceal an inappropriate emotional state and either display apathy or an appropriate emotional state
- To appear to be experiencing an appropriate emotion when the reality is apathy

Research on self-monitoring

Researchers have made attempts to understand how individuals self-monitor different channels of expression. For

example, Ekman and Friesen (1969, 1972) discovered that psychiatric patients are better able to self-monitor facial expressions but not body cues. In their study they found that the nurses were better able to assess the patients' truth-telling through paying close attention to body cues. This is just one example of differences in how people self-monitor.

We also know that it is quite possible to develop an ability to self-monitor, even later in life. If you know that you are better able to self-monitor your facial expressions, for example, you can find resources that will also help you monitor your body posture. Do you tend to cross your arms when you are angry? A great deal of research on body language exists and can help us understand your unique channels for self-monitoring.

Examples of self-monitoring

We use self-monitoring in everyday life. For example, if I feel angry at my boss for not supporting me at a meeting, I have several different ways I could express my feelings. I could tell him I am angry. I could pretend as if I am happy with his actions. I could pretend as if I am not angry. How I choose to use my self-monitoring depends largely on the context, as well as the relationship I have with my boss. In another example, if someone I do not like gets fired from a job and I see him/her later at the store, I could pretend to be sad for him/her when in reality I do not care about him/her getting fired at all.

Self-monitoring is also important in schools because it requires a student to observe his/her behavior then evaluate it against an external standard or goal. This can result in lasting changes to the student's behavior. For example, if a pupil has a tendency to answer questions without raising a hand, the teacher may help him/her learn to observe his/her behavior (i.e., talking out of turn) and compare it to his/her peers (i.e., the peers who raise their hands to be called upon). By pointing out the difference between how the pupil behaves in comparison to his/her peers, he/she can begin to monitor and then change his/her behavior to fit the established norm of raising a hand to speak.

Exercise: A measure of self-monitoring

Instructions: Please indicate the extent to which each of the following statements are true or false for you personally.

1. I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people.
2. At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like.
3. I can only argue for ideas which I already believe.
4. I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information.
5. I put on a show to impress or entertain others.
6. I would probably make a good actor.
7. In a group of people, I am rarely the center of attention.
8. In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons.
9. I am not particularly good at making other people like me.
10. I am not always the person I appear to be.
11. I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone or win their favor.
12. I have considered being an entertainer.
13. I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting.
14. I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.
15. At a party I let others keep the jokes and stories going.
16. I feel a bit awkward in public and do not appear quite as well as I should.
17. I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if for a right end).
18. I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them.

Scoring: Individuals high on self-monitoring tend to indicate questions 4, 5, 6, 8, 10, 12, 17 and 18 as *true* and questions 1, 2, 3, 7, 9, 11, 13, 14, 15, and 16 as *false*

George– Jones (2012):

*Needs for achievement, affiliation,
power*

David McClelland built on this work in his 1961 book, "The Achieving Society". He identified three motivators that he believed we all have: a need for achievement, a need for affiliation and a need for power. People will have different characteristics depending on their dominant motivator. According to McClelland, these motivators are learned (which is why this theory is sometimes called the Learned Needs Theory).

McClelland says that regardless of our gender, culture or age, we all have three motivating drivers, one of which will be our dominant one. This dominant motivator is largely dependent on our culture and life experiences.

Table: Characteristics of motivators:

Dominant motivator	Characteristics of this person
Achievement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Has a strong need to set and accomplish challenging goals. • Takes calculated risks to accomplish set goals. • Likes to receive regular feedback on their progress and achievements. • Often likes to work alone.
Affiliation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Wants to belong to the group. • Wants to be liked and will often go along with whatever the rest of the group wants to do. • Favors collaboration over competition. • Doesn't like high risk or uncertainty.
Power	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Wants to control and influence others. • Likes to win arguments. • Enjoys competition and winning. • Enjoys status and recognition.

Mindtools.com <https://www.mindtools.com/pages/article/human-motivation-theory.htm>

Exercise: Test your motivational needs!

MOTIVATIONAL NEEDS QUESTIONNAIRE

Choose the statement in each set that best describes you.

1. a. When doing a job, I need feedback.
 b. I prefer to work alone and be my own boss.
 c. I am uncomfortable when forced to work alone.
2. a. I go out of my way to make friends with new people.
 b. I enjoy a good argument.
 c. After starting a task, I am uncomfortable until it is finished.
3. a. Status symbols are important to me.
 b. I am always getting involved with group projects.
 c. I work better when there is a deadline.
4. a. I work best when there is some challenge involved.
 b. I would rather give orders than take them.
 c. I am sensitive to others, especially when they are angry.
5. a. I am eager to be my own boss.
 b. I accept responsibility eagerly.
 c. I get personally involved with my superiors.
6. a. I include others in what I am doing.
 b. I prefer to be in charge of events.
 c. When given responsibility, I set measurable standards of high performance.
7. a. I am concerned about my reputation or position.
 b. I desire to out-perform others.
 c. I am concerned about being liked and accepted.
8. a. I enjoy and seek warm, friendly relationships.
 b. I get completely involved in a project.
 c. I want my ideas to be used.
9. a. I desire unique accomplishments.
 b. I don't like being left out of things.
 c. I enjoy influencing the direction of things.

10. a. I think about consoling and helping others.
 b. I am verbally fluent.
 c. I am restless and innovative.
11. a. I think about my goals and how to attain them.
 b. I think about ways to change people.
 c. I think about my feelings and the feelings of others.

Please complete this page before continuing!



**MOTIVATIONAL NEEDS QUESTIONNAIRE
ANALYSIS KEY**

Circle your responses for each of the 11 questions from the Motivational Questionnaire.

- | | | | |
|-----|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| 1. | a. Achievement | b. Power | c. Affiliation |
| 2. | a. Affiliation | b. Power | c. Achievement |
| 3. | a. Power | b. Affiliation | c. Achievement |
| 4. | a. Achievement | b. Power | c. Affiliation |
| 5. | a. Power | b. Achievement | c. Affiliation |
| 6. | a. Affiliation | b. Power | c. Achievement |
| 7. | a. Power | b. Achievement | c. Affiliation |
| 8. | a. Affiliation | b. Achievement | c. Power |
| 9. | a. Achievement | b. Affiliation | c. Power |
| 10. | a. Affiliation | b. Power | c. Achievement |
| 11. | a. Achievement | b. Power | c. Affiliation |

Count the number you have in each category and record below. Your highest response will indicate which motivational personality type you are (according to McClelland's needs model).

TOTAL: ___ Achievement
 ___ Affiliation
 ___ Power

Junker (2001)

COMMUNICATION IN ORGANIZATIONS

Learning outcome of the topic:

The students will learn that communication is one of the most important processes in organizations. They will adapt a positive attitude to effective communication which allows individuals and groups to achieve their goals and perform at a high level. They will learn the model of communication process and the elements of effective communication. They will be able to recognize the disturbances of communication.

Opening case

„Herb Kelleher was the co-founder and CEO of Southwest Airlines from 1981 to 2007. He was known as a very empathetic and charismatic leader that earned him respect throughout the industry resulting in a profit for a consecutive 24 years. To date, Southwest is the fifth largest airline in the United States.” He adopted a unique approach to managing this company. He planned a strategy based on low - price fares. To keep the prices low, he had to keep the costs low. He achieved this goal by organizing and leading his employees in an innovative way. In the company every employee had a specific job, but if they had free time they had to help other employees. For example if it was necessary pilots checked in passengers. As a result Southwest planes made many more flights a day than did the planes of its competitors. Kelleher worked closely with employees to find cost – saving solutions to problems. He believed that managers should have an active interest in their employees. The company had

many innovative programs through which employees met with managers and developed strong personal relationships. Kelleher held weekly cookouts where employees joined him to celebrate the company's success.²

Why is Communication Important?

Communication is one of the most important processes that take place in organizations. An organization's effectiveness hinges on good communication. This chapter focuses on the nature of communication and on its implications for understanding and managing organizational behavior.

- o Communication has major effects on the performance of the individual, the group and the organization itself
- o Everything a manager does involves communication

DEFINITION

“Communication is the sharing of information between two or more individuals or groups to reach a common understanding. Reaching a common understanding does not mean that people have to agree with each other. It means that parties must have a relatively accurate idea of what a person or group is trying to tell them.” (George – Jones 2012. p. 398.)

According to the above definition, communication is effective when organizational members share

² (<http://brandongaille.com/southwest-airlines-herb-kellehers-leadership-style/>)

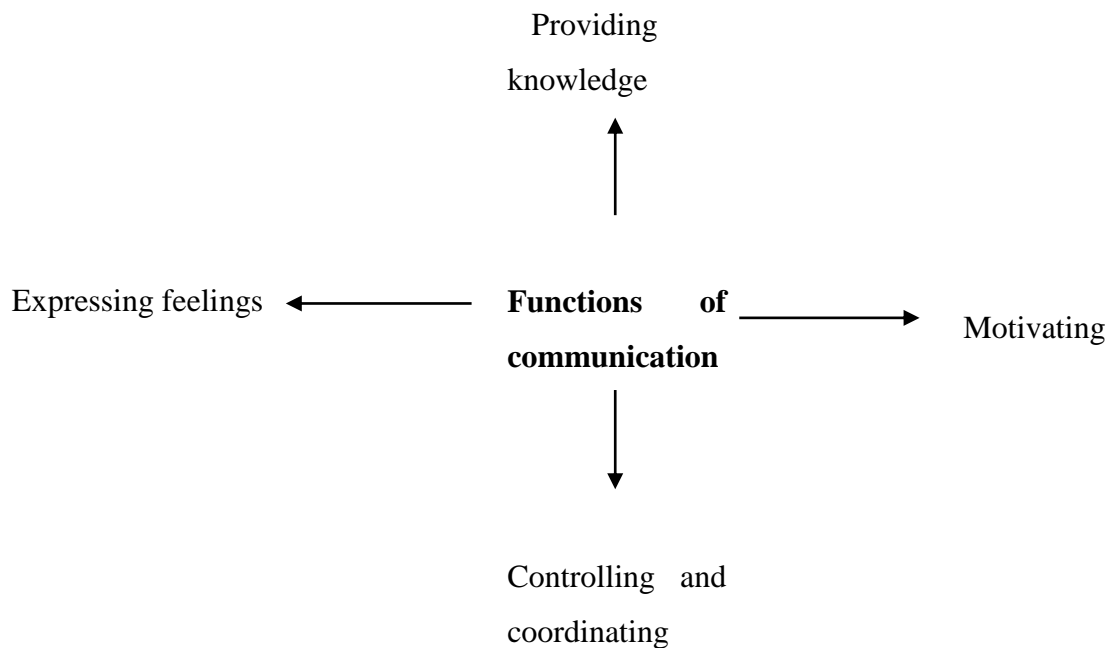
information with each other and people are relatively clear about what this information means. Communication is ineffective when people do not receive the information or they are not sure what the information means.

“Communication” is the way we interact with fellow humans, the way we get our messages across. We communicate with our eyes, faces and bodies as well as our words and voices. Sometimes “poor” communication causes feuds and fights. “Good” communication and the ability to manage conflict effectively is a skill—one that all of us can learn—and one that we must learn if we are to be effective managers. The ability to interact successfully and “get along with” people is a critical ingredient of excellence in “people skills.”

Functions of communication

- Providing knowledge about company goals, how to perform a job, the standard of acceptable behavior, needed changes, and so on
- Motivating organizational members – for example determining valences, raising expectancies, assigning specific and difficult goals, and giving feedback
- Controlling and coordinating individual efforts by reducing social loafing, communicating roles, rules and norms and avoiding duplication of efforts
- Expressing feelings and emotions such as positive and negative moods, excitement, and anger

Figure Functions of communication



Types of communication

- Formal Communication – established and agreed procedures
- Informal Communication – channels not formally recognised – ‘the grapevine’
- Nonverbal
 - Less structured, harder to classify
 - More spontaneous, less control
- Verbal
 - More structured, easier to study
 - Conscious purpose, more control

Figure: The direction of communication



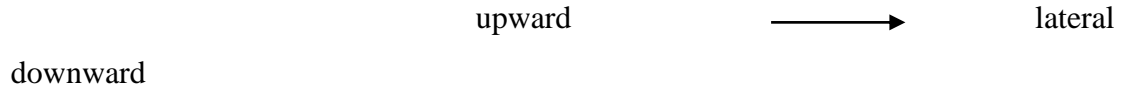
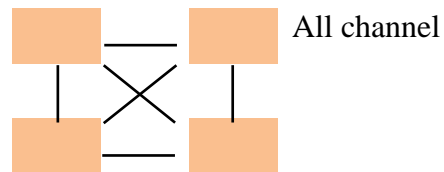
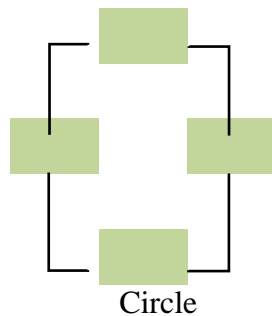
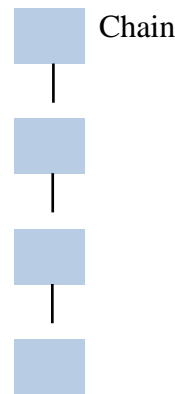
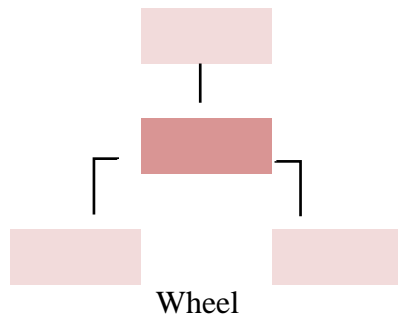


Figure: Communication networks:

The set of pathways through which information flows within a group or organization



The communication process

Quite often in the course of regular communication, a understanding will arise. Sometimes, even after explanation, the other person cannot see or accept our



viewpoint. We cannot understand why. “What’s the problem; I’ve explained it to them; how can they possibly not see it my way now?”

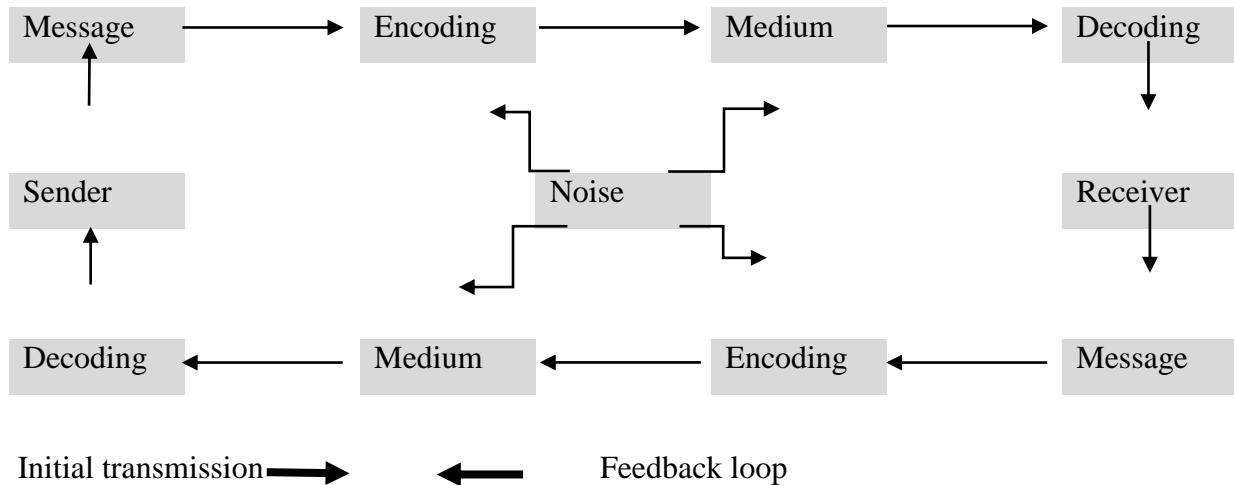
Perception has a critical role in our interpretation of any given situation. Similarly, this same perception has considerable influence over our reactions to the situation.

Our perception develops, as we grow older, through a variety of influences such as our family background, our ethnic background, our age, work experiences, values, and spiritual outlook.

Almost everything affects our perception. Someone who grows up on a farm will have a very different perception of what a busy day is compared to someone who has grown up in a city. The difference in our backgrounds, education, religious beliefs and our personal history will affect how clearly we understand each other. The less we understand the meaning of the words, body language and behavior of the other person, the easier it will be for us to have an inaccurate perception of what they are communicating to us.

- o Communication
- o Sequential Steps
 - o Encoded
 - o Transmitted
 - o Decoding
 - o Noise
 - o Feedback

Figure: The communication process



George – Jones (2012) P. 403.

Senders have to translate their messages into a form that can be sent to the receiver while the receiver has to make sense of the messages they receive. Decoding is the interpretation of a sender's message. Some messages are ambiguous which the receiver may have difficulty decoding. Once the message is decoded the receiver has to answer it and start the feedback loop.

