Personal Tutorial
For Administrative Professionals™

Part IV:
Advanced Organizational Management

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Contents:

Advanced Organizational Management:
Organizational Planning
Chapter 1: Critical Thinking

Objectives: In this chapter, the student will review the following concepts:

1. Critical thinking
2. Key critical thinking process elements
3. Intellectual standards and traits connected with critical thinking
4. Critical thinking applications

Introduction

Strategic organizational planning, or any planning and decision-making process, must be built on a foundation of critical thinking. In this chapter, we will introduce you to critical thinking concepts and then give you a brief opportunity to apply critical thinking to simulated business circumstances.

Critical Thinking Defined

Critical thinking:

- Is a manner of reasoning that places intellectual standards and principles on ordered thinking structures and processes

- Involves contemplation and reasoning with regard to what results will be brought about if any of a number of alternatives are chosen in a decision-making or action process

- Focuses on important aspects of information; it involves the asking of questions about data, then creating arguments and ideas that help in decision making and problem solving processes

In critical thinking, an individual must utilize control over the following thought-process attributes:

- Direction provided by the person
- Monitoring done by the individual
- Self-discipline applied
- Self-correction made by the critical thinker

Critical thinkers:

- Understand an argument's structure (including issues, rationale, and conclusions)

- Know that language and persuasion have a powerful impact on the portrayal and framing of arguments

- Understand that arguments used in the critical thinking process are based on individual assumptions of reality, values, and ethics

- Are fully aware of the patterns of inductive and deductive reasoning and how they are used in critical thinking (inductive reasoning involves going from the known data to previously unknown information; deductive reasoning involves supporting an idea with evidence and examples)

- Understand that emotions can affect judgment

- Are willing to give a fair hearing to all sides of an issue

- Recognize implications and suggestions that are made by media sources

- Can detect reasoning errors

Some key **human reasoning and thinking errors** include:

- Making **assumptions**

- **Attacking individuals** because of the way they look or their personality

- **Citing authorities** to make an argument seem impressive or right

- Using **faulty analogies** (comparing apples and oranges)

- Making the **assumption that one event caused another**

- Drawing **hasty conclusions**

- Pointing out to others that **things should be done the way they've always been done**

- **Appealing to emotions**

- **Taking advantage of others' ignorance** (arguing that something is right until someone proves it is wrong)

- **Distracting others' attention** (such as by changing the subject or calling attention away from the main issue being addressed)

- **Joining the group** (because everyone does it)

- **Making arguments using a take-it-or-leave-it approach**

- **Excluding needed information**

- **Stereotyping** or **overgeneralizing**

Critical thinking is developed step by step, in stages:

Critical Thinking Stages
● At first, an individual's way of **thinking may be uncontemplative**.
● Later, **a thinker may become challenged by a situation or event**.
● When an individual is introduced to the concepts of critical thinking, he or she begins to **see things from new perspectives**, and learning situations take on new dimensions.
● **As this person utilizes new-found critical thinking skills, he or she becomes a practicing thinker**--and later a more highly evolved thinker.
● Through the continued use of critical-thinking skills**, a person eventually develops into an accomplished or advanced thinker**. Critical thinking becomes second nature to this individual, and critical thinking concepts are applied to all intellectual situations.

Elements of Critical Thinking

The following elements are important in the critical-thinking process:

- Components of thought
- Reasoning processes
- Questions asked by the critical thinker
- Application of universal standards

Thought processes include the following:

- Concepts involved (for example, theories, principles, axioms, etc.)
- The issue or problem at hand
- Relevant data, facts, or experiences
- Individual perspectives, frames of reference, and orientation
- Assumptions or presuppositions
- The objectives or goals concerned with the thought process

● Solutions or conclusions drawn
● Consequences and implications involved

Reasoning processes are key to the successful application of critical thinking processes. Reasoning:

● Is done with an aim or purpose in mind; the purpose must be clearly determined, and it must be differentiated from other purposes or issues

● Is utilized to solve problems, find solutions, and answer questions; questions should be stated in various ways and then broken into component parts or sub-questions--determine if the questions involved require reasoning from various points of view, if there is a single answer, or if the only responses are in terms of conjecture or opinion

● Is more effective when examined from various points of view, those of the individual thinker, and those of others; fair-mindedness is especially important when considering these issues

● Requires the gathering of data and evidence; assertions must be supported by the evidence (both in support of and negating the individual's point of view); a sufficient amount of relevant information must be compiled for assessment

● Involves the isolation of assumptions involved in the thought process

● Is formed by clearly-defined concepts

● Uses consistent inferences based on evidence and documentation obtained

● Must take into consideration all possible consequences resulting from the reasoning process

As an individual goes through the critical-thinking process, she or he should ask the following types of **critical thinking questions**:

● What am I trying to determine or accomplish?
● What questions are being brought up in this process?
● What are the main concepts involved?
● What data or information do I need?
● Am I overlooking anything?
● Am I assuming anything? Are these assumptions correct or relevant?
● What points of view am I utilizing? Am I considering other points of view?
● What is my conclusion? How did I come to this conclusion?
● Are there other ways of interpreting or looking at this situation or information?
● What are the consequences or implications of my conclusions?

It is important that an individual avoid looking at situations and issues from an egocentric point of view. In other words, if one really wants to believe something is true, it can hinder his or her ability to think critically.

Critical Thought Intellectual Standards and Traits

Standards guide an individual's critical thinking. The thought processes we've outlined must be utilized with special attention given to the following intellectual standards and traits:

- **Clarity**: First, one must determine how clear the issue is.
- **Truth or accuracy**: It must be resolved if the statement or information is true or accurate.
- **Precision**: One must assess the statement or information in terms of its precision. If more specifics are needed, they should be obtained.
- **Relevance**: Questions should be looked at to determine if they are relevant to the issue at hand.
- **Logic**: One should ask if the issue or statement makes sense and is logical.
- **Depth and breadth**: It should be determined if the issue has been investigated sufficiently and from a number of viewpoints.

Critical Thinking in Practice

It's one thing to talk about the how to's of critical thinking, and something else to actually apply the process in the real world. Consider the following situations with the critical thinking process in mind:

Case 1: A Co-Worker Friend to Be Fired

- You overhear a conversation that a co-worker friend of yours is going to be fired. Should you tell your friend or wait for your friend to share the news with you? Why or why not? What are the implications of passing this information along before your friend's boss tells her? What if the information you've overhead is inaccurate or untrue?

Case 2: The New Job Opening

- You learn of a highly technical position opening up at your company. You have a long-time friend in need of work, and you've promised to help him obtain employment. You are not sure if your friend has all the necessary qualifications for the position. Your employer trusts your judgment, and you believe it's fairly likely he'll be hired if you provide a positive recommendation. Should you tell your friend about the opening? Should you make the recommendation? Why or why not?

Case 3: Your New Role In Corporate Intelligence

● You are asked to obtain some corporate intelligence about a competitor's firm, and you learn that covert means must be used to get some of the needed information. Your job is on the line. What will you do? Why?

Case 4: Updated Technology, Lots of Work, and No Training Time

● Your department has been told that a new technology is going to be implemented in your department. This new technology requires skill that is not possessed by any personnel in your area. Your company says it believes in its employees, but there is so much work to be done on a regular basis that employees can never seem to take the time they need to get updated; and few opportunities are provided for personnel to become technologically updated. What should you do? Why?

Case 5: The New Assignment

● A person in your office has been sitting on a project for months. No real progress has been made, so your boss gives you the assignment to take it over and get the work done. The individual originally given the job is upset by their perception of your department manager's handling of the situation. You need this person's help to obtain some key information in order to get the job done on time, but they seem reticent to provide assistance. What should you do? Why?

Case 6: The Missing Supplies Mystery

● You are responsible for maintaining your department's supply closet. You notice that since a new individual has been hired, certain costly items are being depleted at a much more rapid rate than in the past. You decide to find out what's happening so something can be done to stop the problem. How would you handle this situation? What specifically should you do to obtain more details? How will you go about obtaining this information?

Case 7: Ethics and Software Duplication

● Your department is working on a tight budget and is given the assignment to provide computerized project management for the new product development division of the firm. The required technical software is expensive, allowing for the purchase of only one copy on a single computer during the current fiscal year (and you are at the beginning of the year). A three-person team, with you designated as one of its members, has been assigned to this task, and it's not convenient for all three people to have to work on the same computer to do specific input and processing. Your manager suggests that you put the software on all three computers and not worry about the software license agreement. What would you do in this situation? Why?

Case 8: Case of the "Dodo Birds"

● The Southampton Company's human resource staff had a member who seemed to constantly mis-input time sheet data. One day an executive in the company made a remark that he wished the “dodo birds in that department would get their act together and do things right.” The problem became a company joke. Was it appropriate for the executive to encourage this type of discussion among personnel? What kind of work environment did this promote at Southampton Company?

Case 9: ABC Architectural Firm and the Use of Inferior Materials

● You took a temporary job at Northwest Architectural Design and Construction for an employee taking a leave of absence. While going through some paperwork of the individual on leave, you found that it appeared she had been authorizing the use of inferior materials in some of the company’s building projects. Should you check with the person to verify if this is the case? Should you report it to your supervisor?

Case 10: First Provincial Bank Converting to New Software and Equipment

● Your bank has recently announced that it will be converting its software programs and equipment so that it can take advantage of completely new, state-of-the-art systems. First Provincial did not do a good job communicating this changeover to its clients or potential customers. Non-employees questioned whether or not they should consider the bank for potential loans and other financial products. What might the bank do to rectify the situation?

Case 11: Never-Sick Health Care Center Employee Abuse

● The community’s only nursing home, Never-Sick Health Care Center, learned from one of its personnel, on condition of anonymity, that a large male patient was constantly physically abusing Martha Jonas, a staff attendant. For reasons not known to the reporting individual, or the area supervisor, Jonas was not reporting these cases. What measures should be taken? Should a different attendant, or more than one employee, be assigned to the patient (one who may be able to handle the situation better)? Should the situation be reported to the nursing home’s legal counsel?

Case 12: Company Employment Applications: Who should be hired?