Barriers of effective communication

- Noise (anything interfering with the communication process)
- Filtering (withholding a message or part of it)
- Information distortion (change in meaning)
- Poor listening
- Lack of inappropriate feedback
- Rumours (unofficial information) & Grapevine (informal communication pathways)
- Workforce diversity
- Differences in linguistic styles

Key communication skills

- o Listening Skills
- o Feedback Skills

o Presentation skills

Attributes of effective communication

- o Problem oriented not person oriented
- o Congruence versus incongruence - Mismatch between what one feels/thinks and what one says
- o Descriptive versus evaluative
- o Avoid judgement
- o How:
 - o describe objectively;
 - o focus on the behavior and your reaction not the other's attributes;
 - o focus on solutions;
 - o specific not global;
 - o Conjunctive not disjunctive;
 - o Owned not disowned;
 - o Use of "I statements" not "you or other statements";
 - o Two way not one way;
 - o Listening by responding.

Nonverbal communication

Usage of business communication channels

- o Listening 45%
- o Reading 16%
- o Speaking 30%
- o Writing 9%

The communication process

- o 7% VERBAL – What you said
- o 38% VOCAL – How you said it
- o 55% VISUAL – Body language/nonverbal

We have to remember:

- o Much communication is unconscious
- o Much communication is unintentional
- o Much communication is incongruent

Communication is congruent when: What we say and what we do match.

Characteristics of nonverbal communication

- o Intentional or unintentional
- o Ambiguous
- o Primary
- o Continuous
- o Multichanneled

Touch

- o Touching and being touched are essential to a healthy life
- o Touch can communicate power, empathy, understanding

Proxemics

- o Intimate distance
- o Personal distance
- o Social distance
- o Public distance

Personal space at work

- o Your office

- o Your desk
- o A table in the cafeteria that you sit at regularly

Emblems

Nonverbal acts with a direct verbal translation - generally culture specific

Artifacts

- o furniture
- o architectural style
- o interior decorating
- o Clothes
- o Cars

Exercise:

Please answer the following sentences in a couple of sentences:

- Why is reaching a common understanding a necessary condition for effective communication?
- Why is feedback a necessary component of the communication process?
- Why are organizational members sometimes reluctant to express their feelings and emotions?

CONFLICTS IN ORGANIZATIONS

Learning outcome of the topic:

The students will learn that understanding and managing conflicts are integral parts of a manager's job. They will know that managers also have a responsibility to manage conflicts as they arise to ensure the long-term success of the organization.

The students will adapt a positive attitude to cooperative behavior and will know that there are various techniques available to manage conflicts. They will be able to select the right style in the given situation independently.

Opening case

Magazine trouble

“In 1993, the task of managing the *Harvard Business Review (HBR)*, a highly respected management publication, was removed from the direct control of the Harvard Business School and given to a company called Harvard Business School Publishing Corp. The reason for the change was to try to increase the circulation and revenues earned from HBR. a professional publishing staff was recruited to manage the journal, which in the past had been managed by the business school’s own professors. Ruth M. McMullin was made chief executive of the holding company charged with directing the policy of HBR.

From the beginning the venture seems to have been in trouble. Harvard Business School professors had traditionally seen themselves as having higher status (because they were the main contributor to the journal) than the magazine staff that edited their articles. But under McMullin *Harvard Business Review* began to reflect a new vision. The review began to publish fewer articles by Harvard professors and to pursue ventures in which the professors had no stake and over which they had little control. As conflict between professors and HBR over control of the journal increased, the editor was changed three times in twenty – two month, many members of the editorial staff left, and the editing and publication process slowed down. Many professors were annoyed that the salaries of many top staffers of the Harvard Business School Publishing Corp. were higher than their own. McMullin, for example earned, \$ 400,000 a year, triple the salary of a typical Harvard professor. The policy of publishing fewer articles writing by Harvard professors and paying staffers such high salaries resulted in such high level of conflict that McMullin resigned in 1994. She claimed that her views on running a professional publishing organization had diverged to far from those of professor.” (George – Jones, 1996. p. 584 - 585.)

What are organizational conflicts?

Conflict is a form of disagreement that arises between two or more persons. In organizations, there are many occasions

when a conflict arises but they can be overcome through full understanding and positive attitude. The state of conflict arises due to difference of opinions, emotional disturbance, distrust, dislikes, fear or resentment.

DEFINITION I

Organizational conflict is the struggle that arises when the goal - directed behaviour of one person or group blocks the goal – directed behaviour of another person or group. (George – Jones, 1996. p. 583.)

DEFINITION II

Conflict is a natural disagreement arising between two or more persons or individuals due to their incompatible goals, beliefs or behavior which prevents them from achieving their goal. It is a process in which one group or individual perceives that their interests are being opposed or are affecting the other parties negatively.

Conflicts may lead to serious problems in an organization but at the same time they can yield positive results too. Working for an organization involves communication and interpersonal relations inside as well as outside the organization. There are various occasions when there are differences and disagreements due to differences in the opinions and views of the workers. To overcome these barriers there is a need for a healthy environment which is full of understanding and free of conflict. It is very difficult to imagine a conflict free world and a conflict free organization as every individual has a unique personality, behaviour and ideas. Perception, attitudes and motivation varies from person to person. These factors lead to the conflicts we encounter from time to time everywhere at home or at the workplace.

An absence of conflicts can lead to apathy and lethargy as it helps in stimulating new ideas, providing healthy competitions and energizing behavior of the individuals in an organization. Therefore, it is very

important for an organization to manage conflicts well and formulate various strategies to resolve conflicts arising between individuals in an organization.

Types of conflicts

The effect of these conflicts can be positive, neutral or negative depending on the situation and the individuals in connection with whom the conflict originally arose. Every organization has three types of conflicts such as task conflicts, relationship conflicts and process conflicts. Task conflicts have to do with content and goals, relationship conflicts are focused on interpersonal relations and process conflicts are related to the process of doing the work. Out of these three, relationship conflicts are termed as dysfunctional as they are caused by difference of opinions, ego clashes and personal fights which are in turn causing an unnecessary and untimely blockage of work in an organization.

There are three levels of conflicts in organisational life:

1. Intra-personal conflict
2. Inter-personal conflict
3. Inter-group and organisational conflict

An intra-personal conflict is a conflict within the individual while an *inter-personal conflict* arises between two or more persons in an organisation. An intra-personal conflict comprises of two types of conflicts: *goal conflict and role conflict*. There are four major sources of inter-personal conflict: personal difference, information deficiency, role incompatibility and environmental stress.

Intergroup and organisational conflicts are referred to as conflicts between two groups, departments or sections in an organisation. The possible reasons for inter-group and organisational

conflicts are task interdependence, task ambiguity, goal incompatibility, competition for limited resources, competitive reward system and line and staff.

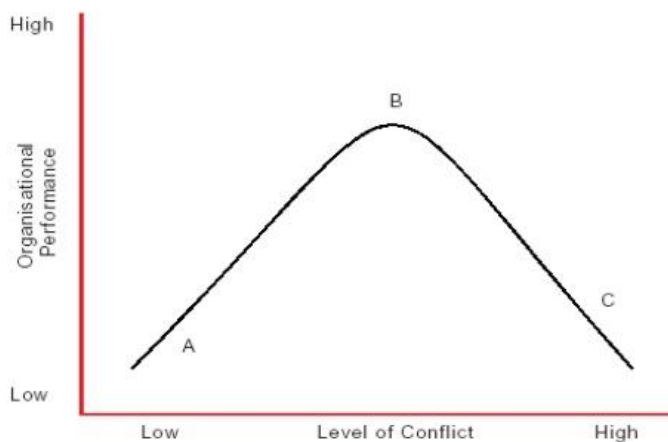
The intergroup conflicts lead to many changes within the group and they increase ingroup cohesiveness, task orientation, directivity of leadership, rigidification of organisational structure and stressing of group unity. There are many benefits of inter group conflicts as the conflict clarifies the real issue, increases innovation, produces cohesiveness within the group and serves as catharsis. The conflict solution helps in solidifying intergroup relationships.

Functional and dysfunctional conflicts

Conflicts can be *functional and dysfunctional*. Functional conflicts are those which result in the improvement of the group's performance. Dysfunctional conflicts are those that obstruct and decreases the group's performance.

Figure: The Effect of Conflict on Organizational Performance

Relation between Organisational Performance and Conflict



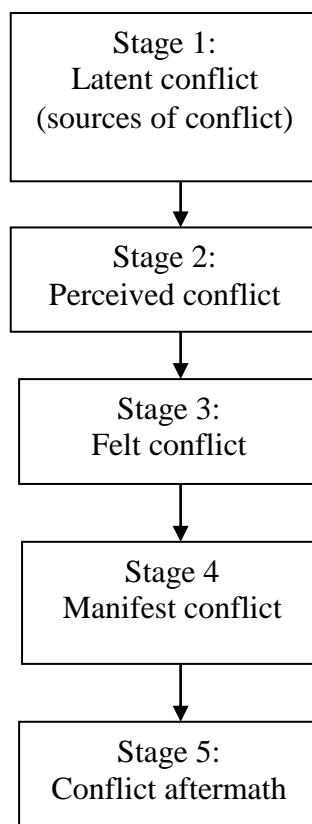
George – Jones, 1996. p. 583.

At first conflicts increase organizational performance. They expose weaknesses in organizational decision making and prompt the organization to make changes. However, at some point an increase in conflicts leads to a decrease in performance. Conflicts may get out of control and the organization may fragment into competing interest groups. The job of a manager is to prevent conflicts from going beyond this point and to channel conflicts to increase organizational performance.

Pondy's model of organizational conflicts

Luis Pondy described conflict as a dynamic process with five stages.

Figure: Pondy's model of organizational conflicts



George – Jones, 1996. p. 586.

To evaluate and understand the nature of a conflict there is a need to examine it by observing it in five stages. Stage one shows the antecedent conditions due to which the conflict originally arose. It will help in allocating the source of the conflict. Stage two helps in perceiving the potential threats of the conflict and makes the involved persons realize the damage it is going to cause to the organization. In the third stage the parties develop negative feelings about each other. As the conflict escalates, cooperation between groups decreases and so does general effectiveness. In the fourth stage a party engages in action which was planned in stage one as now the conflict comes out in the open. The fourth stage is decisive as the outcome of the conflict can be functional as well as dysfunctional. It is a very useful structure to understand different forms of conflicts. Conflict aftermath affects the way both parties perceive and respond to a future conflict episode. If the parties could resolved the conflict by compromise or collaboration the conflict aftermath will promote a good future result.

Thomas-Kilmann conflict handling mods

Managers are required to know the ways to resolve the conflicts in order to maintain a balance between work and subordinates of the organization. The manager should be able to determine the source of the conflict and try to resolve it accordingly. There are various modes to handle conflicts successfully and thus increase performance. It is further stimulated by manipulating the communication channels, by redefining jobs, tasks and activities and by altering behavior patterns.

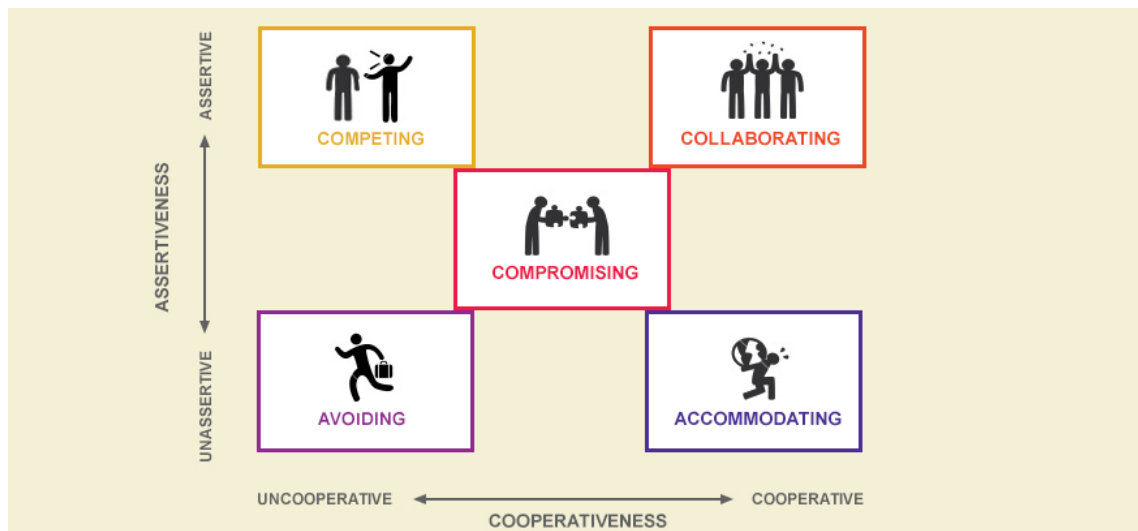
If conflicts are prolonged unnecessarily they might affect the relationship between groups adversely, therefore it is better to clarify the issues as soon as possible. It can increase innovation and cohesiveness. It can become task oriented and might solidify inter-group relationships. Feldman has suggested various resolution

strategies for conflicts. These are conflict-avoidance strategies, conflict-diffusion strategies, conflict-containment strategies and conflict-confrontation strategies.

Manifest conflicts can take many forms. Aggression, violence, there are many stories in organizations about fights in which parties were confused.

As you can see on the following figure there are five basic ways in which people can handle conflicts with others:

Figure: Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Handling Mods



<http://www.mspguide.org/tool/conflict-styles>

The vertical axis measures the degree to which a person is concerned with achieving his/her own goals.

The horizontal axis measures the degree to which a person is concerned with helping others.

Compromising is at the middle of the figure. This usually involves bargaining

in order to reach a solution that is acceptable to both parties. Parties may collaborate to find a solution. Each side may try to satisfy its own goals and the goals of the other side. Compromise and collaboration may enable the parties in dispute to solve their differences. In the case of accommodation one of the parties simply allows the other to achieve its goals. Avoidance means both parties refuse to recognise the real source of the conflict. In the case of competition each party is looking out for its own interests and there is a danger of the conflict escalating.

Exercise: What are your preferences in conflict handling mods?

THOMAS-KILMANN CONFLICT MODE QUESTIONNAIRE³

Consider a situation in which you find your wishes differing from those of another person. How do you usually respond to such a situation?

On the following pages are several pairs of statements describing possible behavioral responses. For each pair, please circle statement "A" or "B" corresponding to your own behavior.

In many cases, neither "A" nor "B" may be very typical of your behaviour but please select the response which you would be more likely to give.

1. A. There are times when I let others take responsibility for solving the problem.

³ <http://www.bluffton.edu/courses/bcomp/301sup/thomas.htm>

B. Rather than negotiating the things we disagree about, I try stressing the things upon which we both agree.

2. A. I try to find a compromise solution.

B. I attempt to deal with all of another's and my concerns.

3. A. I am usually firm in pursuing my goals.

B. I might try to soothe the other person's feelings and preserve our relationship.

4. A. I try to find a compromise solution.

B. I sometimes sacrifice my own wishes for the wishes of the other person.

5. A. I consistently seek the other person's help in working out a solution.

B. I try to do what is necessary to avoid useless tension.

6. A. I try to avoid creating unpleasant feelings for myself.

B. I try to win my position.

7. A. I try to postpone the issue until I have some time to think about it.

B. I give up some points in exchange for others.

8. A. I am usually firm in pursuing my goals.

B. I attempt to get all concerns and issues out in the open immediately.

9. A. I feel that differences are not always worth worrying about.

B. I make some effort to get my way.

10. A. I am firm in pursuing my goals.

B. I try to find a compromise solution.

11. A. I attempt to get all concerns and issues out in the open immediately.
B. I might try to soothe the other's feelings and preserve our relationship.
12. A. I sometimes avoid taking positions which would create controversy.
B. I will let another have some of their positions if they let me have some of mine.
13. A. I propose middle ground.
B. I press on to get my points made.
14. A. I tell the other person my ideas and ask them for theirs.
B. I try to show the other person the logic and benefits of my position.
15. A. I might try to soothe the other person's feelings and preserve our relationship.
B. I try to do what is necessary to avoid tension.
16. A. I try not to hurt the other person's feelings.
B. I try to convince the other person of the merits of my position.
17. A. I am usually firm in pursuing my goals.
B. I try to do what is necessary to avoid useless tensions.
18. A. If it makes the other person happy, I might let them maintain their views.
B. I will let the other person have some of their positions if they let me have some of mine.
19. A. I try to get all concerns and issues out in the open immediately.
B. I try to postpone the issue until I have some time to think it over.

20. A. I attempt to immediately work through our differences.
B. I try to find a fair combination of gains and losses for both of us.
21. A. In approaching negotiations, I try to be considerate of the other person's feelings.
B. I always lean toward a direct discussion of the problem.
22. A. I try to find a position that is intermediate between mine and another person's.
B. I assert my wishes.
23. A. I am often concerned with satisfying all my wishes.
B. There are times when I let others take responsibility for solving problems.
24. A. If the other person's position seems important to him/her, I try to meet his/her wishes.
B. I try to get the other person to settle for a compromise.
25. A. I try to show the other person the logic and benefits of my position.
B. In approaching negotiations, I try to be considerate of the other person's wishes.
26. A. I propose a middle ground.
B. I am nearly always concerned with satisfying all my wishes.
27. A. I sometimes avoid taking positions that would create controversy.
B. If it makes the other person happy, I might let them maintain their views.
28. A. I am usually firm in pursuing my goals.
B. I feel that differences are not always worth worrying about.
29. A. I propose middle ground.
B. I feel that differences are not always worth worrying about.