● You have recently been promoted to a departmental supervisory position and are now responsible for recommendations with regard to hiring, layoffs, and terminations in your area. Recently, you’ve opened a new position and you’re looking for the right person for the job. You’ve narrowed the applications down to two individuals, both of whom seem equally well qualified for the position. You check out references and details found on both candidates’ applications, and there are some potential discrepancies on one of the applications, although you cannot verify them. Should you hire the person without the possible discrepancies? What would you recommend?

Case 13: Staff Meetings: Handling the Difficult Team Member

● You are involved in very informal monthly staff meetings at Arbolito & Sons Attorney’s at Law. One of the personnel, a relative of one of the firm’s partners, frequently tries to divert meeting discussions. What strategies would you recommend be implemented to avoid this problem?

Case 14: Finances at Children's Advocacy, a United Way Agency

Johnson, the CEO of Children's Advocacy, an agency of United Way, announced the receipt of a $25,000 grant. Johnson wants to use the funds for administrative purposes, but Webster, the CFO, indicates this is not an option. Who should decide how these funds are to be used: The CEO, the CFO, or the Board of Directors? Does it matter?

Case 15: Human Resources Challenges at Administrative Medical Associates

Special-needs patients are cared for at Administrative Medical Associates, a small local medical care facility. Some individuals need assistance with insulin administration, other persons receive kidney dialysis; additional medical procedures are also performed there. Key staff members include Faye, the owner; May, the scheduler, and Sandy, the receptionist. They have worked together for some time.

Each evening May takes a lap top computer home for after hours work and calls. One morning May did not arrive to work on time. Sandy tried to reach May without success, to obtain information critically-needed to help some of the patients. Sandy finally reached Faye by pager, as Faye was not scheduled to be in the office until later in the day. After receiving the urgent call from Sandy, Faye came into the office early, very upset with May. May finally arrived around 10:00 a.m. Her speech was slurred as she indicated her pager had not been working.

Faye suspects that May has a drug-related problem. How should Faye handle the situation? Should she write-up, reprimand, or fire May? Should May be recommended to go through an employee assistance program? Should she be committed to a drug rehabilitation program? Should she take medical leave?

Case 16: Applying Critical Thinking Skills to Your Life

● What situations can you think of in your current personal or professional situation requiring critical thinking? How can you use critical thinking skills to help you come up with the best solutions?

Advanced Organizational Management:
Organizational Planning
Chapter 2: Decision Making

Objectives: In this chapter, the student will review the following concepts:

1. General decision-making
2. The eight-step decision-making process
3. Various approaches used in decision making
4. Specific decision-making styles used by individuals
5. Decision making impacts on strategic planning
6. Group decision-making issues and processes
7. Ways in which group and individual decision making can be improved
8. The impact of ethics on decision making
9. Cultural considerations in the decision-making process

Introduction

The proper understanding and application of decision-making concepts and principles is important to the success of individual personnel, departments, as well as the organization's strategic planning process. Good decision making brings about positive results and enhanced organizational and individual effectiveness.

General Decision Making Concepts

Incongruencies between actual and desired situations and circumstances bring about problems and challenges to individuals and organizations, which in turn create most decision-making situations.

Decisions are choices made from among options recognized by the decision maker. The decision-making process involves alternative development and analysis followed by the selection of an option.

There are various **types of decisions**, including:

- Programmed decisions (standard or regular responses to routine or uncomplicated problems allowing for pre-programmed solutions)

- Non-programmed decisions (responses to unique and unstructured problems and situations requiring special or custom-made solutions)

Programmed decisions involve familiar and straightforward situations. They are the most common type of decision faced by individuals in the office, and they are often handled by the use of a routine approach, including one of the following:

- **Procedures** (including standard operating procedures) are established to outline exactly what should be done in specific circumstances, thus simplifying the decision-making process. They are made up of a series of successive steps or activities.

- **Policies** are guidelines designed to direct a decision maker's thinking in a particular way. They are used to help make decisions in areas such as hiring, promotions, and firing, within organizations.

- **Rules** are well-defined statements directing what should and should not be done in applicable circumstances. They are used to guarantee uniformity and consistency when problems are well-structured.

- **Computations** are mathematical techniques involving the manipulation and comparison of numbers to come up with an answer or solution. They are also used to make programmed decisions regarding budgeting and other quantifiable issues.

Non-programmed decisions are made in situations where standard procedures, policies, and rules cannot be applied to attain an adequate solution. They include situations such as crises, in which case judgment, creativity, and intuition must be used. Principles and basic problem-solving processes are also utilized in the making of non-programmed decisions.

When individuals or managers have a tendency to allow the domination of programmed events and activities over those that are nonprogrammed, they are utilizing Gresham's law of planning.

The Decision-Making Process

Decision making is a process. The rational or classical model of decision making involves the following:

The Decision-Making Process
1. **Problem definition** and identification.
2. The **setting of priorities**, criteria, and objectives.
3. The **consideration of causes and development of alternatives**.
4. **Analysis of perceived alternatives**.
5. **Selection of an alternative**.
6. **Development of a plan**.
7. **Implementation of the plan**.
8. **Follow up** and control.

When problems are being identified, the following factors should be taken into consideration:

- Problems should be defined in terms of solutions versus rushing to conclusions.

- Both positive and negative factors must be openly considered; otherwise, when information is selectively eliminated to protect an individual from unpleasant perceptions, important considerations will be overlooked in the decision-making process.

- Most importantly, **problem symptoms** must not be seen as **problem causes**. For example, there is a significant increase in the number of late student registrants at a school one semester, as compared with prior semesters, but this is only a symptom of the real problem. When the reason (or reasons) for the dramatic increase in late registrants is determined, the problem's cause (or causes) can be determined.

After problems are identified, priorities and objectives must be established, as all problems are not of equal importance. Time factors must be taken into consideration, in addition to the urgency of the problem, its impact, and potential for growth.

Problem causes need to be considered, and alternative solutions developed. As alternatives are deliberated, the following decision-making conditions should be taken into account:

- **Risk**: What problems may result from the outcome of selecting each alternative?

- **Certainty**: How certain is the outcome of selecting each alternative?

- **Uncertainty**: What degree of uncertainty is there with regard to the selection of each alternative's outcome?

Once an alternative is selected in order to solve the problem and achieve the desired objective, a specific action plan is developed and implemented. It is important that the plan is:

- A good solution to the problem
- Implemented effectively
- Communicated well to the appropriate persons and teams

Results of the plan's implementation must then be monitored periodically. Actual results are compared against planned results. If there is any variance between actual and planned results, corrections need to be made.

The values or guidelines used by the decision maker in decision making, decision implementation, and follow-through processes are also of significant importance.

Decision-Making Approaches

The following **decision-making approaches** are used by individuals and managers:

- **Behavioral approaches** (including rational, bounded rationality, and satisficing approaches)

- **Quantitative approaches** (including management science and simulation technique approaches)

- **Integrative approaches** (including the systems theory)

- **Contingency approaches** (including contingency, mechanistic, and organic approaches)

Behavioral Decision Making Approaches: The Rational Approach

Traditionally, rational decision making is accompanied by several characteristics. The decision maker:

- Can define the problem clearly without being confused by symptoms or impediments

- Knows all possible alternatives and can accurately compare and weight them one against another

- Is goal oriented and has clear and constant preferences

- Has no cost or time constraints

- Can choose the best alternative with the highest perceived value or maximum payoff

In reality, however, there are a number of barriers to the rational approach to decision making, including:

- Biases
- Individual differences
- Problem framing
- Shortcuts (heuristics)
- Organizational barriers
- The way the decision maker psychologically views things

Decision makers can be affected by

- Cognitive biases
- Individual-specific biases

Cognitive biases occur when individuals have too much confidence in problem solving. They have a great deal of confidence in solving problems with which they are familiar; however, when they are dealing with problems of less familiarity to them, their confidence level in solving such a problem is not reduced, hence bringing about cognitive bias in the problem-solving situation.

Confirmation traps, another form of cognitive bias, occur when decision makers look for information confirming their biases, versus looking for data to support all sides of the issue involved.

Individual-specific biases occur when decision makers have biases about particular individuals or groups.

Another barrier to the rational approach to decision making involves **individual differences**. Every person perceives each situation in a unique way. These perceptions have great impact on the way data and information are interpreted, thus affecting the meaning given to the information or situation.

The way a problem is framed or presented can affect rational decision making. **Judgment distortions** can occur if a problem is presented in a certain way.

Decision makers may also take **shortcuts** in the problem-solving process. These shortcuts are also referred to as **heuristics**. Shortcuts are also referred to as rules of thumb. When a rule of thumb is used in making a decision, a shortcut is taken, thus creating a barrier to rational decision making.

Barriers to rational decision making are also created in organizational settings. Such barriers are in place when managers or organizations do not encourage the sharing of all pertinent information, both positive and negative. This may cause personnel to be reluctant to share certain information that may be pertinent to decision-making process.

Also, the decision maker may be limited in his or her ability to see possible alternatives because he or she sees only one function for the thing that is being considered. This is also referred to as **functional fixedness**.

Decision makers can also have an inclination toward an inflexible approach to specific types of problems. Such a psychological set can greatly reduce their ability to see various problem solutions.

Individuals can also take an intuitive or systematic approach to decision making. **Intuitive decision makers** will try out various alternatives until one seems to feel right, while systematic decision makers take a logical approach utilizing various steps in solving the problem.

Another barrier to the rational decision-making process comes in the form of **escalation of commitment**. This takes place when persons or parties have added commitment with each step taken in a step-by-step problem solution approach.

Individuals sometimes also tend to look at possible solutions one at a time versus looking at all solutions and finding an acceptable or most desirable choice.

Bounded Rationality

In the case of the **bounded rationality** (or **administrative man**) model, people will settle for sufficient or acceptable alternatives in problem solving versus looking for the best solutions. This happens due to the fact that some decisions require more information or better information-processing abilities than are available to the decision maker. The decision maker satisfices versus optimizing alternatives in the decision-making process.

After a decision is made, there is also the potential for dissonance or anxiety to take place. This occurs when there is a lack of harmony or consistency between the decision and the decision maker's beliefs and attitudes.

Quantitative Decision-Making Approaches

Management science, also referred to as operations research, is made up of quantitative approaches to solving problems. Management science is used when specific decisions must be made using operations research techniques, including statistics, optimization models, and computer simulations. Linear programming and critical-path analysis are specific techniques used. They are covered in greater detail elsewhere in this review program.

Simulations are techniques combining variables and manipulating mathematical results to show how specified changes impact variables under consideration.

Integrative Approaches

Integrative approaches combine a number of approaches to achieve a complete and holistic process in decision making. The systems integrative theory is used to consider how inputs become outputs in organizations. All of the processes and elements connected in the system create the entire unit. Each activity and step in the process needs to be considered in order to help locate and solve problems in the system.

Systems are considered either open or closed. **Open systems** have connection or interaction with the outside environment; **closed systems** are not connected to the outside environment.

Contingency Approaches

Contingency approaches match flexible and structured management styles with:

- **Work to be done**
- **Technologies to be used**
- **Human resources involved**

The **organic approach** is used when the environment is complex and constantly changing. It involves highly trained individuals working in non-repetitive work areas.

The **mechanistic approach** is designed to facilitate repetitive work tasks with consistent external environments and individuals who possess little technical background.

Decision-Making Styles

Various types of decision-making styles are used by individuals. Here are some ways of describing styles of decision makers and decision making:

- **Problem avoiders, seekers, or solvers**
- **Consistent, reflexive, or reflective**
- **Behavioral, analytic, conceptual, or directive**
- **Facilitative, consultative, authoritative, or delegative**

Problem avoiders ignore or avoid or ignore information with regard to problems.

Problem seekers look for new opportunities or ways to solve problems.

Problem solvers look for ways to solve problems as they arise.

Those who use a consistent style to problem solving gather sufficient data and alternatives to make a good decision in a time-effective manner.

Reflexive decision makers make fast decisions without taking a lot of time to gather information or look at alternatives.

The **behavioral style of decision making** is used when individuals are intuitive and not able to tolerate uncertainty or ambiguity.

The **analytic decision-making style** is used by persons who like the rational approach to uncertain situations and problems.

The **conceptual decision-making style** is utilized by people who are intuitive and able to tolerate ambiguity.

The **directive style of decision making** is used by individuals who think rationally and are unable to tolerate much uncertainty or ambiguity.

Hersey and associates have developed leadership styles that also fit into ways leaders make decisions. They are:

- **Facilitative**: Providing for the sharing of decision-making responsibility between the leader and followers

- **Consultative**: Allowing follower input into leader-made decisions

- **Authoritative**: Creating a situation in which the leader makes all decisions

- **Delegative**: Equipping followers with the ability to make decisions

Although decisions are made by followers, full responsibility for decisions made and results attained must be taken by leaders and managers.

Decision Making and Strategic Planning

The chief executive officer of an organization is ultimately responsible for the making of strategic decisions in business. In larger entities, entire staffs are hired to help in this process.

Strategic decisions are long-term in nature and often take up to 10 years to be fully implemented. They entail the handling of major resources involving physical, human resource, and overall organizational assets.

Tools Used for Strategic Planning

Once strategies are developed by upper management, they are ranked and prioritized by category.

Another strategic management planning tool used in strategy formulation is the Quantitative Strategic Planning Matrix (QSPM). It allows planners to assess various strategies in an objective manner, basing the evaluation on internal and external success factors identified by management.

An example of the Quantitative Strategic Planning Matrix follows:

Quantitative Strategic Planning Matrix

Strategic Alternatives
External
Competition
Economic factors
Technology
Political factors
Social/cultural factors
Internal
Management
Accounting
Production
Marketing
MIS
R&D

Group Decision Making

In many organizations, group decision making is used as a key decision-making approach. Committees, task forces, teams, and other types of groups work together in this process.

Advantages of group decision making:

There are both pro's and con's to group decision making. The advantages include:

- More alternatives are created.
- Data is more complete.
- Legitimacy is increased.
- Solutions are more widely embraced.

Disadvantages of group decision making are:

- The amount of time it takes for teams or groups to develop decisions.

- The group-think phenomenon can occur, which creates pressure for individuals to conform to group pressures.

- A small number of group members may excessively influence the overall group.

- Responsibility and accountability is not always well defined.

Decisions made by groups tend to be:

- Fairly accurate, as groups tend to make better decisions than individuals
- Slower than decisions made by individuals
- More creative than decisions made by one person

Conditions affecting the speed of decision making include:

- The number of alternatives that must be studied at a time

- The availability of relevant real-time data

- An input weighting system allocating more value to experienced employee input over feedback from less-experienced team members

- The seeking of widespread agreement on a decision during the decision-making process

- The *how-to* implementation issues of the decision are addressed while the decision is being made

In order for decisions to be made quickly and efficiently in groups:

- Individuals and leaders must have the self-assurance to take needed action.
- Group activities and processes must be uniform and smooth.
- Information quantity must be manageable.
- The quality of data must be adequate.
- Processing of information must be fast.

<u>Individual Versus Group Decision Making</u>

Some decisions are made better by individuals than by groups, and vice versa. Consider the following situations:

- Individual managers are often better at decision implementation and follow-through than groups.

- Because groups generally have more information and knowledge available to them than individuals, the setting of goals and objectives is an activity generally better suited to groups.

- Groups usually accept a higher degree of risk in decision making than individual decision makers.

- Groups appear to be better at evaluating alternative solutions than individuals on their own.

● Individual group member efforts are needed to be certain a broad range of alternative solutions are developed in the decision-making process, particularly when various functional areas of an entity are involved.

<u>Improving Decision Making</u>

Groups and individuals who make effective decisions are able to enhance both their own success and the goal attainment of the overall organization with which they are involved. This is especially true when thorough and sensible recommendations are provided and correct decisions are made.

A number of factors affect the decision-making process, including:

● Characteristics of the problem (such as complexity, stability, ambiguity, and familiarity level)

● Decision-maker traits (abilities, level of knowledge, motivation, and drive)

● Environmental factors (importance, time, fiscal constraints, accountability, and reversibility of the problem)

Decision making can be improved by:

● Improving problem identification

● Improving solutions to problems

<u>Improving Group Decision Making</u>

The following recommendations are made to improve problem identification in the group problem-solving process:

● **Eliminate barriers** to the problem identification process (group-think and escalating commitment to a decision).

● Assign a **devil's advocate** (or develop a process for multiple advocacy).

● Appoint an individual or group to challenge the underlying assumptions of the problem formulation process (also known as **dialectical inquiry**).

● Utilize **brainstorming techniques** (i.e., traditional brainstorming, structured debate, electronic meetings, Delphi Technique, Nominal group Technique, and the Stepladder Technique).

When barriers to the problem identification process are removed in groups, the entire decision-making process is greatly enhanced. **Group-think** is one such barrier. It is a way of thinking that causes group members to want to be in agreement one with another versus looking at various alternative options. Group-think is demonstrated in a number of ways. Here are some examples:

- Group conversations work toward consensus only.

- Individuals taking a leadership role try to stop debate and channel the conversation toward their point of view.

- Group members become strongly committed to their special interests and pet projects.

- The group uses rationalization in the pursuit of various alternative solutions.

- Group adversaries and opponents are stereotyped.

- **Mindguards** are used to shield the group from data that would indicate that certain courses of action are not necessarily the best, even though group members may tend to think so.

Group-think:

- Limits the quest for and analysis of potential alternatives

- Repudiates opinions of experts

- Minimizes the development of creative options or contingency plans

Group-think can be conquered by use of the following approaches:

- From the company point of view, several independent groups or committees can be established to look at the same problem.

- Group-think avoidance training can be provided to organization leaders and members.

- Devil's advocacy can be established in groups (a member of the group can be assigned to challenge expressed views).

- Multiple advocates for various viewpoints and opinions can be used to help the group see issues discussed from different angles.

- Leaders can encourage group members to critically evaluate various points brought up.

- Group leaders can avoid stating their own points of view.

- Outside experts can be brought in to share their points of view.

● Group members can work at being critical thinkers.

● Individual team members can do outside research to gain trusted advice to share with the group. This may include conducting a study of what other companies have done in similar circumstances.

● Groups can be divided into subgroups to individually discuss the issue at hand.

● When appropriate, additional time or another meeting may be allowed to reconsider the issues before final determinations are made.

● Open inquiry among group members can be encouraged, including dialectical inquiry (a process of assigning a group member to question the underlying assumptions of the problem identification and to help group members look at new ways to analyze the situation).

Another factor adversely affecting the decision-making process is referred to as **escalating commitment to a decision**. This occurs when individuals gain increased commitment to a decision with the passing of time and as effort and investment is put into that decision, even though the decision may be incorrect.

The following suggestions are provided for minimizing the effects of escalation of commitment:

● Team members should be educated that all investments made in the past are sunk costs (in other words, they cannot be recovered), and any future decisions cannot be made based on such costs.

● Current and future trends should be stressed versus the maintenance of the status quo and the way things have always been done.

● A critical evaluation of expected outcomes should be made of the decision to which group members have become committed.

● The techniques used for the elimination of group-think should be used.

Brainstorming techniques, also used to help in the problem identification process, are discussed in greater detail elsewhere in this review program.

The **Stepladder Technique** is used to enhance successful input in face-to-face meetings. In order to minimize the impact of points of view already discussed, group members are brought in one by one at various stages of discussion. At each step along the way, the viewpoints of new people introduced are taken into consideration. At the end of the process, a final group decision or recommendation is made.

Improved Individual Decision Making

Sometimes decisions must be made by individuals instead of groups. Here are some suggestions for **improving individual decision making**:

- Increase personal knowledge.
- Use creativity (challenge assumptions and carefully think through the processes involved).
- Try to take the biases out of judgments made.
- Examine personal feelings and use intuition; ask if the decision feels right, based on personal background and experience.
- Assess the timing of decisions.
- Where possible and when appropriate, seek the advice or opinion of a mentor or a more experienced individual.

Ethics in Decision Making

In many business decisions, the topic of ethics must be a serious consideration. Obviously, it's not a big deal to take someone out to lunch at a local restaurant or fast food establishment, and offering to bribe someone is so blatantly unethical, that these sorts of considerations do not involve everyday ethical screening procedures.