30. A. I try not to hurt the other person's feelings.
 B. I always share the problem with the other person so that we can work it out.

SCORING THE THOMAS-KILMANN CONFLICT MODE QUESTIONNAIRE

	Competing	Collaborating	Compromising	Avoiding	Accommodating
	(Forcing)	(Problem Solving)	(Sharing)	(Withdrawal)	(Smoothing)
1.				A	B
2.		B	A		
3.	A			B	
4.			A		B
5.		A		B	A
6.	B			A	
7.			B	A	
8.	A	B			
9.	B			A	
10.	A		B		
11.		A			B
12.			B	A	
13.	B		A		
14.	B	A			

15.				B	A
16.	B				A
17.	A			B	
18.			B		A
19.		A		B	
20.		A	B		
21.		B			A
22.	B		A		
23.		A		B	
24.			B		A
25.	A				B
26.		B	A		
27.				A	B
28.	A	B			
29.			A	B	
30.		B			A
Total the number of letters circled in each column.					
	Competing	Collaborating	Compromising	Avoiding	Accommodation
	(Forcing)	(Problem Solving)	(Sharing)	(Withdrawal)	(Smoothing)
	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

Your profile of scores indicates the repertoire of conflict handling skills that you possess and use in conflict situations.

Interpreting Your Scores

One of the most often asked questions is "What are the right answers?" In this type of test, there are no "right" answers. All five modes of handling conflict are useful in various situations and each represents a set of useful social skills.

The effectiveness of handling any conflict depends on the requirements of the conflict and the skill that is employed.

Each of us is capable of using all five conflict-handling modes and none of us can be characterized as having a single rigid style of dealing with conflicts. However, because of personality traits or due to habits, individuals tend to use one or two modes at a greater frequency than the others. Conflict resolution tools that a person employs can be selected based on their personal preference and the requirements of the situation.

The following information may help you judge how appropriately you use the five methods of conflict resolution.

1. Competing is best used:

- a. when quick decisive action is vital; e.g., emergencies
- b. with important issues where an unpopular action is supposed to be taken such as cost cutting or enforcing unpopular rules and discipline
- c. with issues vital to company welfare when you know you are right
- d. to protect yourself against people who take advantage of you.

2. Collaborating is best used:

- a. to find an integrative solution when both sets of concerns are too important to be compromised.
- b. when your objective is to learn; e.g., testing your own assumptions, understanding the views of others.
- c. To merge insights from people with different perspectives on a problem.
- d. to gain commitment by incorporating others' concerns into a consensual decision.
- e. to work through hard feelings

which have been interfering with an interpersonal relationship.

3. Compromising is best used:

- a. when goals are moderately important, but not worth the effort or

potential disruption of more assertive modes.

b. when two opponents with equal power are strongly committed to mutually exclusive goals; i.e., as in labor management bargaining.

c. to reach temporary settlements for complex issues.

d. to arrive at expedient solutions under time pressure.

e. as a backup mode when collaboration or competition fails to be successful.

4. Avoiding is best used:

a. when an issue is trivial, of only passing importance or when other more important issues are pressing.

b. when you perceive no chance of satisfying your concerns; e.g., when you have low power or you are frustrated by something that would be very difficult to change (national policies, someone's personality).

c. when the potential damage of confronting a conflict outweighs the benefits of its resolution

d. to let people cool down; i.e., to reduce tensions to a productive level and regain perspective and composure.

e. when gathering more information outweighs the advantages of an immediate decision.

f. when others can resolve the conflict more effectively.

g. when the issue seems tangential or symptomatic of another more basic issue.

5. Accommodating is best used:

a. when others can resolve the conflict more effectively.

b. when the issue is much more important to the other person than to yourself - to satisfy the needs of others and to show you are reasonable.

c. to build up social credits for later issues which are important to you.

d. when continued competition would only damage your cause, i.e., when you are outmatched and losing.

e. when preserving harmony and avoiding disruption are especially important.

f. to aid in the managerial development of subordinates by allowing

them to experiment and learn from their own mistakes.

FOUNDATION OF GROUP BEHAVIOR - TEAM BUILDING

Learning outcome of the topic:

The students will learn that the effectiveness of a group and an organization hinge on minimizing process losses and having the appropriate level of group cohesiveness. They will get to know the types of groups, the causes of social loafing and the ways of minimizing the negative effects of process losses. They will be able to develop and manage a team. They will adapt a positive attitude toward enhancing group cohesiveness and will know that when group goals are aligned with organizational goals group cohesiveness results in a high level of performance.

Do individuals behave differently in groups than they would on their own? How do group dynamics affect our decision-making skills? Researchers of social psychology write a lot about the benefits and potential pitfalls of belonging to a group.

Social psychology is the science of group behavior which considers the way other people influence our conduct. How do groups affect behavior and what are our roles in these groups?

What distinguishes a group from a collection of individuals?

Two basic attributes define a group:

1. Members of a group interact with each other so that one person's actions affect others and each person is affected by the actions of others.
2. Members of a group perceive that there is potential for mutual goal accomplishment – that is, group members perceive that by

belonging to the group they will be able to accomplish certain goals or meet certain needs.

DEFINITION

A group is a set of two or more people interacting with each other to achieve certain goals or to meet certain needs.

A group goal is one that all or most members of a group can agree on as a common goal.

Group members can have one or more goals in common but this does not mean that all their goals are identical.

For example: four people from different departments belong to a group to work on developing a new product. The departments are the following:

- research and development
- sales
- manufacturing
- engineering

All members of the group may share the common goal of developing the best product. However, they may define the best product differently:

- research and development: the best product has the most innovative features
- sales: the best product is the one that appeals to price – conscious customers most
- manufacturing: the best product is the least expensive to produce
- engineering: the best product is the most reliable one

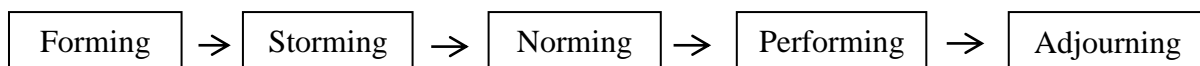
Although they agree on the common goal – giving the customer the best product – they may disagree about what the meaning of “best product” is.

Group development

Managers must be able to recognize and understand group behavior at its various stages. Tuckman identified five stages of group development including forming,

storming, norming, performing and adjourning.

Groups are a common arrangement in today's business environments. Any manager who works with or supervises groups should be familiar with how they develop over time. Perhaps the best-known scheme for a group development was advanced by **Bruce Tuckman** in 1965. Initially, Tuckman identified four stages of group development which included the stages of **forming, storming, norming** and **performing**. A fifth stage – **adjourning** – was added by Tuckman about ten years later. It is believed that these stages are universal to all teams regardless of the group's members, purpose, goal, culture, location, demographics and so on.



Forming

The first stage of group development is known as the **forming stage**. The forming stage represents a time where the group is just starting to come together and is characterized by anxiety and uncertainty. Members are cautious with their behavior which is driven by the desire to be accepted by all members of the group. Conflict, controversy and personal opinions are avoided even though members are beginning to form impressions of each other and gain an understanding of what the group will do together. Some believe this cautious behavior prevents the group from getting any real work done. However, the focus for group members during the forming stage is more on becoming familiar with each other and their purpose, not on work.

Typical outcomes of the forming stage include things like gaining an understanding of the group's purpose, determining how the team will be organized and who will be responsible for what, discussion of major milestones or phases of the group's goal (including a rough project schedule), outlining general group rules (including when they will meet) and discovering the resources that will be available for the group to use.

Storming

The second stage of group development is known as the **storming** stage. The storming stage is where conflict and competition are at their strongest. This is because now that group members have an understanding of the task and a general

feel for who they are as a group and who the other group members are they feel confident and begin to address some of the more important issues surrounding the group. Such issues can relate to things like the group's tasks, individual roles and responsibilities or even with the group members themselves.

The storming stage is where the more dominant of the group's members emerge while other, less confrontational members stay in the comfort and security of suppressing their feelings just as they did in the previous stage. Even though these individuals stay quiet, issues may still exist. All members have an increased need for clarification. Questions surrounding leadership, authority, rules, responsibilities, structure, evaluation criteria and reward systems tend to arise during the storming stage. Such questions must be answered so that the group can move on to the next stage. Consequently, not all groups are able to move past the storming stage.

Norming

Once a group receives the clarity that it so desperately needs, it can move on to the third stage of group development, known as the **norming** stage. The norming stage is the time where the group becomes a cohesive unit. Morale is high as group members actively acknowledge the talents, skills and experience that each member brings to the group. A sense of community is established and the group remains focused on the group's purpose and goal. Members are flexible, interdependent and trust each other. Leadership is shared, and members are willing to adapt to the needs of the group. Information flows seamlessly and is uninhibited due to the sense of security members feel in the norming stage.

Performing

At its peak, the group moves into the fourth stage of group development, known as the **performing** stage. The performing stage is marked by high productivity. Group members are unified, loyal and supportive. Competence in all

members is seen, allowing for a high level of autonomy in decision making.

Adjourning

The group disbands after having accomplished its goals.

Groups do not necessarily go through the stages. Some groups are characterized by considerable levels of conflict throughout their existence and so always have elements of the storming stage present.

Types of work groups

There are many types of groups in organizations – each type plays an important role in determining organizational effectiveness. One way to classify these types is the differentiation of formal and informal groups.

- *Informal group* - emerges naturally when individuals perceive that membership in the group will help them achieve their goals or meet their needs – with likeable people on the basis on sympathy. (E. g.: A group of five workers who go bowling every Sunday night to satisfy their common need for affiliation and friendship)
 - Friendship group (enjoying each other's company)
 - Interest group (common goal)
- *Formal group* – established by management to help the organization achieve its goals. The goals of the formal group are determined by the needs of the organization (product quality committee – to increase product quality and safety).

Four important kinds of formal workgroup are:

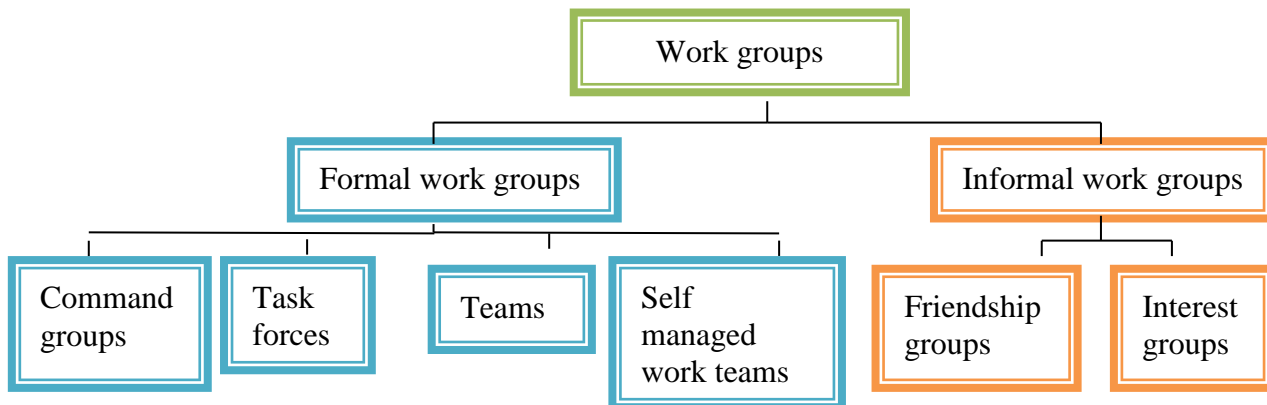
- *Command group* is a collection of subordinates who report to the same supervisor. E. g. departments: marketing, sales, accounting
- *Task force* is a collection of subordinates who come together to accomplish a specific goal. Once the goal has been accomplished the task force is usually disbanded. E.g. groups are established to end sex discrimination

in a law firm. Since the problem can be a long-term one these groups are never disbanded but their membership periodically changes.

This kind of task force is sometimes referred to as standing committees or task groups to capture their permanent nature. E.g. product quality committee. Boeing e. g. uses cross-functional teams – people from different departments such as marketing, engineering, finance – to design and built new kinds of airplanes and has had success with them.

- *Team* is a formal workgroup in which there is a high level of interaction among group members who intensively work together for a common group goal
- *Self-managed work team* is a team with no manager. In this kind of team there is joint responsibility and leadership. Members are responsible for accomplishing group goals, performing leadership tasks, disciplining group members who are not performing at one adequate level, coordinating effort across group members and hiring and firing.

Figure: Types of workgroups



George – Jones, 1996. p. 301.

Productivity

From the viewpoint of organizational behavior it is important to examine how group dynamics affect productivity. For

example, an audience can increase your performance. Fear of evaluation and comparison with others in the group can be motivating.

- **Facilitation** – the effect the physical presence of others has on performance

Does a secretary type more or fewer letters if there are other secretaries in the room?

Two types have been suited:

1. Audience effects: effects of passive spectators not engaged in the task
2. Co-action effects: members are performing the same task as the individual
 - ◆ The presence of other group members enhances the performance of well-learned behaviors
 - ◆ The presence of other group members impairs the performance of difficult, complex, or novel behaviors

On the flipside, social loafing can occur when responsibility for failure and success is distributed to the group. This relief of individual accountability leads some members to decrease productivity and not work as hard on group projects as they would on their own.

How groups control their members?

The group must control their member's behavior. Effective groups control their members behavior and channel it in the direction of high performance. Three mechanisms through which groups control their members' behavior:

- Roles
- Norms
- Status

Roles

Groups are made up of people that each have their own perceptions and expectations of the group and its work. If those perceptions and expectations are not met, conflicts can arise. It is important to

identify the types of roles in groups and where expectations, perceptions, and conflict can arise.

Role Perception, Expectations and Conflict

Every group has members that serve specific roles. It makes no difference if that group is a formal group in business or a social group - those roles are still present. We have the leaders, the followers, the loafers and just about everything in between.

- **Role:** We can define **role** as the part a person plays in a specific situation. For our discussion, that role will be the role someone plays as part of a group (leader, implementer, shaper, etc.). **Roles** are the set of behaviors or tasks that a person is expected to perform. Associated with the role are responsibilities, rights and privileges.
- **Perception:** How a person views or understands a certain situation or issue. You might have heard that **perception** is reality. Well, that is very factual in the sense that the way a person perceives a situation is what leads to their thoughts on the reality of the situation - even if that reality is not correct or accurate.
- **Expectations:** **Expectations** are what we believe should happen as an outcome of a particular situation. During the holidays we expect to get presents but that does not mean we will. As it relates to groups, members have expectations of what the group will do, how they will do it and how it will function. That concept leads us to conflict.
- **Conflict:** **Conflict** is a disagreement or argument based on two opposing opinions of an issue or situation. Thus, we can see how perception and expectations can drive conflict in a group setting. One member might have certain perceptions and expectations about roles and results for the group, while someone else could have a totally different set of perceptions and expectations. When this is present, conflict arises.

Roles Are Situational

Depending on the situation or the need of the group, roles can and do change. While most people understand the more

visible roles, like that of a leader, there are a variety of other roles that are present that come to light depending on the situation at hand. At times, a group needs to have people fill all or some of these roles so the group can actually function.

Group Norms

Groups, though made up of individuals, have their own sets of norms. These sets develop as the group grows and interacts and can change a person's behavior that might be new to the group. Here we review types of norms present in groups and their potential impact on an individual's behavior.

When individuals are in groups there are forces at work that shape how they behave. These forces influence how we act as individuals when we are in a group without being aware of all the factors that consciously or subconsciously impact our behavior.

Those things are norms and there are several types that do impact how we behave in a group. Thus, let us take a look at some of the norms that are present so we can understand how they impact our actions and behavior when in a group.

Types of Norms

As one could expect there are several different types of generally understood norms. They are:
Performance norms: Performance norms are centered on how hard a person should work in a given group. They are informal cues that tell a person or help a person understand how hard they should work and what type of output they should have.

Appearance norms: This type of norm informs or guides us as to how we should look or what our physical appearance should be - what fashion we should wear or how we should style our hair or any number of areas related to how we should look.

Social arrangement norms: When we talk about this type of norm we generally do not equate it to a business setting. This norm is centred on how we should act in

social settings. Once again, there are cues we need to pick up on when we are out with friends or at social events that help us fit in and get a closer connection to the group.

Resource allocation norms: For this type of norm we're focusing on the allocation of resources in a business environment. This can include raw materials as well as overtime or any other resource found or needed within an organization.

Group norm influence on behavior

To understand how these sets of norms influence how we act, we must first understand what is meant by a reference group. A **reference group** is a group that individuals use as a comparison when looking at other groups. Think of a major league baseball team and a minor league one. If you used the major league team as your reference group, that would impact how you view, accept or understand the minor league team. You could compare and contrast the players, their accomplishments and how they function as an organization.

Our social status, or more specifically, how we feel our social status is viewed by others impacts our behavior in many ways. This lesson explores how belonging to certain status groups can influence how we behave and see others.

Status and individual behavior

Status is the implicitly agreed upon, perceived importance of what a group does in an organization)

E. g. a top management team has very high status because it helps to set organizational goals. The more important the task of a work group is the higher the group status is. Members of a group with high status are likely to be motivated to perform at a high level because they see their work as especially important for the success of the organization as a whole.