One should consider the following when faced with **ethical issues** in decision making:

- Place personal character and integrity in a position of utmost importance.
- Pay attention to personal intuition or gut feelings.
- Obtain facts and relevant information.
- Define the ethical points and considerations involved.
- Identify the parties concerned and relevant obligations and consequences.
- Carefully and creatively consider possible courses of action.

The degree to which we see an issue or decision as ethical is based on the following:

- The expected impact derived from the choice's outcome
- Personal and societal views on whether or not the choice is good or bad

- The perceived likelihood of particular consequences and how much impact they will have on a large or small number of individuals

- The interim between action and its consequences

- The relationship and proximity between the decision maker and those influenced by the choice

Ethical Decision Making Approaches

The following ethical approaches are commonly utilized:

- **Moral rights**: Considers moral implications of decisions regardless of the consequences

- **Justice**: Considers the equity and fairness of cost and benefit distribution among individuals and groups

- **Procedural justice**: Considers the need for impartial administration of the decision and for people affected by the decision to conform to the decision-making process

- **Distributive justice**: Considers the need to allocate compensation and discipline based on the attainment of goals and objectives

- **Compensatory justice**: Considers the need to compensate people impaired or injured in cases where procedural or distributive justice approach do not work

- **Universal**: Considers the Golden Rule that states that one should do unto others as they would have others do unto them

- **Utilitarian**: Considers which correct action should be taken to bring about the largest amount of good

Encouraging Ethical Decision Making

Ethical decisions are a matter of individual choice. Such decisions can also be encouraged by organizations in various ways. Here are a couple approaches used to **foster ethical decision making**:

- Establish a code of ethics, along with a reward and recognition system for individuals who maintain this code.

- Set up a whistle-blowing system.

Codes of ethics or ethical conduct are formal declarations outlining types of acceptable and unacceptable behaviors. They usually include:

- The need for individuals to be dependable

- The prerequisite that customers are treated well by organization members

- A requirement that organization members do things in a legal and proper way

- The necessity for team members to work in productive, non-harmful ways

- The obligation that individuals demonstrate professional behavior and personal integrity at all times

Communication, training, and rewards are important to the successful implementation of codes of ethics.

Whistle-blowing systems are set up in some organizations to encourage ethical behavior and decision making. This process involves the revelation by one person in the organization that another individual in the entity is believed to have been involved in unethical or illegal behavior.

Valid whistle blowing may involve:

- Clear communication of procedures to organization members

- Complete investigation of the claims made

- Development and utilization of proper channels for the whistle-blowing process

- Protection of whistle blowers

- Appropriate rewards and celebration for those who have contributed in a positive way

Cultural Considerations in Decision Making

As organizations become more global in nature, cultural considerations must be taken into account in the decision-making process.

Cultures take different approaches to decision making:

- Some base decisions around what is best for the individual (individualist).

- Other cultures base decisions on what is best for the group (collectivist).

Many Western cultures tend to be more individualist in their decision-making orientation, while a Eastern cultures are more collectivist in their approach.

Other cultural factors affecting decision making include:

- Social and/or organizational values
- Tolerance for risk
- Degree of acceptance of hierarchical systems and relationships
- Level of **power-distance** (or the extent to which people accept authority and power differences among individuals)

Here are a few examples of how cultural differences affect decision-making processes:

- Some typically follow the chain-of-command in decision making, as in the United States; on the other hand, others do not consider the chain-of-command critical to proper decision-making.

- In cultures valuing high power-distance, decisions must be made at the top of the organization; in cultures encouraging low power-distance, decisions are made by employees at the lower levels of the entity.

- People in some Western cultures see problems as needing solutions; people from some Eastern cultures feel problems stem from circumstances in which acceptance must take place.

- Some cultures apply history and tradition in the creation of solutions to current problems, while other cultures encourage the finding of innovative and unique solutions to problems.

Advanced Organizational Management:
Organizational Planning
Chapter 3: Strategic Planning

Objectives: In this chapter, the student will review the following concepts:

1. Strategic management and related concepts and terminology
2. The nature of strategic planning
3. The strategic management process
4. Basic strategy frameworks and types
5. The generation and selection of strategies

Introduction

Strategic management is all about how an organization gains competitive advantage by examining external opportunities, threats, and competitive factors; and seriously analyzing internal capabilities, resources, and core competencies; then, the organization creates, implements, and modifies its strategies as needed.

Strategic Management Defined

Strategies are management plans to reach goals consistent with the entity's strategic mission or reason for being.

Strategic management:

- Has at its heart the purpose of generating competitive advantage for the organization
- Involves the identification of an organization's mission
- Requires the design of strategic objectives--taking into account: (1) internal capabilities and constraints and (2) external demands
- Necessitates the implementation and execution of the organization's strategy
- Provides for the evaluation and control of organizational performance
- Entails situation review and the making of corrective adjustments, as needed

Strategic management focuses on the synthesizing and integration of the following organizational functions:

- **Management**
- **Production and operations**
- **Marketing**

- **Accounting and finance**
- **Computer information systems**
- **Research and development**

Planned on or intended strategies of organizations may or may not become realized.

Important Strategic Management Terms

We'll now take a moment to define a few key terms important to the understanding of strategic management:

- **Mission statements** are written declarations of purpose. They are used to clearly define the scope of the organization, its priorities and values, and outline a broad description of future direction. They are also used to differentiate the organization from other entities. Creation of an organizational mission is an important building block in the strategic management process.

  Mission statements also address such issues as the way the organization perceives itself, customer markets, products, services, organizational geographic scope, the entity's commitment to its personnel, the need for the organization's survival, technologies, and the entity's public image concerns.

- **Internal strengths and weaknesses** are attributes, qualities, or activities in the realm of an organization's control. They are found in the functional areas or among personnel.

- Strengths and weaknesses consider attributes and qualities of an organization and its components, especially as they compare with other organizations that may exist in the same field or market. Organizations use various tools to help measure their strengths and weaknesses, including (1) performance measurement, (2) using comparisons of industry averages and past time periods, and (3) using computational ratios. Surveys of individuals both inside and outside the organization also provide feedback relative to strengths and weaknesses.

- **External threats and opportunities** are mostly beyond the control of the organization. They include events or trends initiated in environmental, governmental, legal, social, technological, demographic, or political arenas outside of the entity.

- **Strategies** are long-term plans based on an organization's mission. They provide for such activities as business expansion, diversification, market targeting and penetration, product development, acquisition, joint venture, divestiture, and liquidation.

● **Policies** are rules, guidelines, and procedures that support organizational objectives. They assist in management and individual decision making processes and deal with repeated issues and situations. Policies provide for the achievement of annual objectives.

● **Objectives** are considered from both annual and long-term vantage points. Annual objectives are used for short-term goal setting. They include divisional and functional goals that are challenging and cause organizational members to reach new heights in a realistic and prioritized manner. Annual objectives feed into long-term objectives. They are also used to help an entity set budgets and allocate resources. Long-term objectives that are accomplished in more than one year, are based on the strategic plan of the organization. All objectives are consistent with an organization's mission.

The setting of **strategic objectives** enable firms to:

- Set priorities in a way understandable by all individuals involved
- Properly allocate resources
- Delegate responsibilities to individuals and teams
- Hold persons responsible for results

Strategic Management Levels

Strategies are developed by managers at various organizational levels:

Strategic Management Levels
● **Corporate-level** (at this level, the organization determines its markets or businesses)
● **Business-level** (at this level, the specific business decides how it will compete in its various areas)
● **Strategic business unit-level** (at this level, the individual or group of businesses involved make strategic decisions)
● **Functional-level** (at this level, each functional area, such as finance or marketing, sets strategies based on the best ways each area can support the overall business-level strategies)

Strategy-Maker Characteristics

The following approaches are used by strategy-makers:

- **Analyzing** (analyzers pursue specialization strategies and create new and innovative products)

- **Defending** (defenders go after specialization strategies, often by creating and developing a single specialized service or product)

- **Prospecting** (prospectors are constantly looking for new product and market opportunities)

- **Reacting** (reactors hold to strategies that have been in place for a period of time)

The Nature of Strategic Planning

Strategic planning, by nature, provides a means by which an organization can be proactive in the development of its own future. Less time is spent reacting to situations when organizations influence and initiate activities.

The quality of the strategic-management process must be carefully assessed and evaluated on a regular basis in order for organizations to stay on track and avoid problems. By nature, it is a process involving much thought and contemplation relative to key strategic issues, versus a bureaucratic tool in which individuals simply go through repetitive motions.

Strategic management requires:

- An open-minded attitude on the part of management

- The ability for management to make trade-offs based on long-term versus short-term issues

- The use of quantitative and qualitative techniques to enhance decision-making effectiveness

- A recognition that a company's personnel provide a competitive advantage for organizations

- An understanding of the importance of flexibility and innovation to organizational success

The Strategic Management Process

The strategic management process involves the following stages:

The Strategic Management Process
● **Strategic planning (or evaluation)**
● **Implementation of the plan**
● **Evaluation of the plan**

As alluded to previously, the process involves:

1. Determination of the organization's strategic intent
2. Identification of organizational mission and strategies
3. Establishment of long-term objectives
4. Environmental evaluation (performance of internal and external audits)
5. Identification of opportunities and threats in the external environment
6. Analysis of organizational resources
7. Identification of organizational strengths and weaknesses
8. Strategy formulation
9. Strategy implementation (and resource allocation)
10. Evaluation of results, with adjustments made, as needed

Strategy evaluation and formulation includes such activities as:

- Development of the organizational mission
- Establishment of long-term goals and objectives
- Determining selected and alternative strategies

Strategy implementation involves:

- Establishment of organizational objectives
- Creation of policies
- Developing structure, culture, and other organizational attributes
- Creation of an organization that achieves its strategies

Organizations need to implement strategies that are not duplicatable by competitors and result in strong financial returns over a long period of time (this is also called ***competitive advantage***).

The following factors are important to successful **implementation of organizational strategy**:

- Members of the organization must clearly understand the organizational mission, how to best do their work, and be motivated to achieve strategies.

- Management interpersonal skills are critical to the success of strategy implementation.

In the strategy evaluation phase, management must identify what is not functioning as it should. Basic strategy evaluation activities include:

- An examination of internal and external factors that are of foundational importance to the carrying out of strategies

- Tools for performance measurement

- Activities that allow the organization to make key changes, as needed, and get back on track toward strategy achievement

Let's now look at some of the specific **situation analysis activities** involved in the strategic management process, including:

- **SWOT analysis**
- **Environmental scan**
- **Benchmarking**

In situation analysis, management evaluates external forces on the organization, in addition to internal issues, to determine their impact on strategic opportunities.

In **SWOT analysis**, management considers

- Strengths (first analyze organizational strengths)
- Weaknesses (next assess weaknesses)
- Opportunities (look for opportunities that fit the organization's mission)
- Threats to the organization

Core strengths and competencies of the entity must be evaluated, including those things a business does best, or those activities that the entity feels are done better than others; core strengths and competencies are those elements that give a business its internal comparative advantage.

Michael Porter has developed the **value chain approach** to the internal assessment process. The value chain is the group of key activities that directly support or produce what the organization provides to its customers. According to Porter, in order for management to understand the organization's ability to compete with others, an assessment must be made of the value added to the service or product (versus just evaluating the cost of providing these various activities).

Here are additional points made by Porter with regard to the value chain approach:

- The **absolute value** of a service or product is determined by (1) the amount customers will pay, and (2) the number of customers who will purchase the service or product.

- An organization makes a profit when product values exceed product costs.

- Managers must have an understanding of the value chain's activities in order to conclude where value is added in the organization's internal value chains.

We'll now look at value chain support and primary activities.

Value chain support activities include:

- Human resources (the acquisition, training, development, evaluation, and compensation of human resources)

- Organizational infrastructure (activities supplied to primary activities by functions such as accounting, legal, planning, and governmental relations)

- Procurement (the activity of procuring assets that are usable in the primary activities)

- Development of technology (tools and expertise utilized in the development of technology)

Value chain primary activities include:

- **Inbound logistics** (activities surrounding the receipt, storage, and distribution of inputs to services or products, such as receiving, transportation, inventory, and raw materials)

- **Operations/Production** (activities that take inputs and make them into usable products and services and those things that keep the operations or manufacturing process maintained and running)

- **Outbound logistics** (activities that deliver the service or product to the customer, such as order processing, distribution, delivery, storage, etc.)

- **Sales and marketing** (activities that educate customers about services and products offered)

- **Support and after-sale service** (activities that allow the customer to continue using the service or product or that enhance repeat sales or profitability)

In order to obtain the most leverage on the value chain, management needs to understand where the greatest value can be added to the chain.

External Threats and Opportunities Assessment

After consideration of the internal environment, an examination of external environmental threats and opportunities is done. The following tools may be used in this process:

- **Product life cycle analysis**
- **Portfolio analysis**
- **Use of the five forces model**
- **Benchmarking**
- **Utilization of the environmental scan**

The **product life cycle** involves the following phases of a product's life:

- **Birth** (period of creation or development of the product)

- **Growth** (period of customer acceptance of the product, taking into account the degree of acceptance; and investment during the growth stage is directly impacted by the degree to which the economies of scale can be enjoyed by the business)

- **Maturity** (time period during which a product's greatest profits are realized, including the attainment of the highest revenue levels and lowest cost per unit of production)

- **Decline** (the period during which a product or service becomes out of date or obsolete; product rejuvenation and the development of new services and products can help avoid or put off the time of product decline)

Many corporations have a **portfolio of businesses**. This portfolio is made up of autonomous divisions or profit centers. When a business has divisions in different industries, a distinct strategy must be developed for each business.

A **portfolio analysis** helps managers tell where specific products are in their various life cycles. Portfolio analysis is like an extension of product life cycle analysis. It takes into account where products are in their individual product life cycle. Organizations can then make strategic investment plans.

The following are tools used to decide what should be kept in an organization's portfolio:

- **The BCG Matrix**
- **The GE Business Screen**

The Boston Consulting Group developed the **BCG Matrix**. This matrix compares business growth rate with market share for each business involved. When all businesses are plotted on each quadrant of the matrix, a decision can be made with regard to the status of the business. The following terminology is used in connection with the BCG Matrix:

- **Stars** (businesses or products in the early stages of the product life cycle in high-growth industries that have a relatively high market share)

- **Cash cows** (businesses or products in the maturity stage of the product life cycle that have relative high market share in low-growth industries)

- **Dogs** (businesses or products in the decline stage of the product life cycle that have relatively low market share in unattractive industries or markets)

- **Question marks** (businesses or products with low market share in high-growth industries or attractive markets)

An organization:

- Wants to have enough cash cows to fund star products or businesses

- Does not want to have too many dogs

- Will try not to spend a great deal of time working with question mark businesses or product lines

A balanced business portfolio will change with time as business units and products move through the stages of the product life cycle from birth, to growth, to maturity, to decline.

The BCG Matrix uses an assumption called the cumulative experience curve that concludes that organizations with the largest market share have the lowest costs (utilizing economies of scale). In other words, as the number of units produced increases significantly, the cost per unit decreases in a predictable manner.

Another portfolio analysis aid is called the **GE Business Screen** developed by General Electric. The focus is on determining whether or not investments should be increased or reduced in each business. This nine-cell matrix plots companies according to:

- Industry attractiveness (accounting for industry size, growth, and/or profitability)

- Business unit position (accounting for business unit relative size, profitability, and market share)

Porter's **five forces model**, which is a very popular tool, takes into consideration five factors involved in competitive environments:

1. Degree of rivalry intensity between competitors

The most powerful of the five forces is **competitor rivalry**. An organization may consider using the following strategies when rivalry is strong:

- Lower the product or service pricing.
- Improve product or service quality.
- Increase marketing efforts.
- Make enhancements to product support, warrantees, and the product itself.

2. **Competitive entry** into a specific market

When a competitor enters a market currently serviced by an organization, the original product-offeror will want to consider doing one or more of the following things:

- Provide a counterattack.
- Carefully watch the actions of the new competitor.
- Take advantage of its own advantages and strengths.

3. **Bargaining strength of purchasers**

The bargaining strength of purchasers becomes an important factor in strategic planning when purchasers buy in large quantities and when they are concentrated or significant in size. Organizations with standardized or non-differentiated products where there is competition and purchasers have bargaining strength will want to consider the following:

- Offer an improved warranty.
- Give special pricing or packaging options.
- Provide special accessories or ancillary products.
- Make available increased customer support or service.

4. **Bargaining ability of suppliers**

When there are a large number of suppliers in a market for materials that are scarce or it is expensive to change to different items or materials, suppliers can have a good deal of bargaining power. When this happens, the following strategies on the part of the manufacturer are possible:

- Purchase the supplier (using a backward integration strategy).
- Negotiate better pricing or terms for the supplies.

5. **Substitute products** available in the market

When similar products are available on the market, purchasers will consider purchasing them when they are the same price or less expensive, especially if they are viewed as greater than or equal in quality. When this happens, a firm needs to consider the following possibilities:

● Product differentiation
● Change in price structure, or offer of two for the price of one promotion
● Change or increase in marketing efforts

In the benchmarking process, strategic planners identify and assess those factors or qualities that are used by the most outstanding providers of specific products and services.

Benchmarking usually involves:

● Definition and focus on a specific problem or issue.

● Involvement of individuals who will be involved in the implementation of the concept under consideration.

● Going directly to the source or product production site where outstanding practices are performed; care must be used to avoid sensitive issues such as pricing and new product research and development.

● Keeping information received confidential.

● A willingness to share data and information with other parties.

In the **environmental scan process**, management gathers data about various external factors that may impact the strategic planning process. The following external areas are considered in environmental scanning:

● The **economy**, including interest rates, inflation, employment levels, the trade balance between nations, currency exchange rates, etc.

● The **competition**--organizational strengths and weaknesses relative to the competition must be assessed. The ratio of what a customer receives from a business and how much it costs them is called a value proposition. Management must assess how much value customers receive from goods or services they provide, the end-user costs involved, and then they must compare these factors with the competition.

● Current and cutting-edge **knowledge and technologies**.

● The **political environment**, including a country's political stability and laws that result from political action taken and how these laws impact the organization.

● **Demographic and social trends**, including cultural impacts. A classic example of this involves the introduction of the Chevy Nova automobile to the Mexican market. Sales were not successful there. Managers learned why when they found out that *No Va* means *No Go* in Spanish.

● **Geographic factors**, including issues of service or product expansion into new domestic and/or foreign markets.

Strategy Frameworks and Types

The administrative professional should be familiar with various strategy frameworks and types, including those at the corporate and business levels, in addition to entrepreneurial and re-engineering strategies:

Strategy Frameworks and Types	
I. Corporate Level: ● Growth ● Stability ● Retrenchment ● Combination Strategy	*III. Entrepreneurial*
II. Business Level ● Competitive advantage strategies	*IV. Re-engineering*

Basic **corporate-level strategic frameworks** include the following:

● **Diversification**
● **Integration**
● **Defensive**
● **Concentration**
● **Competitive**
● **Status quo**

Corporate Diversification Strategies

Let's now consider **corporate diversification strategies**:

Diversification strategies consider product and service expansion into related and unrelated market segments. Four types of diversification are:

● **Related** (which involves diversification into other industries where there is a good fit for a business's products and services)

● **Concentric** (which involves the addition of new and related services and products)

● **Conglomerate** (involving the addition of new and unrelated services and products)

● **Horizontal** (involving the addition of new and unrelated services and products for current clients and customers)

Types of **integration strategies** include the following:

● **Vertical integration** involves the ownership or control of businesses that provide inputs into corporate processes (backward integration) and the distribution channels of business services and products (backward integration).

● **Horizontal integration** comprises obtaining ownership or gaining additional control of a business's competitors.

Defensive strategies to consider include the following:

● **Strategic alliances** and **joint ventures** are developed between two or more firms in order to temporarily seize special business opportunities.

● **Virtual corporations** are special strategic alliances involving companies who temporarily work together. Each business brings special expertise or technological assets to the network. The organizations share their talents and abilities, costs, and markets to take advantage of unique business opportunities.