The boss walks out of his office and everyone in the room tenses up. This group of employees feel nervous or stressed because the boss can impact their lives due to his status. The boss walks

through the room looking at some employees and not looking at others. That alone gets people wondering if it's good to be looked at or not. His status in this group of employees impacts how these individuals perform and work with him.

Now, take that same boss and put him in a meeting at the corporate office with other executives. Some are from larger offices, while others have better relationships with the executives in the corporate office and thus his status is lessened in the group. When he was in his home office (the first group) he was at the top of the hierarchy and now at the corporate office (the second group), he is lower on the totem pole.

This story is an example of the **status characteristics theory** which states that differences in social status create hierarchies within groups. This concept will be the centre of our discussion as we explore how status can impact people in a group, as well as comparing one group's status to another.

Status has its place and power

Social status is all around us and is something we interact with every day. This position or rank compared to others is what drives the hierarchies that are present in society and business. There is a status ranking in social settings (who has the most friends or the most money, who is the smartest, etc.) and in business settings (who has the highest rank in the company, which person is the best engineer, who is the number one salesperson). These statuses ultimately stratify the world around us and break it down into levels based on the setting (social or business). All these levels and layers of status can lead to inequality which can lead to **disequilibrium** which is a loss or lack of balance.

We have all been in groups and settings where we could sense who was higher in status and who was lower. It's not a bad thing or even an appropriate thing. This is just the way human behavior works. It is part of the world we live in, and position, education, income and any other demographic aspect can drive the stratification of individuals and groups.

However, this issue becomes bad or inappropriate when the power that comes with status creates an uncomfortable disequilibrium or is used to keep others down or demean them. Status is power, and that power can be used for good or for evil, depending on the person that wields the power. We can look at heads of state or countries; some work with world leaders to fix issues and make the world a better place (a good use of status power), while others wish to create war or harm individuals (a poor use of status power).

Group status

While it is evident that individuals have power, groups also have power. Thus, the influence a group has can be directly related to the status of that group. Some groups have status and can have more power than another group. That is not to say one group is better than the other but we are talking about status and the power that comes from that status. Thus, groups with a higher degree of status inherently have more power and that power can be transferred to group members depending on their status within the group.

For example, a person might belong to a country club as a full-time member, and full-time country club members might have more power than for example a group of landscapers. Additionally, a person might only be a part-time member of the country club and thus not have the same status as a full-time member.

Group cohesion

Some groups seem to work better together than others. These are often cohesive groups or teams, team building activities can be used to increase group cohesion.

Cohesion is the degree to which group members come together as one unit to reach a common goal. Members of cohesive groups see themselves as one entity rather than a collection of individuals. Group members have a positive regard for one another and get along well. They listen to and trust one

another and respect each other's opinion even if they disagree. It is a feeling of deep loyalty and togetherness and includes the degree to which each individual has made the group's goal his or her own.

The productivity of groups is strongly related to their cohesiveness. In fact, research has shown that cohesive groups perform better than non-cohesive groups in decision-making activities. As a manager, it is critical for you to understand ways to increase cohesiveness in the groups that you lead. One way to improve group cohesion is through team building activities.

Size and group dynamics

There are several dynamics in place when groups grow in size. Understanding these dynamics is important for working in, leading or being part of a group.

- **Social loafing:** When some of the members of the group are not trying to help and are just going through the motions. This is social loafing as individuals making less effort to complete a task because they are in a group.
- **Loss of individuality:** Those members that blended into the group and left their individuality behind are displaying loss of individuality. When we have this dynamic at play, we see individuals lose self-awareness and thus their sense of accountability and responsibility for their individual behavior.
- **Social facilitation:** We had a few members of the group that tried harder when they knew the group was watching them and thus exhibited social facilitation.
- **Polarization:** Finally, as the group began to actually move the boulder, they became **polarized**, or that is to say they strengthened the belief that the boulder could be moved. They developed a strong resolve that the boulder could indeed be moved.

The two aspects that were not parts of our scenario were groupthink and synergy. *Groupthink is where the group begins to make poor decisions due to overall group pressure.*

Individuals think if everyone else thinks this is the right way to go, then I must be wrong in my thinking and will agree with them. Finally, we have **synergy**, which is the aspect of the team or group members working together in a harmonious fashion where the group's results are greater than the sum of its parts. ⁴

Group size and performance

The relationship between group size and performance is an interesting one. As the group gets larger, the dynamics we spoke about earlier become more relevant simply due to the fact that there are more people in the group.

For example, if there is a group of four people, issues like social loafing, polarization and the rest are more easily visible. The communication within the group is much more intimate and if someone does not pull their weight or limits the group's opportunity to polarize, these dynamics can be seen in a much clearer manner because the group is small.

The size of a group is measured by the number of full-time members who work together. It is an important determinant of the way group members behave.

Figure: Group size

- **Size**
 - level of interaction
 - information sharing
 - coordination
 - number of resources
 - division of labour

Figure: Group size advantages

⁴ <http://study.com/academy/lesson/becoming-a-cohesive-group-using-team-building-to-increase-group-cohesion.html>

Potential advantages of smaller groups	Potential advantages of larger groups
<p>Interactions among group members are more frequent.</p> <p>Members are likely to know each other and interact regularly on a day-to-day basis.</p> <p>Information is more easily shared among group members.</p> <p>Group members recognise their contributions to the group.</p> <p>Group members are motivated and committed to the group's goals.</p> <p>Group members are satisfied.</p>	<p>Lower level of interaction, little personal contact, people tend to be less satisfied.</p> <p>The group has many resources to accomplish their goals including member's skills, abilities, knowledge, and experience.</p> <p>The group can have a greater division of labor so group members focus on particular tasks.</p>

George – Jones, 1996. p. 306.

In making a decision about group size managers have to balance the skill and resource advantages and disadvantages. Chief among disadvantages of large group size are the communication and coordination problems which arise as group size increases.

Group composition

Group composition is the degree of similarity among group members.

Figure: Group composition

- Composition:
 - homogenous - heterogeneous
 - getting along
 - level of conflicts
 - decision making

Figure: Group composition advantages

Potential advantages of homogeneous groups	Potential advantages of heterogeneous groups
Members have many characteristics in common (demographic, gender, age, education, ...)	Members do not have many characteristics in common – they are characterised by diversity.
Group members like and get along well with each other.	The group makes good decisions because diverse points of view are represented.
Group members share information, have low level of conflict, and have few coordination problems.	The group performs on a high level because the group has a variety of resources at its disposal.

George – Jones, 1996. p. 307.

Group function is the work that a group performs with which it contributes to the organizational goals.

E. g. a manufacturing department is a command group that has the responsibility for producing the goods that an organization sells. Its function is to produce these goods in a cost-effective manner and maintain appropriate levels of quality.

The importance of team building

Team building requires a sequence of planned activities aimed at improving teamwork to increase group cohesion and effectiveness. Team building works to build better relationships, increase understanding of group goals and improve communications among members. Many underestimate the importance of team building and think that group cohesion and teamwork occur naturally in groups. Unfortunately, quite the opposite is true; those things must be continuously supported and nurtured by all group members. Just think about a sports team. At the beginning of a season, the coach has to spend time

blending a variety of personalities, talents and attitudes together. As the season progresses, players may lose focus, get frustrated with the lack of performance or become complacent. Even world-champion teams have losing streaks and are far from immune to the need for continuous team building activities. When the season draws to a close, it becomes evident which teams worked hard at team building throughout the season and which did not by seeing which teams made it to the playoffs.

Work groups and teams have similar challenges. When a group is newly formed members must tackle the difficulties of becoming familiar with one another and begin the process of working together. As they progress through the stages of group development they too may experience problems of inadequate teamwork and lack of cohesion at various points in time. This is why team building is so important to the long-term success of any group or team. When done correctly and at the right times, team building can help a group manage their level of cohesion and teamwork challenges when they happen or help them prevent such issues from developing at all.

How team building works

The objective of team building is to improve teamwork in order to increase group cohesion and effectiveness. There are many different approaches to team building that can be used to meet this objective depending on the difficulties that a particular group is facing. Three of the most common types of team building include *personality-based team building*, *activity-based team building* and *skills-based team building*.

Personality-based team building

Personality-based team building is used to increase the understanding of who each group member is and how to better communicate with one another. Typically, group members will take a personality assessment that helps them with learning about their own personalities and also about the

personalities of their fellow group members. The assessment results become a learning tool that groups can use to facilitate various developmental activities.

Activity-based team building

Activity-based team building is used to provide a group with challenging tasks aimed at problem-solving, risk-taking, trust-building and paradigm-breaking. These activities may have little to do with what the group does in the real world but serve as an important example for how to apply these skills in their group work.

Skills-based team building

Skills-based team building, in contrast to activity-based team building, is aimed at improving the specific teamwork skills that group members need to accomplish their goal and can be immediately applied in the workplace. Skills such as teamwork, listening, conflict resolution, giving feedback and criticism and running effective meetings are the focus of skills-based team building. Skills-based team building helps to get at the root cause of many group difficulties by addressing the skills needed to work effectively in a group environment.

Although subtle, there are differences between groups and teams. These are typically the reason the group or team was assembled and the goal they are trying to obtain. In this lesson, we will address the differences between groups and teams.

Groups versus teams

The words 'group' and 'team' are, for the most part, interchangeable - at least most people use them that way. But there are distinct differences between groups and teams. For example, we have a football team, not a football group - or we have a special interest group, not a special interest team. While the differences are subtle, they are indeed different and we need to understand what those differences are.

The main difference is that a team's strength or focus depends on the

commonality of their purpose and how the individuals are connected to one another. On the other hand, a group can come from having a large number of people or a cohesive willingness to carry out a focused action - political reform, for example.

While these differences might be subtle, we have to understand that a **group** is a number of individuals forming a unit for a reason or cause and a **team** is a collection of accomplished people coming together for a common goal that needs completion. The subtleness of these differences are more pronounced when we take these words a step further and look at a work group and work team.

Work groups and work teams

In the business world, we have work groups and work teams. A **work team** has members who work interdependently on a specific, common goal to produce an end result for their business. A **work group** is two or more individuals who are interdependent on their accomplishments and may or may not work in the same department. Once again, the differences are subtle, but the main thread is a team works together and shares in the outcome, while the members of a group are more independent of each other.

Figure: Additional aspects of work groups and teams

Work team	Work group
The leader acts as a facilitator.	The leader dominates and controls the group.
The members have active participation in the discussions and eventual outcome.	The leader is apparent and will conduct the meeting.
The team members decide on the disbursements of work assignments.	The leader usually assigns work to the members.

As we can see, a work team is much more formal with a focused goal and objective, while also having its members take a participative role in how the work team

functions. On the other end of the scale we have work groups who work more independently of each other and usually have one leader directing work flow.

What makes teams effective

There are many different facets that make a team effective. While the list of what makes a team effective can be quite long, with attributes like good members or solid leadership, there are aggregate facets that can be identified and will contribute to the team's effectiveness.

They are:

Clear performance goals: Performance goals are the incremental and quantifiable or qualitative accomplishments the team is looking for. The less abstract these goals are, the more cohesively the team can work together to accomplish them. For example, a goal to 'be the best team in the National Football League' is not as clear as having a goal of 'winning the Super Bowl.' It is much easier to be effective if the goals are clear.

Meaningful common purpose: A common purpose is the understanding of what the team is trying to accomplish or what they are working towards. If the purpose is not meaningful to all members (thus they don't share it with each other), it is more difficult to have a group of people function as a team. If the purpose of the team was to eliminate plastic bottles and some team members did not really see that as a pressing world need, the ultimate purpose of the group is not unilaterally common.

Diversity: The concept of diversity is commonly understood to be a condition that is composed of varying elements. In the case of our teams, we strive for diversity as it relates to culture, personality and skill sets. This diversity gives us a wider perspective on any issue the team might be facing and thus allows for a more expansive level of inputs. Think of how challenging it would be if the team was assembled to deal with world hunger but was only made up of individuals from the U.S. that were middle-aged, white male executives from a similar background. There would not be many varying viewpoints or sources of team input – thus the effectiveness of the team could be impacted greatly.

Communication: As with any situation, communication is critical. The sharing and understanding of data and



information as sender and receiver is critical to a team's effectiveness. Put simply, you cannot solve a problem if you cannot openly talk about it and share viewpoints and ideas.

The team role model of Meredith Belbin

“A team is not a bunch of people with job titles, but a congregation of individuals, each of whom has a role which is understood by other members. Members of a team seek out certain roles and they perform most effectively in the ones that are most natural to them.” (R. M. Belbin)

The team roles Belbin identified remain in widespread use today and allow for a useful reflection on team composition. It gives answers of the questions why people prefer some roles over others, how people feel about their role and whether every role required to form a comprehensive team has been filled.

The team roles Belbin identified are the following

1. Plant

Idea generators – creative and unorthodox, bright and free thinking people. Prone to ignore the nitty-gritty in favour of the big picture, not dissimilar from the caricature of the nutty Professor! Too many plants can stall a project as the constant flow of ideas conflict with and distract from each other.

2. Resource investigator

These people are typically good communicators and are fairly strong at negotiating for resources. In this role, if

the team has resources at its disposal but suddenly realizes they need additional or alternate resources, the resource investigator is the person that can help with that. If we take a moment to think about it, not every person has the skill set needed to accomplish this role.

3. Co-ordinator

Calm, confident and good at seeing the big picture, co-ordinators are often great team leaders, with an ability to control and organise. Likely to be more mature than some other types, they can motivate and ensure the team is focused on the end goal.

4. Shaper

These people push the group towards decision-making and like to remove barriers and embrace challenges. A shaper is not always needed in a group but if the group starts to struggle without making decisions or with making decisions, a shaper can help them get to an end result.

5. Monitor evaluator

Monitor evaluators are objective observers, good at taking a broad view and seeing all of the opportunities. Monitor evaluators may not be fast-movers but they'll analyse properly and will ensure ideas and suggestions are treated properly and fairly. Monitor evaluators may be among the more negative team members – take care not to allow them to become overly critical or to damage team passion.

6. Implementer

The person that fills this role gets things done by turning conversations and discussions into action and deliverables. Groups may talk about things they need to do or get accomplished but if there is

not a person there that can take that discussion and turn it into real activities then the discussion is potentially as far as the group will go. We have heard about groups that are working together but don't really get anything done; well, the issue is they may have talked about a lot of great ideas or solutions but nothing was really implemented.

7. Teamworker

Sociable and sensitive, teamworkers are the glue that holds a great team together. They're great listeners, paying attention to how others are performing and reacting while engaging in constant diplomacy which may only be noticed when it's no longer present. Make sure that teamworkers are prepared to make the key decisions when they need to be made as they may be reluctant to take sides.

8. Completer – finisher

The perfectionists in the team, finishers are painstaking with high attention to detail and a meticulous nature. They'll complete a task to perfection and they'll work to their own high standards, making sure everything is 'just right'. That may result in an attitude that detracts the rest of the team though – finishers sometimes end up being overworked because they're reluctant to delegate.

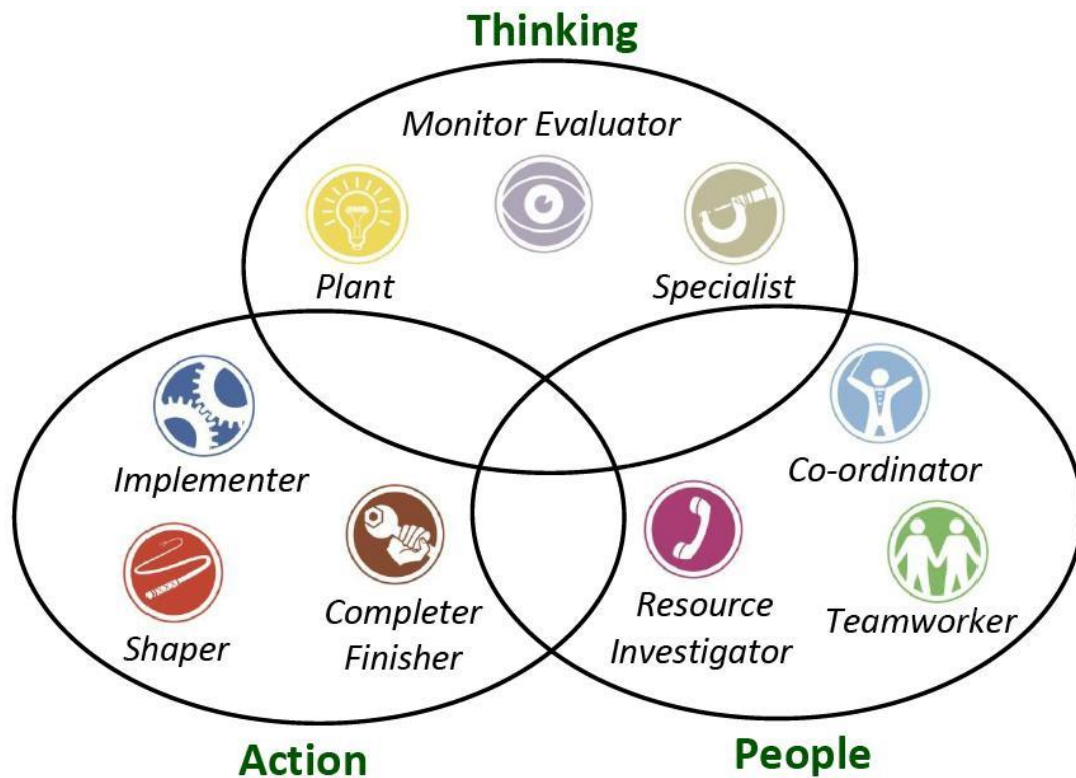
9. Specialist

A subject matter expert, specialists enjoy being the 'font of all knowledge', answering questions from other team members and readily improving upon their specialism where they can. They'll bring considerable ability, but they may not contribute far beyond their own unique 'field'.