● **Business divestitures** take place when a viable part or division of a business is sold.

● **Liquidation** involves the sale or abandonment of part or all of a business for its tangible worth.

● **Retrenchment** (or **downsizing**) takes place when a business reduces assets and/or costs to reverse declining sales and profits.

Corporate restructuring involves the acquisition and divestiture of business units. Financial restructuring includes such things as increasing debt, dividend payments, and special one-time corporate share buybacks or dividends paid to stockholders. Both corporate and financial restructuring are designed to magnify stockholder wealth.

Organizations can **differentiate** their services and products and decrease costs by:

- Striving to provide as high quality services and products as possible
- Creating process and product innovations
- Applying leverage via image and expertise

Combination defensive strategies involve the use of two or more strategies at the same time.

Concentration strategies are used to emphasize a focus on a single product or product line, generally in one market. Here are examples:

- **Market penetration** (involving increased market share of current product and service sales into present markets through stepped-up marketing activities)

- **Product development** (involving the modification or improvement of products and services to help increase sales)

- **Market development**, or **geographic expansion** (involving the introduction of current products and services into new geographic areas)

- **Horizontal integration** (involving the control or acquisition of businesses competing in the same markets)

Status quo strategies are used when a business is satisfied with its current growth rate and product and service lines.

Business-Level Strategic Frameworks

Business-level strategic frameworks are based around the concept of competitive advantage. An organization's **competitive advantage** is the edge it has over its competition.

Competitive strategies are developed taking into account:

1. The environment in which the firm competes.

2. Internal resources and capabilities.

3. The fit found between the environment and internal resources and capabilities.

Organizations can have:

- The competitive advantage in services and products

or

- A comparative advantage in services and products

When a firm does something better than most other businesses, it has a comparative advantage in that area.

The long-term success of products or services sold in the competitive marketplace, or a business's competitive advantage, occurs when these products or services:

- Are the best available
- Are difficult to reproduce
- Are hard to substitute
- Are valued by customers
- Provide a good value to customers when accounting for the cost involved

Competitive Advantage Strategies

The following strategies are used to achieve the competitive advantage in business:

- **Differentiation** (differing a product or service from that of the competition in a way that is valued by purchasers)

- **Niche** (focusing on a small market segment disregarded by the competition); niches include: (1) differentiation, (2) low cost, (3) a combination of differentiation and low cost

- **Cost leadership** (working to be the lowest-cost producer of a good or service)

- **Strategic scope** (focusing on a specific customer segment)

One competitive strategy used by many organizations to enable them to stay focused on quality and ongoing improvement is **Total Quality Management**. Companies that provide high quality products and services attract customer quality needs and thereby differentiate themselves from other organizations.

Competitive strategies must be continually reinvented in order for organizations to have the edge over competition in the long-run.

Growth strategies are used to help organizations increase their value through increased sales or market share. Here are some examples of growth strategies:

- Internal growth (increased sales, production capacity, and work force)
- Horizontal integration
- Vertical integration
- Strategic alliances
- Mergers of two or more firms
- Joint marketing agreements or consortiums

Organizations can implement **functional strategies** that will help improve organizational performance; the interrelated nature of business functions must be kept in mind when such strategies are considered and implemented:

- Human Resources
- Finance
- Marketing
- Research and development
- Management and computer information systems
- Purchasing
- Materials management
- Production and operations

The success of the overall strategic planning process requires an excellent fit of functional activities.

Entrepreneurial Strategies

Entrepreneurs use the following strategies:

- They quickly get rid of losing products and services.
- Entrepreneurs minimize resources allocated to idea research.
- They gather sufficient data without trying to find all solutions.
- They are flexible and prepared to change course whenever needed.

Business Re-engineering

In order for some organizations to continue, they have to go back to the drawing board and re-engineer the organization from the perspective of what they should look like versus what they actually looks like.

Business Process Re-engineering (**BPR**) is a computerized tool developed to help organizations improve through providing better services and goods at a lower cost.

Key performance areas can be improved dramatically through the basic rethinking and major redesign of business processes. The main considerations in BPR include those issues and activities that (1) are fundamental to the organization, (2) involve radical change, (3) can be dramatically affected and improved, and (4) involve organizational activities and input/output processes.

People are key to the re-engineering process. **Re-engineering** usually involves the redesign of:

- Organizational culture
- Business processes
- Jobs and roles
- Organizational structures
- Information and data systems

Re-engineering requires:

- Creativity
- Information technology
- A process orientation

Combining Intuition and Analysis

In addition to specific tools used in logical, objective, and systematic ways, management also utilizes intuition, judgment, and feelings in the strategic planning process. This is especially true when there is:

- Little or no precedent involved
- A large amount of uncertainty
- Tremendous pressure for correctness
- A great number of interrelated variables involved
- A good number of possible alternatives

In addition, due to the rapidly changing nature of business, it is important for organizations to monitor internal and external trends and conditions in order for changes to be anticipated, wherever possible, and for change to be made as the need arises. Utilization of a combination of analysis processes, techniques, and intuition will assist strategic planners in the making of strategic decisions that will help organizations adapt and thrive for years.

Generating and Selecting Strategies

Strategists often have many more alternatives available for consideration than they have time or resources to consider. Because this is the case, the most viable set of options should be put together for strategic consideration. Strategy costs, benefits, advantages, disadvantages, and trade-offs should be examined.

Those involved in the strategy analysis and selection process should have necessary information regarding the organization's internal and external audits. These items, coupled with creativity and a few tools, will greatly enhance the effectiveness of the strategy alternative selection process. In strategy analysis:

- Alternative strategies should be prioritized
- Each person involved should rank each strategy
- Strategies can then be put into an ordered list, by priority

Strategy ranking can be set up as follows:

1 ranking: Do not implement
2 ranking: Possibly implement
3 ranking: Probably implement
4 ranking: Implement

Strategy formulation may take place in the following stages:

1. **Input stage** (where input is initially obtained).

2. **Matching stage** (when opportunities, threats, strengths, weaknesses, and other factors are matched and evaluated).

3. **Decision-making stage** (the time during which weights are assigned to various factors and strategic decisions are made).

- **Key internal factors are weighted** by strategic alternative (for example, factors such as marketing, finance, production, administration, computer information systems, and research and development).

- **External factors are weighted** by strategic alternative (for example, factors such as social, cultural, demographic, political, economic, competitive, and technological factors).

An **alternative attractiveness score** can be determined by doing the following:

- List all key success factors, including opportunities, threats, strengths, and weaknesses, by specific strategic alternative.

- Assign attractiveness scores to each key success factor (with 1 being the lowest amount of attractiveness and 4 being the highest amount of attractiveness).

- Compute a total attractiveness score for each alternative, then compare the scores against each alternative's total score.

When organizations determine (1) they are doing the right things and (2) how to be more effective, they're on the right track. Strategies must continually be reappraised to avoid becoming apathetic. And clear strategies and objectives must be set and communicated to organizations in order to help them end up where they want to be.

Advanced Organizational Management:
Organizational Planning
Chapter 4: Communicating Mission and Values

Objectives: In this chapter, the student will review the following concepts:

1. Personal missions and values
2. Issues focused on organizational missions, ethics, values, and culture
3. Organizational mission statement development and communication
4. Basic organizational communication concepts
5. The affect of technologies and organizational structures on communication

Introduction

Communicating missions and values deals with three main areas: (1) communication, (2) missions, and (3) values. We'll cover each of these areas in this chapter beginning with personal, then organizational, missions and values. We'll also spend time reviewing organizational communications and ways in which missions and values can be communicated.

Personal Values and Missions

Examining missions and values from a human versus organizational entity perspective enhances our understanding of these issues as we prepare to examine these concepts and how they are applied at a corporate or organizational level. So, we'll begin our discussion with a review of individual value-related concepts.

Human **values**, or standards, impact choices made among a number of alternative behaviors. Values help shape attitudes; they are tied to ideas or things people feel are important. Values are shaped, in part, by influences of society. Societal values change over time, creating generational differences and gaps.

Values are tied to moral and ethical perspectives and viewpoints. Most organizations encourage their employees and associates to possess and demonstrate certain values that are important to the organization's culture. Harm can be caused when unethical behavior is chosen by the individual. For example, consider the following situations:

- Williamson is the supervisor of the pre-press area of a publication firm. She encourages her staff to do whatever it takes to accomplish the work in a timely manner, to the extent that she does not take notice of illegal acts engaged in by her staff in the accomplishment of work.

● Rodriguez is administrative aide to a senior staff member in the new product development area of a pharmaceutical firm. He finds it convenient to make frequent personal long-distance telephone calls on company time using corporate resources. He also uses his company photocopy equipment to make numerous personal copies.

In these two cases, Williamson and Rodriguez are making ethical choices based on personal values; their personal values, translated into the form of their actions, have a direct impact on both their personal lives and on their businesses.

Marian Wright Edelman, in the book *The Measure of Success*, shares some **advice on making ethical choices**:

● Be honest...live what you say and preach.

● Don't feel you are entitled to anything you don't sweat and struggle for.

● Don't confuse style with substance; don't confuse political charm or rhetoric with decency or sound policy.

● Don't work for just power or money. These things won't save your soul, build a decent family, or help you sleep at night.

In addition to these insights, consider the following observations:

● Personal values should be congruent with employer values. Organizational values are generally found in a code of ethics.

● Control the urge for instant gratification and having to have everything now. These feelings, when acted upon, lead to greed and the taking of shortcuts, that in the long-run result in people losing jobs and companies going out of business.

Many values are learned:

● For most, by the time a person reaches the age of four years
● From role models
● Through the communication of attitudes
● From values taught in the home, by society, and by religious organizations

Values can also take the form of rebellion against others' imposed values.

Once individual values are learned, if they fit the values of the organization for which the person works or is associated, the likelihood of successful job performance and satisfaction is enhanced. Studies have found that individuals whose values and goals fit those of their employer are generally successful at what they do and find success in reaching career goals.

When individual and organizational values are not in agreement, the individual involved encounters a person-role conflict that makes association with the organization more challenging for the employee.

Values can be used to improve interpersonal relationships. For example, when an individual elects to make the Golden Rule (do unto others as you would have them do unto you) one of his or her values, he or she will notice a definite impact on interpersonal relationships.

Persons who can express their feelings about personal values and tactfully explain their concerns when they feel these values are being compromised, will also find long-run benefits and payoffs in their relationships.

Personal Mission Statements

Dr. Stephen R. Covey says that **personal mission statements** are tools that can be used to help persons and organizations *begin with the end in mind*.

Personal mission statements are developed to help individuals focus on the following:

Key Components of Personal Mission Statements
• **What they want to be**
• **Where they want to go** and what they want to do with their lives
• **Values and principles** upon which their lives are founded

Mission statements should be designed to allow for flexibility and the preparing for and taking advantage of future opportunities that help fill the individual's mission.

Mission statements are not written in a day. They can take months to develop and craft to the point where the writer feels the statement truly reflects his or her personal individuality and unique roles. Behaviors and beliefs are deeply contemplated and much introspection takes place when one truly considers his or her values and vision in life. A clear understanding of personal roles and goals comes out of the mission statement development process.

Organizational Missions and Values

Written mission statements are essential for successful businesses. All members of the organization, not just top management, should be involved in the development and implementation of the mission statement that should come from within the core of the entity.

Consider the following issues in relation to **corporate mission statements**:

- The corporate mission statement is based on an unchanging foundation.

- Organizational members must play a part and buy into the mission statement; all must be involved in the process in order for them to be committed to it.

- Reward systems developed by the organization must be aligned with organizational value systems.

- The development of organizational mission statements takes time, patience, and understanding.

- The entity's management style must be congruent with the vision and values of the organization.

Corporate Ethics, Values, and Culture

Corporate missions transcend issues related to **ethics** that are rules of conduct reflecting a community's character. Ethics bring values and actions together with individuals and organizations to work in effective ways on a long-term basis.

For example, **honesty** is considered a primary value to be possessed by individuals in many organizations. Corporate leaders also attribute the **Golden Rule** as being a significant guideline leading to the achievement of business success.

Organizational culture plays a key role in the translation of values into action in work places. Corporate missions are also developed based on culture and values appreciated by the entity. Culture guides both understanding and common ground shared by members of the organization.

Corporate culture:

- Is developed by an organization's history with its events and personalities
- Is made of events and rituals
- Is reflected by the organization's environment and setting
- Defines values and what is desirable
- Determines what is beautiful and what is not
- Instills beliefs and norms

Here are some examples of **organizational values**:

- Placing emphasis on market leadership

- Striving to provide outstanding customer service (for both internal and external customers)

- Underscoring the importance of quality

- Stressing the need to be cost effective

Individuals in organizations may share values such as:

- Feeling that safety is extremely important
- Desiring to work effectively in team units
- Wanting to be allowed to manage one's own work and priorities

Organizational norms are part of its culture, which affects development of missions. **Norms** encourage or discourage such things as:

- Risk taking (if it is encouraged or discouraged)

- The way change is perceived (as an opportunity for development or as a threat)

- The way responsibility and accountability are perceived by managers and subordinates

Ethics are built into organizational value systems as part of the culture. And they are specifically encouraged in the following cases:

- When rewards are put in place that encourage ethical behavior

- When codes of ethics are developed, communicated, and respected at all levels of the organization

- When care is used in the hiring, retention, and promotion of organization members

- By the utilization of ethics training in organizations

Code of Ethics Implementation

When an organization creates a code of ethics and puts it in place, it must immediately communicate this code to all individuals involved. It is helpful to have the code repeated in a number of ways and in different forms, rather than just sending a single notice or memo to personnel.

The Impact of Ethics in International Business

Organizations that do business across international boundaries have special challenges in the area of values and ethics. In countries where bribes and kickbacks are commonplace, where culture and values differ, it is important for organization members to be encouraged to take the time to work on building shared respect and consideration.

Development of Mission Statements

A mission statement:

- Is broad in scope
- Includes a definition of outlook
- Embodies a disposition or attitude

Mission statements:

- Are developed in such a way as to foster a broad range of strategies and objectives without hindering organizational or managerial creativity

- Are not so broad that they lose their purpose or functionality

Mission statements must be clearly stated. They should also be comprehensive. Good mission statements may describe:

- Organizational purpose
- Markets
- Products or services
- Philosophy
- General technologies
- Interest in organizational personnel and associates
- Organizational growth and profitability
- Survival of the entity
- Self-concept
- Public image concerns

Mission statements also:

- Describe what an organization is

- Outline what the organization wishes to become

- Differentiate the organization from other entities

- Are used as frameworks for assessing organizational activities

- Are put into place to help maintain unity of purpose in organizations

- Help define organizational climate

- Provide a focal point for organizational purpose

- Assist in the definition of overall and divisional unit organizational structure, purposes, and objectives

Mission statements may be developed at different levels of an organization. Each statement should be congruent with the mission of the overall entity.

- The corporate-level mission statement is stated in broad terms.

- The business-unit level mission statement is more clearly defined and narrower in scope than the corporate-level mission statement.

- Business-unit mission statements define products and countries involved, in addition to providing links to the overall corporation.

Mission statements can be:

- Long or short
- Specific or general
- Varied in emphasis (focused on financial or societal goals)
- Internally or internally and externally focused
- Designed by top management or management and all personnel
- Established to have a short-term or long-term duration

Pre-Mission Statement Development

First, an organization must know who and what it is; it must define its purpose for existence.

After this is accomplished, and with the feedback of all organizational stakeholders, organizational goals and objectives should be defined. Goals are general statements relative to where the organization wants to end up. Objectives are specific end statements or targets set by management that are tied to goals.

As goals are being considered, they must be prioritized in order of importance based on various factors. Organizational stakeholders must all be kept in mind, including the degree of influence held by different stakeholders, as stakeholders all have an interest in the organization and what it does. **Stakeholders** include:

- Corporate stock or shareholders
- Corporate boards of directors
- Management and employees of the organization
- Customers
- Suppliers

- Distributors
- Creditors
- Unions
- Governmental entities
- Special-interest groups
- The public

Taking into account stakeholder interests can be challenging, as interests can conflict one with another. The various interests must be taken into account and resolved by management.

Typically, organizations are in business to serve customers. A customer orientation should be reflected in a productive mission statement. Customer needs are identified, then ways are determined to fill these needs. Customers are what keep businesses in business.

The utility or usefulness of products should be stressed in mission statements. The following should be kept in mind in relation to customer utility and mission statements:

Customers want:

- Good looks
- Comfort
- Security
- Leisure
- Pleasure and beauty
- Quietness
- Coziness
- Ambiance
- Ideas
- Feelings
- Benefits

Organizations also have a **responsibility to society**. This includes issues such as keeping the environment clean and safe, recycling and using scarce resources wisely, and considering other short- and long-term impacts on diverse individuals and the environment. When mission statements are developed, these concepts should be kept in mind. Consider the following points:

- Organizations should be involved in social activities with economic advantages and benefits.

- Business should be carried out in a socially responsible way.

As a mission statement is contemplated, consideration should also be given to the following factors:

- Effective mission statements cause positive emotions in individuals about the organization.

- A good mission statement will create the perception that the organization is successful and worthy of support and investment.

- Ideal mission statements are dynamic and convey organizational growth and promise.

Management must be prepared for the good chance that controversy will be stirred within the organization when members are asked to define the organization and its purpose. Fundamental disagreements may arise. Everyone must be willing to negotiate, make compromises, and come to a final agreement.

The Mission Statement Development Process

The following steps are used by organizations in the development of mission statements:

Mission Statement Development Process
1. Provide training and materials for use of personnel relative to the purpose and development of mission statements. 2. Have managers individually write an organizational mission statement. At this point, feedback can also be obtained from all organizational members relative to components they feel should be included in the organization's mission statement. 3. Take all mission statement feedback from managers and other personnel and merge the input into one draft statement. A facilitator, outside expert, or committee may be utilized to perform this function. 4. Submit the draft mission statement to desired organization members (typically management), for their feedback, suggestions, and modifications. 5. Develop another mission statement based on feedback received. 6. If desired, solicit further feedback based on a revised draft of the mission statement. 7. Develop a final mission statement. 8. After the mission statement is constructed and refined, management needs to decide how best to communicate the mission to the entire organization--in addition to individuals and entities outside the organization.

The following methods are commonly used in the **mission statement communication process**:

- **Hard-copy printing** of the mission statement is developed and distributed internally (and externally, as desired, and based on timing factors set by management). Company newsletters are great places to include the mission statement.

- **Face-to-face, brief team, and internal group meetings** (such as town hall meetings) with speeches by organizational leaders are utilized to communicate and promote organizational mission statements.

- **Management-by-walking-around** is used to communicate information relative to organizational mission and values.

- A **videotape** may be made to provide the mission statement and describe how it was developed; this video may be first shown at an internal event announcing the mission statement, and later utilized for external distribution.

- **Electronic-copy data** relative to the mission statement may be developed and disseminated.

- **Televised in-company news updates** presented on a continuous basis in each department of an organization can be an effective way to communicate information regarding corporate missions and values.

- **Media events** may be held announcing the mission statement to external parties.

- **Public news releases** can be created and sent to the press and appropriate parties.

Global Implications for Organizational Missions

In the development of missions, goals, and objectives, an organization may need to consider special international issues, such as:

- The need for raw materials or inputs from other countries or overseas

- The requirement for connections or locations in specific international cities for prestige or other reasons

- The desire to obtain the most economical materials that meet the needed quality level

- The development of franchises, license agreements, or the creation of special alliances or investment relationships

Not-for-Profit Organization Mission Statements

Not-for-profit organizations develop values and mission statements much like businesses; however, organizational productivity and the measurement of goal attainment is not the same. The following items should also be considered about not-for-profit organizations:

- Profits, market share, and sales are not measured like for-profit businesses.
- Goals are so broad and value-intense; and they take on a different perspective than goals of for-profit businesses.
- They center goals around the desires of those who contribute to the organization versus the wants of product recipients or end users.
- They have a higher leadership turnover ratio than for-profit entities.