Note – specialists weren't included in the original Belbin study – they were added later as there were no specialists included in the original exercise.

Belbin maintains there is no such thing as the ‘ideal’ team, just that some people are more suited to some tasks than others.⁵

Figure: The grouping of team roles



Leadership Solutions, http://www.leadershipsolutions.co.nz/belbin_benefits.cfm

Exercise: Which team roles are appropriate for You?

The Belbin Test - For assessing team roles

This version of the Belbin test has been taken from "Teambuilding" by Alistair Fraser and Suzanne Neville: The Industrial Society 1993.

Self Perception Inventory

⁵ <http://www.precursive.co.uk/the-belbin-team-roles-model-are-you-a-shaper-a-plant-or-an-implementer/>

To complete each section of this inventory, tick in the far left hand column the sentences that are most applicable to yourself (you may tick up to three sentences).

Then in the column on the right, apportion 10 points between those sentences that apply to you: one of which you feel sums you up well while the other only applies some of the time. In this instance you could give your first choice seven points and the remaining points to your second choice. In some instances you might decide that there are two sentences which apply to you equally - if this is the case, award five points to each.

You must allocate all 10 points in each section.

When you have completed the test and reviewed your profile against the characteristics described, you should think about your experiences in teamwork and compare them with the result of the Belbin test.

SECTION A

WHEN INVOLVED IN A PROJECT WITH OTHER PEOPLE:

Tick		Points
<input type="checkbox"/>	I can be relied upon to see that work that needs to be done is organised.	
<input type="checkbox"/>	I pick up slips and omissions that others fail to notice.	
<input type="checkbox"/>	I react strongly when meetings look like losing track of the main objective.	
<input type="checkbox"/>	I produce original suggestions.	
<input type="checkbox"/>	I analyse other people's ideas objectively, for both merits and failings.	
<input type="checkbox"/>	I am keen to find out the latest ideas and developments.	
<input type="checkbox"/>	I have an aptitude for organising people.	
<input type="checkbox"/>	I am always ready to support good suggestions that help to resolve a problem.	

SECTION B

IN SEEKING SATISFACTION THROUGH MY WORK:

Tick		Points
<input type="checkbox"/>	I like to have a strong influence on decisions.	
<input type="checkbox"/>	I feel in my element where work requires a high degree of attention and concentration.	
<input type="checkbox"/>	I am concerned to help colleagues with their problems.	
<input type="checkbox"/>	I like to make critical discrimination between alternatives.	
<input type="checkbox"/>	I tend to have a creative approach to problem solving.	

	I enjoy reconciling different points of view.	
	I am more interested in practicalities than new ideas.	
	I particularly enjoy exploring different views and techniques.	

SECTION C

WHEN THE TEAM IS TRYING TO SOLVE A PARTICULARLY COMPLEX PROBLEM:

Tick		Points
	I keep a watching eye on areas where difficulty may arise.	
	I explore ideas that may have a wider application than in the immediate task.	
	I like to weigh up and evaluate a range of suggestions thoroughly before choosing.	
	I can co-ordinate and use productively other people's abilities and talents.	
	I maintain a steady systematic approach, whatever the pressures.	
	I often produce a new approach to a long continuing problem.	
	I am ready to make my personal views known in a forceful way if necessary.	
	I am ready to help whenever I can.	

SECTION D

IN CARRYING OUT MY DAY-TO-DAY WORK:

Tick		Points
	I am keen to see there is nothing vague about my task and objectives.	
	I am not reluctant to emphasise my own point of view in meetings.	
	I can work with all sorts of people provided that they have got something worthwhile to contribute.	
	I make a point of following up interesting ideas and/or people.	
	I can usually find the argument to refute unsound propositions.	
	I tend to see patterns where others would see items as unconnected.	
	Being busy gives me real satisfaction.	
	I have a quiet interest in getting to know people better.	

SECTION E

IF I AM SUDDENLY GIVEN A DIFFICULT TASK WITH LIMITED TIME AND UNFAMILIAR PEOPLE:

Tick		Points
	I often find my imagination frustrated by working in a group.	
	I find my personal skill particularly appropriate in achieving agreement.	
	My feelings seldom interfere with my judgement.	
	I strive to build up an effective structure.	
	I can work with people who vary widely in their personal qualities and outlook.	

	I feel it is sometimes worth incurring some temporary unpopularity if one is to succeed in getting one's views across in a group.	
	I usually know someone whose specialist knowledge is particularly apt.	
	I seem to develop a natural sense of urgency.	

SECTION F

WHEN SUDDENLY ASKED TO CONSIDER A NEW PROJECT:

Tick		Points
	I start to look around for possible ideas and openings.	
	I am concerned to finish and perfect current work before I start.	
	I approach the problem in a carefully analytical way.	
	I am able to assert myself to get other people involved if necessary.	
	I am able to take an independent and innovative look at most situations.	
	I am happy to take the lead when action is required.	
	I can respond positively to my colleagues and their initiatives.	
	I find it hard to give in a job where the goals are not clearly defined.	

SECTION G

IN CONTRIBUTING TO GROUP PROJECTS IN GENERAL:

Tick		Points
	I think I have a talent for sorting out the concrete steps that need to be taken given a broad brief.	
	My considered judgement may take time but is usually near the mark.	
	A broad range of personal contacts is important to my style of working.	
	I have an eye for getting the details right.	
	I try to make my mark in group meetings.	
	I can see how ideas and techniques can be used in new relationships.	
	I see both sides of a problem and take a decision acceptable to all.	
	I get on well with others and work hard for the team.	

Scoring Key for Self Perception Inventory

Transfer your points allocation from the seven sections of the Self Perception Inventory to the appropriate boxes below. The pre-printed numbers in the grid refer to the question numbers of each section. For example if for Section A you scored seven points for question 6 and three points for question 1, you would allocate them in the columns RI and IMP respectively.

	SH	CO	PL	RI	ME	IMP	TW	CF
A	3 ___	7 ___	4 ___	6 ___	5 ___	1 ___	8 ___	2 ___

B	1 ____	6 ____	5 ____	8 ____	4 ____	7 ____	3 ____	2 ____
C	7 ____	4 ____	6 ____	2 ____	3 ____	5 ____	8 ____	1 ____
D	2 ____	3 ____	6 ____	4 ____	5 ____	1 ____	8 ____	7 ____
E	6 ____	5 ____	1 ____	7 ____	3 ____	4 ____	2 ____	8 ____
F	6 ____	4 ____	5 ____	1 ____	3 ____	8 ____	7 ____	2 ____
G	5 ____	7 ____	6 ____	3 ____	2 ____	1 ____	8 ____	4 ____
Total								

Once you have allocated all your points, total each column. The highest two totals represent your primary and secondary preferred team roles.

The Belbin Team Roles

The personal skill inventory identifies eight team roles which are described below. There is also another team role called the **Specialist** which is not identified in the questionnaire.

SH Shaper

Characteristics

Highly strung, outgoing, dynamic.

Shapers are highly motivated people with a lot of nervous energy and a great need for achievement. Often they seem to be aggressive extroverts with strong drive. Shapers like to challenge, to lead and to push others into action - and to win. If obstacles arise, they will find a way round – but can be headstrong and emotional in response to any form of disappointment or frustration.

Shapers can handle and even thrive on confrontation.

Function

Shapers generally make good managers because they generate action and thrive on pressure. They are excellent at sparking life into a team and are very useful in groups where political complications are apt to slow things down. Shapers are inclined to rise above problems of this kind and forge ahead regardless. They like making necessary changes and do not mind taking unpopular decisions. As the name implies, they try to impose some shape and pattern on group discussion or activities. They are probably the most effective members of a team in guaranteeing positive action.

Strengths

Drive and a readiness to challenge inertia, ineffectiveness, complacency or self-deception.

Allowable Weaknesses

Prone to provocation, irritation and impatience, and a tendency to offend others.

PL Plant

Characteristics

Individualistic, serious-minded, unorthodox.

Plants are innovators and inventors and can be highly creative. They provide the seeds and ideas from which major developments spring. Usually they prefer to operate by themselves at some distance from the other members of the team, using their imagination and often working in an unorthodox way. They tend to be introverted and react strongly to criticism and praise. Their ideas may often be radical and may lack practical constraint.

They are independent, clever and original and may be weak in communicating with other people on a different wave-length.

Function

The main use of a Plant is to generate new proposals and to solve complex problems. Plants are often needed in the initial stages of a project or when a project is failing to progress. Plants have often made their marks as founders of companies or as originators of new products.

Too many Plants in one organisation, however, may be counter-productive as they tend to spend their time reinforcing their own ideas and engaging each other in combat.

Strengths

Genius, imagination, intellect, knowledge.

Allowable Weaknesses

Up in the clouds, inclined to disregard practical details or protocol.

CO Co-ordinator

Characteristics

Calm, self-confident, controlled.

The distinguishing feature of Co-ordinators is their ability to cause others to work to shared goals. Mature, trusting and confident, they delegate readily. In interpersonal relations they are quick to spot individual talents and to use them to pursue group objectives. While Co-ordinators are not necessarily the cleverest members of a team, they have a broad and worldly outlook and generally command respect.

Function

Co-ordinators are useful people to have in charge of a team with diverse skills and personal characteristics. They perform better in dealing with colleagues of near or equal rank than in directing junior subordinates. Their motto might well be "consultation with control" and they usually believe in tackling problems calmly. In some organisations, Co-ordinators are inclined to clash with Shapers due to their contrasting management styles.

Strengths

Welcome all potential contributors on their merits and without prejudice, but without ever losing sight of the main objective.

Allowable Weaknesses

No pretensions as regards intellectual or creative ability.

ME Monitor Evaluator

Characteristics

Sober, unemotional, prudent.

Monitor Evaluators are serious-minded, prudent individuals with a built-in immunity from being over-enthusiastic. They are slow deciders who prefer to think things over - usually with a high critical thinking ability. Good Monitor Evaluators have a capacity for shrewd judgements that take all factors into account and seldom give bad advice.

Function

Monitor Evaluators are at home when analysing problems and evaluating ideas and suggestions. They are very good at weighing up the pros and cons of options and to outsiders seem dry, boring or even over-critical. Some people are surprised that they become managers. Nevertheless, many Monitor Evaluators occupy key planning and strategic posts and thrive in high-level appointments where a relatively small number of decisions carry major consequences.

Strengths

Judgement, discretion, hard-headedness.

Allowable Weaknesses

Lack of inspiration or the ability to motivate others.

RI Resource Investigator

Characteristics

Extroverted, enthusiastic, curious, communicative. Resource Investigators are good communicators both inside and outside the organisation. They are natural negotiators, adept at exploring new opportunities and developing contacts. Although not necessarily a great source of original ideas, they are quick to pick up other people's ideas and build on them. They are skilled at finding out what is available and what can be done, and usually get a warm welcome because of their outgoing nature.

Resource Investigators have relaxed personalities with a strong inquisitive sense and a readiness to

see the possibilities of anything new. However, unless they remain stimulated by others, their enthusiasm rapidly fades.

Function

Resource Investigators are quick to open up and exploit opportunities. They have an ability to think on their feet and to probe others for information. They are the best people to set up external contacts, to search for resources outside the group, and to carry out any negotiations that may be involved.

Strengths

A capacity for finding useful people and promising ideas or opportunities, and a general source of vitality.

Allowable Weaknesses

Liable to lose interest once the initial fascination has passed.

IMP Implementer

Characteristics

Implementers are well organised, enjoy routine and have a practical common-sense and self-discipline. They favour hard work and tackle problems in a systematic fashion. On a wider front they hold unswerving loyalty to the organisation and are less concerned with the pursuit of self-interest.

However, Implementers may find difficulty in coping with new situations.

Function

Implementers are useful because of their reliability and capacity for application. They succeed because they have a sense of what is feasible and relevant. It is said that many executives only do the jobs they wish to do and neglect those tasks which they find distasteful. By contrast, Implementers will do what needs to be done. Good Implementers often progress to high management positions by virtue of good organisational skills and efficiency in dealing with all necessary work.

Strengths

Organising ability, practical common sense, hard-working, self-discipline.

Allowable Weaknesses

Lack of flexibility, resistance to unproven ideas.

TW Team Worker

Characteristics

Socially oriented, rather mild and sensitive.

Team Workers are the most supportive members of a team. They are mild, sociable and concerned about others with a great capacity for flexibility and adapting to different situations and people. Team Workers are perceptive and diplomatic. They are good listeners and are generally popular members of a group. They cope less well with pressure or situations involving the need for confrontation.

Function

The role of the Team Worker is to prevent interpersonal problems within a team and allow everyone to contribute effectively. Since they don't like friction, they will go to great lengths to avoid it. The diplomatic and perceptive skills of a Team Worker become real assets, especially under a managerial regime where conflicts are liable to arise or to be artificially suppressed. Team Worker managers are seen as a threat to no one and therefore can be elected as the most accepted and favoured people to serve under. Team Workers have a lubricating effect on teams. Morale is better and people seem to co-operate better when they are around.

Strengths

Ability to respond to people and situations and to promote team spirit.

Allowable Weaknesses

Indecision at moments of crisis and some failure to provide a clear lead to others.

CF Completer-Finisher

Characteristics

Painstaking, orderly, conscientious, anxious.

Completers, or Completer-Finishers, have a great capacity for follow-through and attention to detail, and seldom start what they cannot finish. They are motivated by internal anxiety, although outwardly they may appear unruffled. Typically, they are introverts who don't need much external stimulus or incentive. Completer-Finishers dislike

carelessness and are intolerant of those with a casual disposition. Reluctant to delegate, they prefer to tackle all tasks themselves.

Function

Completer-Finishers are invaluable where tasks demand close concentration and a high degree of accuracy. They foster a sense of urgency within a team and are good at meeting schedules. In management, they excel by the high standards to which they aspire, and by their concern for precision, attention to detail and follow-through.

Strengths

A capacity for fulfilling their promises and working to the highest standards.

Allowable Weaknesses

A tendency to worry about small things and a reluctance to "let go".

Specialist

Characteristics

Professional, self-starting, dedicated.

Specialists are dedicated individuals who pride themselves on acquiring technical skills and specialist knowledge. Their priorities are to maintain professional standards and advance their own subject. While they show great pride in their own work, they usually lack interest in other people's work, and even in other people themselves. Eventually, the Specialist becomes the expert by sheer commitment along a narrow front. Few possess the single-mindedness, dedication and aptitude to become a first-class Specialist.

Function

Specialists play an indispensable part in some teams, for they provide the rare skill upon which the organisation's service or product is based. As managers, they command support because they know more about their subject than anyone else and can usually be called upon to make decisions based on in-depth experience.

Strengths

Provide knowledge or technical skills in rare supply.

Allowable Weaknesses

Contribute only on a narrow front.

LEADERSHIP THEORIES

Learning outcome

Students will know that leaders at all levels of organizations help individuals, groups and the organization as a whole achieve their goals. They will learn how leaders influence their followers and that a lot of behaviors of leaders fall into two main categories: consideration and initiating structure. They will learn about Hersey's contingency theory proposing that leader effectiveness depends on leader style and situational characteristics. They will be able to diagnose their followers and to choose the right leadership style independently.

Opening case

Leaders at Intel

Today, most personal computers (PCs) bear the catchy "Intel Inside" trademark

indicating that they use at least one of the chips made by Intel Corporation, one of the largest producers of semiconductors and microprocessors used in PCs and other electronic products. Intel's profits have soared, and its future looks rosier than ever. In the mid-to-late 1980s, however, Intel was losing money, and it looked as though the company might be going down the tubes. The transformation came about through a series of good, creative decisions.

Andrew Grove, Intel's CEO and one of its founders, is credited with spearheading a decision-making process that resulted in the spending of billions of dollars on innovative research and development and on the construction of new, advanced manufacturing plants. Grove has given a lot of thought to effective decision making in organizations.

Grove maintains that decision makers should always be on the lookout for new opportunities and be at least one step ahead of competitors. In an industry in which technology changes so rapidly, decision makers need to make quick decisions and take advantage of new opportunities as they arise. Intel is constantly coming up with new kinds of computer chips (such as the Premium) in its attempt to stay one step ahead of its competitors.

Grove believes that decision makers need to take risks and be creative but must be willing to admit when they have made mistakes and move quickly to cut their losses. In late 1992, for example, Intel decided that three projects in which the company had invested around \$35 million should be dropped. Grove and other managers at Intel acknowledge their bad decisions and abandon projects that show no signs of paying off. As the dramatic rises in the price of Intel stock attest, however, Intel is making many more good decisions than bad.

Grove's approach to decision making emphasizes the need for change in response to changes inside an organization (such as changes in an organization's employees) and outside an organisation (such as changes in what customers want or in available technology). Decision making should take into account the need for change, and decision makers should try to change their ways of viewing problems and

opportunities to mirror the dynamics of the marketplace. For example, ten years ago Intel was primarily manufacturing semiconductor memories and selling them to a few major customers. Now, Intel makes microprocessors and views its customer base as including all 100 million end users of PCs. When making decisions now, Intel managers are trying to figure out what these customers will need in ten years and how Intel can design microprocessors to help satisfy those needs.

Grove acknowledges that making decisions involving millions of dollars can be stressful, especially when the future is uncertain. He says: “The pace of work these days isn’t easy to live with, but welcome to the Nineties. Intel didn’t create this world; we’re just supplying the tools with which we can all work ourselves to death. Exhausting as it is, it’s highly preferable to being unemployed.

Which traits of leaders are important at Intel?

Which leader behaviour is successful in this case?

Approaches to leadership

Developing a precise definition of leadership is difficult. Researchers disagree on many of the characteristics of leadership but they generally agree on to characteristics:

1. Leadership involves exerting influence over other members of a group or organization.
2. Leadership involves helping a group or organization to achieve its goals.

DEFINITION:

Leadership is the exercise of influence by one member of a group or organization over other members to help the group or organization to achieve its goals.

There are a lot of approaches of leadership. The main question of this approaches is: What makes a good

effective leader? Two of the earliest perspectives are the trait approach and the behavior approach.

- The researchers of trait approach tried to identify enduring personal characteristics and traits that distinguish leaders from followers. Summarizing the researches of trait approach: the trait approach alone cannot fully explain why or how effective leadership occurs. Many individuals who possess the identified traits never become leaders, and many leaders who possess them are not effective.
- The behavior approach focuses on what leaders actually do. Researchers at Ohio State University in the 1940s and 1950s sought to identify what effective leaders actually do, what the specific behaviors that contribute to their effectiveness are. The result of their researches was the following: most leader behaviors involved either consideration or initiating structure.
 - A leader who engages in consideration also shows followers that he or she cares about their well-being and is concerned about how they feel and what they think.
 - A leader who engages in initiating structure makes sure that work gets done and subordinates perform their jobs. Initiating-structure behaviors are for example: assigning individual tasks to followers, planning ahead, setting goals, deciding how the work should be performed, pushing followers to get their tasks accomplished.
 - Other behaviour models: Blake Mouton Managerial Grid: *Balancing Task- and People-Oriented Leadership*

When your boss puts you in charge of organizing the company Christmas party, what do you do first? Do you develop a time line and start assigning tasks or do you think about who would prefer to do what and try to schedule around their needs? When the planning starts to fall behind schedule, what is your first reaction? Do you chase everyone to get back on track, or do you ease off a bit recognizing that everyone is busy just doing his/her job, let alone the extra tasks you've assigned? Your answers to these types of questions can reveal a great deal about your personal leadership style.

Some leaders are very task-oriented; they simply want to get things done. Others are very people-oriented; they want people to be happy. And others are a combination of the two. If you prefer to lead by setting and enforcing tight schedules, you tend to be more production-oriented (or task-oriented). If you make people your priority and try to accommodate employee needs, then you're more people-oriented.

Neither preference is right or wrong, just as no one type of leadership style is best for all situations. However, it's useful to understand what your natural leadership tendencies are, so that you can then work on developing the skills that you may be lacking.

A popular framework for thinking about a leader's 'task versus person' orientation was developed by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton in the early 1960s called the Managerial Grid, or Leadership Grid. It plots the degree of task-centeredness versus person-centeredness and identifies five combinations as distinct leadership styles.

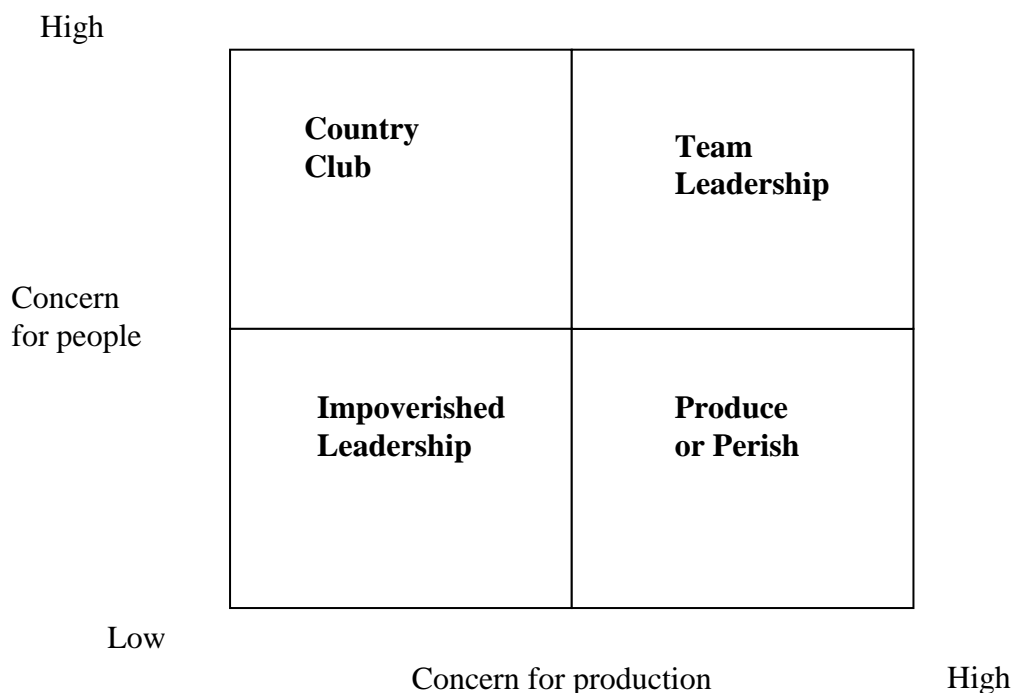
The Managerial Grid

The Managerial Grid is based on two behavioral dimensions:

- **Concern for People** - This is the degree to which a leader considers the needs of team members, their interests and areas of personal development when deciding how best to accomplish a task.
- **Concern for Production** - This is the degree to which a leader emphasizes concrete objectives, organizational efficiency and high productivity when deciding how best to accomplish a task.

Using the axis to plot leadership 'concerns for production' versus 'concerns for people', Blake and Mouton defined the following five leadership styles:

Figure: the Blake – Mouton Grid



Country Club Leadership - High People/Low Production. This style of leader is most concerned about the needs and feelings of members of his/her team. These people operate under the assumption that as long as team members are happy and secure then they will work hard. What tends to result is a work environment that is very relaxed and fun but where production suffers due to lack of direction and control.

Produce or Perish Leadership - High Production/Low People. Also known as Authoritarian or Compliance Leaders, people in this category believe that employees are simply a means to an end. Employee needs are always secondary to the need for efficient and productive workplaces. This type of leader is very autocratic, has strict work rules, policies and procedures, and views punishment as

the most effective means to motivate employees.

Impoverished Leadership - Low Production/ Low People.

This leader is mostly ineffective. He/she has neither a high regard for creating systems for getting the job done nor for creating a work environment that is satisfying and motivating. The result is a place of disorganization, dissatisfaction and disharmony.

Middle-of-the-Road Leadership - Medium Production/Medium People.

This style seems to be a balance of the two competing concerns. It may at first appear to be an ideal compromise. Therein lies the problem, though: when you compromise, you necessarily give away a bit of each concern so that neither production nor people needs are fully met. Leaders who use this style settle for average performance and often believe that this is the most anyone can expect.

Team Leadership - High Production/High People.

According to the Blake Mouton model, this is the pinnacle of managerial style. These leaders value production needs and the needs of the people equally highly. The premise here is that employees are involved in understanding organizational purpose and determining production needs. When employees are committed to, and have a stake in the organization's success, their needs and production needs coincide. This creates a team environment based on trust and respect which leads to high satisfaction and motivation and, as a result, high production.

Applying the Blake Mouton Managerial Grid

Being aware of the various approaches is the first step in understanding and improving how well you perform as a manager. It is important to understand how you currently operate, so that you can then identify ways of becoming competent in both realms.

Step One: Identify your leadership style.

- Think of some recent situations where you were the leader.

- For each of these situations, place yourself in the grid according to where you believe you fit.

Step Two: Identify areas of improvement and develop your leadership skills

- Look at your current leadership method and critically analyse its effectiveness.
- Look at ways you can improve. Are you settling for 'middle of the road' because it is easier than reaching for more?
- Identify ways to get the skills you need to reach the Team Leadership position. These may include involving others in problem solving or improving how you communicate with them, if you feel you are too task-oriented.
- Continually monitor your performance and watch for situations when you slip back into bad old habits.

Step Three: Put the Grid in context

It is important to recognize that team leadership style isn't always the most effective approach in every situation. While the benefits of democratic and participative management are universally accepted, there are times that call for more attention in one area than another. If your company is in the midst of a merger or some other significant change, it is often acceptable to place a higher emphasis on people than on production. Likewise, when faced with an economic hardship or physical risk, people concerns may be placed on the back burner, for the short-term at least, to achieve high productivity and efficiency.

Key Points

The Blake Mouton Managerial Grid is a practical and useful framework that helps you think about your leadership style. By plotting 'concern for production' against 'concern for people', the grid highlights how placing too much emphasis in one area at the expense of the other leads to low overall productivity.

The model proposes that when both people and production concerns are high, employee engagement and productivity increases accordingly. This is often true and it follows the ideas of Theories X and

Y, and other participative management theories.

While the grid does not entirely address the complexity of "Which leadership style is best?" it certainly provides an excellent starting place to critically analyse your own performance and improve your general leadership skills. ⁶

The contingency model of Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard

The **situational leadership theory** (or **situational leadership model**) is a leadership theory developed by professor Paul Hersey and leadership trainer Ken Blanchard while working on the first edition of *Management of Organizational Behavior*. The theory was first introduced as "Life Cycle Theory of Leadership". During the mid-seventies, "Life Cycle Theory of Leadership" was renamed "Situational Leadership Theory".

The fundamental underpinning of the situational leadership theory is that there is no single "best" style of leadership. Effective leadership is task-relevant and the most successful leaders are those who adapt their leadership style to the maturity ("the capacity to set high but attainable goals, willingness and ability to take responsibility for the task, and relevant education and/or experience of an individual or a group for the task") of the individual or group they are attempting to lead or influence. Effective leadership varies not only with the person or group that is being influenced, but it also depends on the task, job or function that needs to be accomplished.

The Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership Model rests on two fundamental concepts; leadership style and the individual or group's maturity level.

Hersey and Blanchard characterized leadership style in terms of the amount of

⁶ https://www.mindtools.com/pages/article/newLDR_73.htm

Task Behavior and Relationship Behavior that the leader provides to their followers. They categorized all leadership styles into four behavior types, which they named S1 to S4:

- **S1: Telling** – is characterized by one-way communication in which the leader defines the roles of the individual or group and provides the what, how, why, when and where to do the task;
- **S2: Selling** – while the leader is still providing the direction, he or she is now using two-way communication and providing the socio-emotional support that will allow the individual or group being influenced to buy into the process;
- **S3: Supporting**– shared decision-making about aspects of how the task is accomplished and the leader is providing fewer task behaviors while maintaining high relationship behavior;
- **S4: Delegating** – the leader is still involved in decisions, however, the process and responsibility has been passed to the individual or group. The leader stays involved to monitor progress.

Of these, no one style is considered optimal for all leaders to use all the time. Effective leaders need to be flexible and must adapt themselves according to the situation.

Table: Development levels

R4	R3	R2	R1
Very capable and confident	Capable but unwilling	Unable but willing	Unable and insecure

The right leadership style will depend on the person or group being led. The Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership Theory identified four levels of the readiness of the follower from R1 through R4:

- **R1: Unable and insecure** – Followers still lack the specific skills required for the job in hand and are unable and unwilling to do or to take responsibility for this job or task. (According to Ken

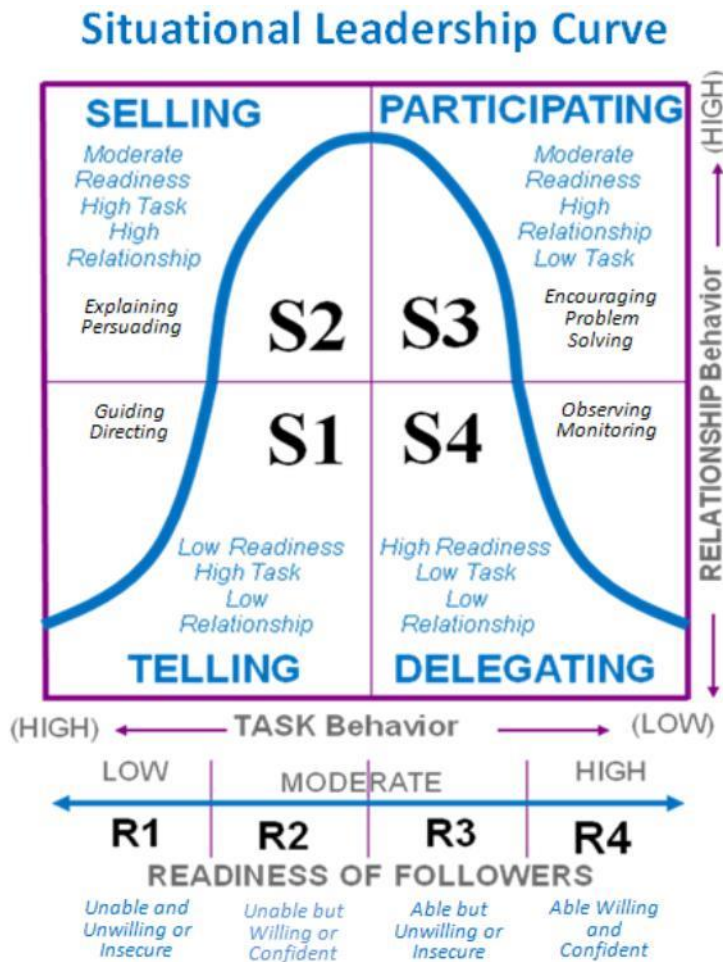
Blanchard "The honeymoon is over")

- **R2: Unable but willing** – Followers are unable to take responsibility for the task being done; however, they are willing to work on the task. They are novices but enthusiastic.
- **R3: Capable but unwilling** – Followers are experienced and able to perform the task but lack the confidence or the willingness to take responsibility.
- **R4: Very capable and confident** – Followers are experienced at the task and comfortable with their own ability to do it well. They are able and willing to not only perform the task but to take responsibility for it as well.

Development levels are also task-specific. A person might be generally skilled, confident and motivated in his/her job but would still have a maturity level M1 when asked to perform a task requiring skills he/she does not possess.



Figure: Model of situational leadership theory



https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Situational_leadership_theory

Theory X and Theory Y

Social psychologist Douglas McGregor of MIT expounded two contrasting theories on human motivation and management in the 1960s: The X Theory and the Y Theory. McGregor promoted Theory Y as the basis of good management practice,

pioneering the argument that workers are not merely cogs in the company machinery, as Theory X-Type organizations seemed to believe.

The theories look at how a manager's perceptions of what motivates his or her team members affect the way he or she behaves. By understanding how your assumptions about employees' motivation can influence your management style, you can adapt your approach appropriately and so manage people more effectively.

Your management style is strongly influenced by your beliefs and assumptions about what motivates members of your team: If you believe that team members dislike work, you will tend towards an authoritarian style of management. On the other hand, if you assume that employees take pride in doing a good job, you will tend to adopt a more participative style.

Theory X

Theory X assumes that employees are naturally unmotivated and dislike working which in turn encourages an authoritarian style of management. According to this view, management must actively intervene to get things done. This style of management assumes that workers:

- Dislike working;
- Avoid responsibility and need to be directed;
- Have to be controlled, forced, and threatened to deliver what's needed;
- Need to be supervised at every step with controls put in place;
- Need to be enticed to produce results; otherwise they have no ambition or incentive to work.

X-Type organizations tend to be top heavy with managers and supervisors required at every step to control workers. There is little delegation of authority and control remains firmly centralized.

McGregor recognized that X-Type workers are in fact usually the minority and yet in mass organizations, such as large scale production environment, X Theory management may be required and can be unavoidable.

Theory Y

Theory Y expounds a participative style of management that is de-centralized. It assumes that employees are happy to

work, are self-motivated and creative and enjoy working with greater responsibility. It assumes that workers:

- Take responsibility and are motivated to fulfil the goals they are given;
- Seek and accept responsibility and do not need much direction;
- Consider work as a natural part of life and solve work problems imaginatively.

This more participative management style tends to be more widely applicable. In Y-Type organizations, people at lower levels of the organization are involved in decision making and have more responsibility.

Comparing Theory X and Theory Y

- **Motivation**

Theory X assumes that people dislike working; they want to avoid it and do not want to take responsibility. Theory Y assumes that people are self-motivated, and thrive for responsibility.

- **Management Style and Control**

In a Theory X organization management is authoritarian and centralized control is retained, whilst in Theory Y the management style is participative: management involves employees in decision making but retains power to implement decisions.

- **Work Organization**

Theory X employees tend to have specialized and often repetitive work. In Theory Y the work tends to be organized around wider areas of skill or knowledge; employees are also encouraged to develop expertise and make suggestions and improvements.

- **Rewards and Appraisals**

Theory X organizations work on a ‘carrot and stick’ basis and performance appraisal is part of the overall mechanisms of control and remuneration. In Theory Y organizations appraisal is also regular and important but is usually a separate mechanism from organizational controls. Theory Y organizations also give employees frequent opportunities for promotion.

- **Application**

Although the Theory X management style is widely accepted as inferior to others, it has its place in large-scale production operation and unskilled production line work. Many of the principles of Theory Y are widely adopted by types of organization that value and encourage participation. Theory Y-style management is suited to knowledge work and professional services. Professional service organizations naturally evolve Theory Y-type practices by the nature of their work; even highly structured knowledge work, such as call center operations, can benefit from its principles to encourage knowledge sharing and continuous improvement.

https://www.mindtools.com/pages/article/newLDR_74.htm

CULTURE AND CULTURAL DIFFERENCES

Learning outcomes

Students will learn that organizational culture is the set of informal values and norms that control the way individuals and groups interact with each other. They will know that this culture has several levels, so organizations possess both a visible and an invisible level of culture. They will know that the values of the founders and the ethical values the organization are developed to inform its employees about appropriate ways to behave in the given organization. They will be able to see the difference between a strong and a weak culture with their respective advantages and disadvantages. They will learn the dimensions of Hofstede about cultural differences and the main skills to communicate effectively with people from other cultures.

“National culture is the name we give to that which distinguishes the people of one country from those of another.” (G. Hofstede)

Opening case

Do I have to listen to *everyone's* opinion?

On a Spring afternoon Jeri Hawthorne, an

American human resources professional who specializes in intercultural awareness and training, gathered a group of eight people in a small conference room at Novo Nordisk in Copenhagen. Jeri's team was in the final stages of creating a three-day intensive intercultural training program for HR professionals. She had a lot of credibility riding on the success of that very visible program.

Ordinarily, at her company such a content-intensive meeting would include only those who were steeped in intercultural theory and program design. But this time Jeri included the team's administrative support staff because they were responsible for helping with travel plans for the event. There was likely to be some discussion about logistics, including hotels and lodging, and she figured it was more efficient to include those issues now and enhance the cohesiveness of the team.

Familiar with the Danish sense of group identity and strong egalitarian values, Jeri was aware that everyone in the meeting would be expected to contribute. Everyone would expect to have his or her opinion taken into serious consideration — from her most experienced and academically degreed peer to the newest clerk who had just joined the organization. All considered themselves equals in the group.

Jeri had worked very hard preparing for the meeting because the training was for high-level professionals and this session was the only chance all of her team members had to get together for the final preparation. She had a packed agenda in which every moment counted.

Jeri moved to the front of the room and began showing the content-laden slides that would make up the bulk of the training program. Unexpectedly, a young woman chimed in, "I don't think you should say it that way. Someone might be offended. You should say it this way," and she offered another choice of words.

Jeri tried to move past that statement and continue but other colleagues began to come in with additional opinions that Jeri felt were of minor value. Suddenly, Jeri felt her carefully crafted agenda falling apart. She had planned for a densely scheduled day, and this preliminary subject was not one she expected to have to discuss.

Precious time was being taken out of the day to address a concern raised by someone who by most standards wasn't qualified to pose such a roadblock. Yet the whole group felt it was important to engage in the discussion.

Much to her chagrin, Jeri knew she had to stifle her personal cultural preference to put quick closure to the discussion. She was aware that in the group-focused, egalitarian Danish culture, every opinion needed to be explored, and in many cases consensus was necessary.

She couldn't help but imagine how she would have handled this at home, in Washington, D.C. There, in the individualist American culture, as discussion leader, she could have put an end to the dialogue and imposed her individual will, especially since it had majority support. She was accustomed to soliciting input from knowledgeable colleagues and then making a decision. She prided herself on how quickly and effectively she could make good decisions and how tolerant she was to acceptable business risks. Others acknowledged her capabilities in that area.

Now Jeri could hear her own cultural lessons playing in her mind. "You have to listen and at least acknowledge this point of view," she said to herself. "If you don't agree, you have to explain why and give the theoretical explanation. Otherwise, you might find other people jumping in to say, 'We never thought of it that way, and even though the academic definition is correct, this novice has a good point and we might want to change the phrasing.'

By the time the discussion ended, Jeri had to figure out a way to recover the hour that she'd lost from the dialogue. She was frustrated but knew it would have been unproductive to try to push the interaction in any other way.

"When it works, this type of group dynamic means you get the best thinking of several people," she said. "When it doesn't, you can end up having to rephrase thoughts to take into account everyone's opinion. You risk ending up

with something so watered down that it doesn't resemble the original idea.”

You have to be prepared for that. Fortunately, Jeri understood the importance of allowing and seeking full group participation and endorsement. All too often people from individualist societies do not allow for that kind of consensus process. They quickly lose patience with the consensus process, and although they may succeed in driving their point across, they are unlikely to get the group support needed to bring the project to a successful outcome.

Group focus, however, is not always intertwined with egalitarianism, as it is in the Scandinavian countries. Anyone who has worked with Asian group-focused cultures such as Japan and Thailand probably has experienced equally frustrating situations in which there is apparent agreement around a concept (or schedule) from the senior members of an organization who are attending a meeting, only to hear them say that they need to take the idea back to their reports to get approval and buy-in. Even though this is from a hierarchical rather than egalitarian perspective, people from group-focused societies nevertheless feel the need to come to a collective decision. (Solomon – Schell, 2009)

Organizational culture

What is culture?

- Is it the way people act?
- Is it what they think?
- Is it what they believe?

The answer to all three questions is yes. Culture is everything you see around you: the words people use, the food they eat, their clothes, the space of their lives. But that's only the surface: what is called “visible” culture, these are only the first impressions.

We learned that individuals have personalities and so do organizations. Researchers propose that organizations, like people, can be characterized as, for

example, rigid, friendly, warm, innovative or conservative. These traits can be used to predict attitudes and behaviors of the people within these organisations.

The interest of business studies in culture emerged in the late 1970s. The main reasons were:

- The expansion of highly technical work;
- The growth of service industries;
- The „Japanese miracle”;
- Globalization – the breaking down of economic, political, cultural and technical barriers between countries.

Since the 1970s culture has been an important topic of business studies, management and organizational psychology. E. Schein is one of the most famous researchers of organizational culture. According to him culture is „the hidden force that drives most of our behaviour both of inside and outside organizations.” (Schein, 2009. p. 3.) We are member of a country, a family and a social group and each of this cultures is a part of us and impacts us.

DEFINITIONS

There are a lot of definitions of culture; when two researchers tried to count them all, they found approximately 150. The most simple definition of culture is: „*The way we do things around here*” M. Bower.

Another definition by E. Schein is a bit more difficult: “*A pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way you perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems.*” (Schein, 2004. p.6.)

In summary, organizational culture refers to a system of shared meaning held by members that distinguishes the organization from other organizations.

Seven primary characteristics seem to capture the essence of an organization's culture:

1. Innovation and risk taking;
2. Attention to detail;
3. Outcome orientation;
4. People orientation;
5. Team orientation;
6. Aggressiveness;
7. Stability.

Each of these characteristics exists on a continuum from low to high. Organizational culture shows how employees perceive the characteristics of an organization's culture: does it encourage teamwork? Does it reward innovation? Does it promote initiative?

Do organizations have uniform culture?

Organizational culture represents a common perception members hold. Of course, there are subcultures. Most large organizations have a dominant culture and numerous subcultures.

A dominant culture expresses the core values the majority of members share. Subcultures develop in large organizations to reflect common problems members face in the same department or location, subcultures include the core values of the dominant culture plus additional values unique to members of the specific department.

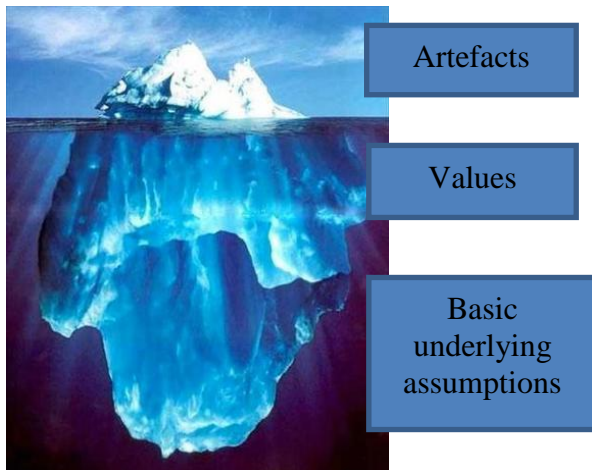
The iceberg model of culture

Experts use the iceberg analogy to describe the complex nature of culture. The part of the iceberg that's below the surface — termed invisible culture — is far more powerful than the area of visible culture because you don't know what exactly it includes. The only way to deal successfully with people from a different group or country is to be aware of what's going on below the surface and use that knowledge to shape

your own behavior and expectations. If you don't understand the fact that what's below the surface is far more powerful and potentially dangerous than what you can see, you run the risk of hitting the invisible part of the iceberg.

Figure 1 illustrates that the visible part of a society — visible culture — is far smaller than what lies beneath the surface.

Figure 1: The iceberg model of culture:



Several experts use an onion metaphor to show the complex nature of culture. Culture has visible and invisible parts. A part of values and basic assumptions are unconscious. Below the surface – the invisible culture is more powerful, than the area of visible culture because we don't know what it includes. Fons Trompenaars refers to these hidden layers of culture as being as natural as walking or breathing.

What three monkeys told us about culture?

There is a supposedly true story about the results of some research into animal behaviour that I think perfectly illustrates the primary challenge we face with cultural change.

There are three monkeys in an enclosure. Above the third monkey there is a pole with a bunch of bananas at the top. The third monkey naturally reaches for the

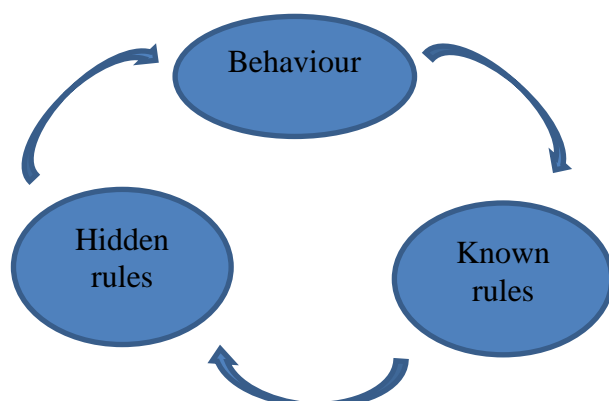
bananas, and as he takes one the other two monkeys are soaked with high - power water hoses. It doesn't hurt the monkeys but it's an unpleasant experience for them.

Needless to say, the two wet monkeys are unhappy with the turn of events and glare at the third monkey who is busily munching on his favourite food. None of the monkeys realise there is a connection between the soaking and the bananas – yet. As monkey number three tries to climb the pole and reach for another banana, the other two are soaked again. So much so, that as soon as the third monkey reaches for yet another banana the other two attack to stop him from eating the bananas.

Monkeys one and two have connected “getting wet” to “bananas”. This is all quite straightforward until the scientist replaces the third monkey with a new monkey. The new monkey spots the bananas and as he stretches out his arm he is immediately attacked by the other two monkeys. The new monkey doesn't quite understand why but quickly stops going after the bananas. Some time passes and the scientists replace one of the “wet” monkeys with a new monkey. This new monkey again goes for the bananas and the other two attack him. Then the scientist replaces the third – and last – original monkey with a new one. This new monkey goes for the bananas and is immediately attacked and has no idea why - nevertheless, it stops trying to get the bananas. Even when all the monkeys are replaced, and therefore none of them have actually experienced the reward and punishment system, no new monkey even attempts to eat the bananas. The reward/punishment system created a way of operating within the enclosure that all new monkeys adopted as the cultural norm and accepted. To them, it was “just what happens around here” even though they had no idea why. And that's exactly what happens in an organisation. Let me try and put some framework around this. Organisational culture is made up of the three elements shown in the figure below:



Figure: Elements of organisational culture



Behavior: you can see, hear and touch behavior; it's tangible and can be measured.

Known rules: these are usually written down or at least exist in someone's head and, as such, are easy to discover. They will usually drive behaviour and that isn't necessarily a problem.

Hidden rules: these are never written down; more often than not, they are unconscious. They are understood through experience and taken for granted by those in the organisation. Hidden rules are to people what water is to fish. A fish has no awareness of the water it swims in; people who have been indoctrinated into an organisational culture have no awareness of the hidden rules they navigate every day. They in turn influence these hidden rules so they gradually evolve over time.

More than anything, the monkey story is about hidden rules. Most of us will have felt like one of those monkeys at some point in our working lives. We join an organisation and we can't work out why something is happening.⁷

Culture and personality, the ASA model of Ben Schneider

As we mentioned in Chapter 1, Ben Schneider has come up with an

⁷http://www.changefirst.com/uploads/documents/What_three_monkeys_told_us_about_cultur_e.pdf

interesting view of the way which personality determines the culture of the organization. He calls his schema the attraction – selection – attrition (ASA) framework. He suggests that individuals with similar personalities tend to be attracted to an organization. As a result of the interplay of attraction – selection – attrition, there is some consistency or similarity of personalities in the organization, and this „typical” personality determines the nature of the organization itself.

The implication of the ASA model: people who are creative and like to take risk would be attracted to entrepreneurial organizations. Individuals who don't have this orientation either would not seek jobs with these organizations or would be likely to leave them. Over time, ASA processes may result in these organizations being composed of large numbers of creative risk takers who give the organization its entrepreneurial nature. The entrepreneurial nature of the organization influences employees' feelings, thoughts and behavior and reinforces their own propensity for risk taking. ASA process can also lead on organization to perform poorly or fail. This negative outcome occurs when most members of the organization view opportunities and problems in the same way and are resistant to making needed changes.

The functions of culture

1. Culture has a boundary – defining role: it creates distinction between one organization and others.
2. Culture conveys a sense of identity for organizational members.
3. Culture facilitates commitment to something larger than individual self–interest.
4. Culture enhances the stability of the social system. It is a social glue that helps hold the organization together.
5. It is a sense making and control mechanism that guides and shapes employees' attitudes and behaviour.

Strong versus weak culture

Researchers differentiate between strong and weak culture. If most employees have

the same opinions about the organization there is probably a strong culture with the following characteristics:

- Core values are intensely held and widely shared;
- Have a great influence of its members;
- Builds cohesiveness, loyalty and commitment.

The characteristics of a weak culture are the following:

- Values shared by a few members;
- Not very clear - what is important;
- Little knowledge about company history or heroes;
- Little connection between shared values and behavior.

Culture creates climate

Organizational climate refers to the shared perceptions organizational members have about their organization and work environment. This is an aspect of organizational culture. A positive overall workplace climate has been linked to higher customer and financial performance as well.

Culture and leadership

According to the opinion of Schein, culture and leadership are two sides of the same coin, they are intertwined. In several social situations we function as leaders in that we not only reinforce and act as a part of the present culture, but we begin to create new cultural elements. „This interplay of culture creation, re-enactment, and reinforcement creates an interdependency between culture and leadership.” (Schein, 2009. p. 3.)

Cultural differences

Understanding culture is important for success because in the 21st century, the whole world is your marketplace, and the

people you work with may come from every part of the globe. Global cultural diversity is not a slogan, it's an every-day fact of the workplace. As you look at any leading multinational corporation, you'll see people from a variety of ethnicities, cultural backgrounds and personal styles.

The model of Geert Hofstede

Geert Hofstede, the cultural anthropologist who first studied the impact of cultural differences on business behavior said that if the brain is the hardware, culture is “the software of the mind.” Because it is so natural, you never think about it and it is only when you encounter other cultures that you become aware of the differences. Cultural anthropologists have described culture as a shared way of viewing the world.

DEFINITION of culture by Hofstede

“Culture is the collective programming of the mind distinguishing the members of one group or category of people from others.”

"Culture is more often a source of conflict than of synergy. Cultural differences are a nuisance at best and often a disaster."

Professor Geert Hofstede is an emeritus professor at Maastricht University. His research gives us insights into other cultures so that we can be more effective when interacting with people in other countries. If understood and applied properly, this information should reduce your level of frustration, anxiety and concern.

Professor Geert Hofstede conducted one of the most comprehensive studies of how values in the workplace are influenced by culture. He analysed a large database of employee value scores collected within IBM between 1967 and 1973. The data

covered more than 70 countries, from which Hofstede first used the 40 countries with the largest groups of respondents and afterwards extended the analysis to 50 countries and 3 regions. Subsequent studies validating the earlier results include such respondent groups as commercial airline pilots and students in 23 countries, civil service managers in 14 countries, 'up-market' consumers in 15 countries and 'elites' in 19 countries.

In the 2010 edition of the book *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind*, scores on the dimensions are listed for 76 countries, partly based on replications and extensions of the IBM study on different international populations and by different scholars.

The five dimensions are:

– *Individualism vs collectivism*

„The high side of this dimension, called individualism, can be defined as a preference for a loosely-knit social framework in which individuals are expected to take care of only themselves and their immediate families. Its opposite, collectivism, represents a preference for a tightly-knit framework in society in which individuals can expect their relatives or members of a particular in-group to look after them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty. A society's position on this dimension is reflected in whether people's self-image is defined in terms of “I” or “we.””

– *Power distance*

„This dimension expresses the degree to which the less powerful members of a society accept and expect that power is distributed unequally. The fundamental issue here is how a society handles inequalities among people. People in societies exhibiting a large degree of Power Distance accept a hierarchical order in which everybody has a place and which needs no further justification. In societies with low Power Distance, people strive to equalise the distribution of power and demand justification for inequalities of power.”

– *Masculinity vs femininity*

The Masculinity side of this dimension represents a preference in society for achievement, heroism, assertiveness and material rewards for

success. Society at large is more competitive. Its opposite, femininity, stands for a preference for cooperation, modesty, caring for the weak and quality of life. Society at large is more consensus-oriented. In the business context Masculinity versus Femininity is sometimes also related to as "tough versus tender" cultures.

– *Uncertainty avoidance*

The Uncertainty Avoidance dimension expresses the degree to which the members of a society feel uncomfortable with uncertainty and ambiguity. The fundamental issue here is how a society deals with the fact that the future can never be known: should we try to control the future or just let it happen? Countries exhibiting strong UAI maintain rigid codes of belief and behaviour and are intolerant of unorthodox behaviour and ideas. Weak UAI societies maintain a more relaxed attitude in which practice counts more than principles.

– *Long-term vs short-term orientation*

Every society has to maintain some links with its own past while dealing with the challenges of the present and the future. Societies prioritize these two existential goals differently. Societies who score low on this dimension, for example, prefer to maintain time-honoured traditions and norms while viewing societal change with suspicion. Those with a culture which scores high, on the other hand, take a more pragmatic approach: they encourage thrift and efforts in modern education as a way to prepare for the future.

In the business context this dimension is related to as "(short term) normative versus (long term) pragmatic" (PRA).

A *sixth dimension* has been added, based on Michael Minkov's analysis of the World Values Survey data for 93 countries. This new dimension is called: indulgence vs. restraint.⁸

• *Indulgence vs Restraint*

Indulgence stands for a society that allows relatively free gratification of basic and natural human drives related

⁸ <https://geert-hofstede.com/national-culture.html>

to enjoying life and having fun. Restraint stands for a society that suppresses gratification of needs and regulates it by means of strict social norms.

Exercise to practice the Hofstede model

In the following you will read short incidents from Hofstede's book "Exploring Culture". Read them and choose from the options how you would act in these situations! Once you are done, think about which values guided your choices.

I. „The Shabby Guitar Player”

You are in a restaurant having dinner with an acquaintance. A shabby man with a guitar comes to your table and offers to play. How do you feel about this?

1. This man is a beggar and should find a job.
2. This man is filthy and disgusting.
3. This man is to be pitied.
4. You do not know this man and you have nothing to do with him.
5. Could be interesting. Maybe he plays well.
6. The waiter should remove this man.

II. “A Meeting in the Street”

You are walking along the street in a town that is not your own.

The street is quiet. Somebody crosses the street and walks toward you. What do you think?

1. This person means to rob you.
2. This person means to ask for directions.
3. This person means to have a chat with you.
4. This person might invite you to

dinner.

5. This person is going to tell you that you are not allowed to be here.
6. This person means to sell you something.

III. “A Welcome at the Airport”

You are headed to a formal business meeting with somebody you have never met before. When you get off the airplane, a warmly smiling woman wearing jeans and sandals is holding up a sign with your name on it. What do you think?

1. She must be a secretary.
2. She is probably the person with whom you will have the meeting.
3. It is wonderful to be welcomed so warmly.
4. How dare someone meet you in such an informal outfit.
5. There must be an error, because you were expecting a formal-looking gentleman.

IV. “The Intruder”

You are standing at a reception engaged in conversation with another person you vaguely know. Suddenly, a third person arrives and starts to talk to your conversation partner without seeming to notice you. What do you think?

1. This must be a close friend of your conversation partner.
2. This must be an absolute brute to push you aside in this manner.
3. Your conversation partner should ask the intruder to wait a moment.
4. This must be a VIP (Very Important Person).
5. This must be somebody with a very urgent matter.
6. Your conversation partner should introduce you to the newcomer.
7. Nothing.

V. “The Returning Athlete”

You are the mayor of a small town. An athlete from your town took part in the Olympic Games. The athlete is due to return tomorrow, having obtained fourth place in an event. What sort of official welcome will you prepare for her?

1. None, because a fourth place is not worth anything. If only it had been a gold medal....
2. None, because there is no protocol

for officially receiving returning sports players or participants.

3. A grand one, because even if she did not win, she did participate in the Olympic Games and that is a great achievement.
4. A grand one, because she is one of us and she has honored our town.
5. You will ask the city council for advice.

VI. "The Accident"

You are chairing a very important business meeting, for which some attendees have made a transoceanic flight. Millions of dollars are involved. During the meeting one of your local colleagues, a financial expert, receives a message: his eight-year-old child has been hit by a car and is hospitalized with very severe injuries. How do you react?

1. You cancel the meeting and arrange for a sequel on the following day.
2. You let your colleague leave the meeting.
3. You leave the room for a moment with your colleague and tell him that although you would like him to stay, he can leave if he wants to.
4. You go on with the meeting, asking your colleague to stay.

VII. "Train or Car?"

You are a commuter. The car trip to work takes approximately one hour, the train ride, approximately an hour and a half. Do you prefer to go by car or by train?

1. By car, because if I travel by train, people will think I can't afford a car.
2. By car, because it is faster.
3. By car, because it is private.
4. By car, because people in my position do not travel by public transport.
5. By train, because it is safer.
6. By train, because it allows me to get some work done while traveling.
7. By train, because I might meet interesting people.
8. By train, because it is better for the environment.
9. Either way is fine, whichever is cheaper in the long run.

Resolutions

I. The Shabby Guitar Player

You are in a restaurant having dinner with an acquaintance. A shabby man with a guitar comes to your table and offers to play. How do you feel about this?

1. This man is a beggar and should find

a job.

This is a masculine point of view; the man is a loser. It could also speak of long-term orientation.

2. This man is filthy and disgusting.

People from uncertainty avoiding cultures would feel this way. They might even be afraid of contracting a disease from the man.

3. This man is to be pitied.

People from feminine societies might feel this way.

4. You do not know this man, and you have nothing to do with him.

If you and your acquaintance are from a collectivist society and belong to a group to which the newcomer does not belong, then you might feel this way. But you might also feel this way if you are from an individualist, masculine culture. In that case you might not feel any moral obligation to care for a loser who caused his own misfortune and who is nothing to you.

5. Could be interesting. Maybe he plays well.

This is how people from uncertainty tolerant cultures might feel. A novel, ambiguous situation piques their curiosity.

6. The waiter should remove this man.

People from cultures high on power distance might feel this way. Or it might indicate strong uncertainty avoidance: the man is out of place in a restaurant and that is unsettling.

II. A Meeting in the Street

You are walking along the street in a town that is not your own.

The street is quiet. Somebody crosses the street and walks toward you. What do you think?

1. This person means to rob you.

People from a masculine culture might feel this way. In a masculine culture, strangers don't trust each other. If this culture is also strongly uncertainty avoiding, this would add to the distrust.

2. This person means to ask for directions.

In feminine countries, people tend to trust strangers, and they might feel this way.

3. This person means to have a chat with you.

This is an uncertainty tolerant point of view. It might also speak of collectivism: taking time for socializing.

4. This person might invite you to dinner.

A person from a collectivist culture might have this expectation if the

person has reason to expect that he or she will be considered part of the group.

5. This person is going to tell you that you are not allowed to be here.

Somebody from an uncertainty avoiding country might think this, particularly if power distance is also large.

6. This person means to sell you something.

This might occur in many countries, but it is more likely to happen in collectivist nations, where personal contact and trade are more mixed than in individualist ones.

III. A Welcome at the Airport

You are headed to a formal business meeting with somebody you have never met before. When you get off the airplane, a warmly smiling woman wearing jeans and sandals is holding up a sign with your name on it. What do you think?

1. She must be a secretary.

In a masculine society, gender roles are unequally distributed, and people might have this expectation.

2. She is probably the person with whom you will have the meeting.

This expectation could indicate both femininity (you are not amazed that your important partner is a woman) and uncertainty tolerance (you are not taken aback because she is casually dressed).

3. It is wonderful to be welcomed so warmly.

This is how somebody from a collectivist society might feel—or indeed anybody who does not take offense.

4. How dare someone meet you in such an informal outfit.

This might be the reaction of an important person from a large power distance culture, who would have expected an impressive delegation.

5. There must be an error, because you were expecting a formal-looking gentleman.

This would be a typical uncertainty avoiding reaction. If uncertainty avoidance is strong, people are expected to display their position through their clothing, and this woman is not dressed at all formally.

IV. The Intruder

You are standing at a reception, engaged in conversation with another person you vaguely know. Suddenly a third person arrives and starts to talk to your conversation partner without seeming to notice you. What do you think?

1. This must be a close friend of your conversation partner.

- This would be the expectation of a person from a collectivist culture.*
2. This must be an absolute brute to push you aside in this manner.
Somebody from a feminine culture might feel this way.
 3. Your conversation partner should ask the intruder to wait a moment.
The reaction indicates individualism: you speak with one person at a time. This way of dealing with time is known as monochronic.
 4. This must be a VIP (Very Important Person).
This thought indicates large power distance.
 5. This must be somebody with a very urgent matter.
Somebody from an individualist culture might think this way; tasks prevail over relationships.
 6. Your conversation partner should introduce you to the newcomer.
This would be a collectivist expectation. Your conversation partner can include you in his or her ingroup to which the intruder apparently belongs. In almost all societies, this option would be more acceptable than the next one.
 7. Nothing.
This might be the reaction of somebody from an individualist, masculine culture; this is normal, acceptable behavior.

V. The Returning Athlete

You are the mayor of a small town. An athlete from your town took part in the Olympic Games. The athlete is due to return tomorrow, having obtained fourth place in an event. What sort of official welcome will you prepare for her?

1. None, because a fourth place is not worth anything. If only it had been a gold medal....
This is a masculine reaction. Only winning counts.
2. None, because there is no protocol for officially receiving returning sports players or participants.
This reaction speaks of uncertainty avoidance: rules are rules.
3. A grand one, because even if she did not win, she did participate in the Olympic Games and that is a great achievement.
This reaction speaks of a feminine perspective along with short-term orientation. It is feminine because participating is more important than winning. It is short-term oriented because if you are happy, you want to show it!

4. A grand one, because she is one of us and she has honored our town.

This is a collectivist perspective, along with short-term orientation. When a member of the family comes home, you celebrate.

5. You will ask the city council for advice.

This reaction indicates small power distance—not deciding alone but consulting others is considered appropriate.

VI. The Accident

You are chairing a very important business meeting, for which some attendees have made a transoceanic flight. Millions of dollars are involved. During the meeting one of your local colleagues, a financial expert, receives a message: his eight-year-old child has been hit by a car and is hospitalized with very severe injuries. How do you react?

1. You cancel the meeting and arrange for a sequel on the following day.

This is a feminine response. It symbolizes that you let personal matters prevail over business matters. The response may also indicate collectivism; you cancel the meeting because as “head of the family,” you have to help your colleague first.

2. You let your colleague leave the meeting.

This is an individualist response. The news only concerns that particular colleague, and you let that person deal with it.

3. You leave the room for a moment with your colleague and tell him that although you would like him to stay, he can leave if he wants to.

This reaction speaks of small power distance. You do not decide on your own, but let the person have a say.

4. You go on with the meeting, asking your colleague to stay.

This is a masculine reaction; the task comes first. It could also indicate uncertainty avoidance; time is money and flexibility is not popular. And it could indicate individualism; the colleague is no more important to you than the foreign visitors are.

VII. Train or Car?

You are a commuter. The car trip to work takes approximately one hour, the train ride, approximately an hour and a half. Do you prefer to go by car or by train?

1. By car, because if I travel by train, people will think I can't afford a car.

A masculine perspective. It also indicates short-term orientation: showing off.

2. By car, because it is faster.

This is a typical masculine perspective. Being fast is a virtue in itself.

3. By car, because it is private.

The car offers individual freedom, not loneliness. An individualist perspective.

4. By car, because people in my position do not travel by public transport.

This could be the preference of an important person from a culture where power distances are large and uncertainty avoidance is strong.

5. By train, because it is safer.

People from a feminine, individualist, long-term oriented society might reason thus; caring for their personal safety is considered important.

6. By train, because it allows me to get some work done while traveling.

In this reaction, there is masculinity (get work done) and long-term orientation (saving time) and possibly uncertainty tolerance (you never know where you will sit in the train, but you still expect to be able to work).

7. By train, because I might meet interesting people.

This is a typical uncertainty tolerant, short-term oriented attitude.”

(Hofstede – Pedersen – Hofstede, 2002)

The global mindset model of Solomon and Schell

Solomon and Schell in their book write about a global mindset as an important tool of crosscultural communication competence. *By their definition global mindset* is the ability to recognize, read, and adapt to cultural signals, based on the awareness that cultures are different from each other and that those differences matter, a global mindset allows you to survey the landscape with an eye for various opportunities that come in ways you normally might not anticipate. On the basis of this *global mindset you will be able to:*

- Recognize cultural behaviors that are different;
- Understand how your cultural background colours the way you perceive the world;
- Build awareness of ways to adjust your own behavior when you enter a new culture.

Cultural cores are learned and absorbed during the earliest stages of childhood reinforced by literature, history and religion; embodied by heroes; and expressed in instinctive values and views, culture is a powerful force that shapes thoughts and

perceptions. At the core is a nation's geography, its climate, its mythology—elements that have fashioned its history and religious choices. Rising up out of those fundamentals is a complex web of values and beliefs, multilayered and intersecting, possibly woven with issues of race and class and shaped by personality. Finally, on the surface, there is the product of those influences: the way people actually behave.

What makes culture learnable is that in many cases, visible culture is a manifestation of invisible and hidden values. For example, bowing in Japan is indicative of hierarchical beliefs and the importance of good manners and protocol. At the other end of the spectrum, looking someone in the eye in the United States is a manifestation of an egalitarian mindset that sees everyone as equal, deserving the same level of respect as everyone else.

The CW Model is steeped in the work of world-renowned thinkers, including Geert Hofstede, Fons Trompenaars and Edward T. Hall. The CW Model defines seven key characteristics and is an easy to-understand cultural template with *cultural dimensions*.

We all have colleagues and friends who may have similar backgrounds but who behave differently from us. For example, you may show up at a meeting exactly on time, pen in hand and ready to get right down to business, whereas your partner may stand outside the door chatting with others and ignoring the clock on the wall. You're both from the same culture and the same organization and even live in the same neighborhood but you know—and frequently can see—that you are different from each other.

However, although two people from the same culture may have a different sense of building relationships (versus being on time to a meeting in this example), there still is an accepted national norm. Although you may see yourself as being different from your partner, to people from other cultures both of you appear to approach things in a similar way. In other words, if they are to learn about your culture, they have to generalize based on your behavior.



Furthermore, there are subcultures within each national culture that have their own distinct values and beliefs. For example, a Texan and a New Yorker see themselves as extremely different from each other (and in fact, when working together, they need to be aware of the cultural differences between them), but someone from another culture will see them as being quite similar and representative of American cultural values.

Diversity is all about understanding and appreciating personal styles. An additional value of learning culture is that it enables you to transfer the knowledge you've gained about multicultural differences to your domestic workplace. There are three major requirements in this area:

1. You need to be nonjudgmental about behavioral styles and preferences. (In other words, your way is not necessarily the only way.)
2. You need to be aware that your preferences are culturally based.
3. You need to be open to learning from your colleagues and environment and appreciating their potential contribution.

The seven keys

This model defines seven key characteristics or dimensions:

1. Hierarchy and egalitarianism

Hierarchy/egalitarianism is the way individuals view authority and power, how much deference one gives to people in authority and how empowered they feel to make independent decisions and take the initiative. It is also one's relationship to power and authority.

2. Group focus

Whether people see

accomplishment and responsibility as achieved through individual effort or collective effort and whether they identify themselves as individuals or as members of a group.

3. Relationships

The importance and time devoted to building relationships and developing trust and whether trust and relationships are viewed as a prerequisite for working with someone.

4. Communication styles

The way societies communicate, including the use of verbal and nonverbal expression, the amount of background information people need for understanding and how directly (bluntly) or indirectly people speak. It also refers to whether brevity or detail is valued in a communication.

5. Time orientation

The degree to which people believe they can control time and adhere to schedules or whether schedules are seen as deadlines or estimates. It also includes whether schedules or people are more important.

6. Change tolerance

The perception of how much control people think they have over their lives and destiny and their comfort with change, risk taking and innovation.

7. Motivation—work-life balance

Whether people work to live or live to work, whether they can achieve status in a society by trading personal time for the opportunity to advance.

*Personal cultural
style*

Within every culture, individuals have their own personal styles and behavioral

preferences that represent the diversity in that culture. Therefore, although you need to make generalizations about behaviors in a specific country to learn about the people, all of them are different. Learning culture starts with learning about yourself, understanding that not everyone is like you and realizing how those differences affect interpersonal interactions. The first step is to discover your personal cultural style.

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