Organizational Mission and Vision Compared

Organizations sometimes develop both mission and vision statements. Mission statements define the organization itself and what it is. **Vision statements** describe what organizations want to become in the future.

When individuals share the vision of the overall organization with which they work, they have increased motivation and interest in helping see the entity be successful and reach its goals.

Organizational Communication

We've already discussed some specific ways organizations can communicate vision and missions both internally and externally. We'll now look at some aspects relative to the overall communication process that may assist in clarifying this communication process.

Communications, per se, are covered in detail elsewhere in this complete review program; however, as a synopsis of organizational communication, we'll note that organizations have five **internal communication systems**:

- **Upward**
- **Downward**
- **Horizontal (or lateral)**
- **Grapevine**
- **Networks**

Most communication that takes place in organizations is carried out utilizing a formal, written, downward process, including:

- **Missions and values**
- **Policies and objectives**
- **Performance feedback**
- **Task directives**

Upward communication provides feedback regarding:

- Current issues
- Missions and values (generally only when this feedback is solicited)
- Progress toward the reaching of goals
- Downward communication issues requiring clarification
- General feedback relative to the business, work, and working conditions

Horizontal (or lateral) communication involves communication between peers within an organization. It is used to:

- Help in task coordination
- Provide support among organizational members
- Communicate quickly in emergency situations

Grapevines are used by all members of an organization to communicate informal and unofficial information. They are fairly effective and relatively accurate, but information provided through grapevines is usually incomplete.

Networks are informal communication systems linking organizational members, usually in small groups.

When all forms of organizational communication are used to their best advantage, corporate culture, mission, and values can be enhanced and promoted.

Barriers to organizational communication and communicating mission and values include:

- Distortion
- Information overload
- Rumors
- Status
- Organizational culture
- Restrictions due to organizational structure and boundaries
- Issues related to diversity

Assuming part of the organizational culture includes mutual trust, organizations can improve the communication process by:

- Providing more opportunities for communication (including putting rules and procedures in place to increase formal communication)

- Improving currently-utilized communication processes

- Sponsoring social events and gatherings

- Implementing, improving, or increasing survey and feedback opportunities

- Implementing a management open door policy

- Utilizing gatekeepers to help ensure important information is both sent and received (especially in large organizations)

- Replacing some forms of face-to-face communication with electronic communication

- Instituting communication networks

The personal touch is important. Management responses and acknowledgment relative to feedback received from organizational members should take place whenever possible.

<u>Impacts of Technologies and Structures on Organizational Communication</u>

There is no question that both technologies and structures affect organizational communication, especially in the case of larger entities.

Networked computer systems including voice mail, e-mail, facsimile, teleconferencing, video conferencing, intranets, and electronic data exchange are used to enhance communication in organizations today.

In addition, **wireless capabilities** are utilized to speed communication, including cellular phones, pagers, and laptop computers receiving data signals via satellites, radio, and infrared light rays.

Technology is used to:

- Rapidly communicate data to specific individuals or groups

- Increase and refine management ability to monitor performance

- Make quicker decisions by providing more thorough information in a timelier way

An **entity's structure** affects organizational communication in many ways. For example, boundaryless organizations that are not organized using the traditional organizational structure must consider utilizing different approaches to communication than formal, structured organizations use. Boundaryless organizations take advantage of technological communication advances to facilitate the communication process.

Advanced Organizational Management:
Organizational Planning
Chapter 5: Allocating Resources

Objectives: In this chapter, the student will review the following concepts:

1. The definition of resource allocation
2. Resource allocation activities utilized in organizations
3. The impact of resource control and dependencies on businesses
4. The effects of resource allocation in organizations impacted by restructure and re-engineering

Introduction

Resource allocation and strategic management go hand in hand. Learning how to allocate scarce resources is critical to the success of all individuals and organizations. We'll now take a look at resource allocation from a strategic point of view.

Resource Allocation Defined

Strategic management has been referred to as a resource allocation process. The accomplishment of organizational objectives lies at the heart of resource allocation. This includes the appropriate allocation of assets of the organization as a whole, as well as proper resource allocation achieved by all the parts within the organization, including functional and departmental units.

Resource allocation involves the allotment or appropriation of available scarce internal organizational resources. Resource allocation is a key management activity of strategic importance to organizations; therefore, it is important that management make careful choices in the allocation of its resources, including:

- **Financial**
- **Physical**
- **Human**
- **Time**
- **Information and knowledge**
- **Technological resources**

The **resource allocation decision-making process** requires the setting of priorities in each of these areas, based on goals and objectives set for a set period of time, usually one year. It is critical to the success of the organization that resources be used in a manner conforming with the set priorities and objectives.

There is no guarantee that goals and strategies will be reached and implemented in the originally-intended manner. The following are examples of **resource allocation problems** encountered in businesses:

- Organizational politics can get in the way of effective resource use.
- Resources can be overprotected and not utilized effectively.
- Short-term financial goals and criteria can be overemphasized.
- Goals, targets, and strategies may be unclear or not well defined.
- Knowledge and training among organizational members may be limited.
- Individuals may not be willing to take risks.

As mentioned, beneath the top-management strategy-setting level of an organization, each departmental or functional area is also involved in resource allocation. Each manager and individual is responsible to account for getting certain tasks accomplished and for goal attainment. It is a challenge for managers and team members to:

- Get everything done.

- Allocate resources and time toward the accomplishment of tasks, particularly those of key importance.

- Take time out to think strategically when today's challenges take up available time and energy.

- Keep budgets in line and utilize available resources to achieve the goals for which they are intended.

The key variables enabling organizations to accomplish their purposes and have a strategic advantage are their resources. Environmental opportunities and threats are also taken into account in this process. Strategic advantage, or what gives an organization that distinct edge over other organizations, is attained only through the proper utilization of valuable resources that contribute to the organization's efficiency and effectiveness.

Resources available to organizations that are rare and of strategic importance, or found in few entities, can be especially important to a business's successful strategy implementation, especially if they are not imitatable by others.

Organizational Resource Allocation

Successful organizations are made up of competent individuals who are committed and able to assist in the proper acquisition and allocation of resources. Such organizations will:

- Establish values and beliefs that are modeled by organizational leaders and members.

- Put systems and structures in place in such a way as to enable organization members to realize the organizational mission and vision.

● Train and assist individuals in ways that will help them best fill their roles and empower them to best utilize available resources.

● Appropriately reward individuals and teams as they reach their objectives and successfully allocate resources.

Resource Control

Organization members each have a certain amount of **power over resources** we've spoken about--resources such as finances, information, technology, and other individuals within the organization. Time and external environmental constraints are also part of the mix. An individual's success in managing and allocating resources depends upon how well he or she organizes and allocates those resources, in addition to how well the organization member manages relations with those upon whom he or she is dependent.

Organizations themselves have **resource dependencies**. They are dependent upon the external environment and upon how resources are managed and controlled within the entity itself. An organization's effectiveness, like the individual team member's, is contingent upon how well it manages its relations with those upon whom it is dependent. The degree of dependency an organization has on an external party varies on the amount of control that the external party has over the organization's inputs and outputs.

If relationships and dependencies are not managed properly, an organization will experience dysfunctional problems including the utilization of political and power games that can adversely affect organizational long-term viability.

There is a purpose for every functional unit or department to be included in an organization or it would not exist. However, the amount of power or control a unit has within an organization is dependent on the comparative value it contributes to each unit and the organization as a whole. For example, when one group controls resources that are needed by another group, the resource-controlling group will have a certain degree of power over the other. Because the first group is in a unique power position, it has leverage to obtain more resources that it needs from others.

Given this type of organizational situation, a unit or department will likely acquire at least a certain amount of resources through the use of politics verses the utilization of rational processes.

Effects of Resource Allocation

When organizational resources are utilized and allocated successfully, everyone benefits. When poor strategies are implemented or resources are not utilized properly, however, problems can occur. When organizations run into problems, whether they come about due to improper use of company assets or by problems imposed by external forces and factors, they have to consider drastic organizational change, including the following:

● **Retrenchment** or restructuring (reduction of company size or diversification of organizational operations)

and

● Re-engineering (the complete radical redesign of an organization)

Restructuring has also been referred to as downsizing, rightsizing, and delayering. Organizations are reduced in employee size, number of divisions and units, and number of levels in the entity's hierarchy. The end objective is to increase efficiency and effectiveness in order to put the organization back on a solid financial footing.

Restructuring may reduce organizational financial costs, but not without involving other costs: reduced employee involvement, innovation, and creativity.

Re-engineering, initiated by top-level management, is designed to remove the walls that have developed over time in bureaucratic organizations--walls such as turf that must be defended and politics taking precedence over performance.

Revolutionary change is introduced into the organization in the re-engineering process. The organization essentially begins anew with a focus on what can be accomplished versus what has been done in the past.

A new approach to the allocation of resources is considered in re-engineering:

● Decentralization takes place.

● Shared interdependence prevails.

● Information is shared.

● Individual contributions to overall organizational performance become much more apparent.

Chapter 6: Mentoring and Training

Objectives: In this chapter, the student will review the following concepts:

1. Career development
2. Mentoring and its benefits for the mentee, mentor, and organization involved
3. Specific training approaches and how training impacts individuals and businesses
4. Effective coaching in organizations

Introduction

Mentoring and training play a meaningful role in business today. Personal and professional development and growth provided by mentoring, coaching, development and training make the difference for both individuals and organizations as they work to reach their individual and long-term strategic goals.

Development

Individuals may hold a number of varied positions during a lifetime. The work sector of a person's life is typically referred to as a career. Individuals are responsible to learn skills and gain knowledge that will help them be successful in their careers. As people change, learn, and grow, they develop. ***Career development*** is designed to help people make positive changes and experience growth.

Career development programs have been developed to provide data, assessment, and training that will help individuals grow in their chosen careers. Traditionally, these programs have been provided by organizations, often to attract and retain good personnel. Development programs and organizations as a whole have been strongly impacted by the effects of corporate downsizing, restructuring, and other adjustments.

People will generally make changes when they are ready. As managers observe that individuals under their supervision are prepared for development, they should provide opportunities for employee growth, change, and learning.

Individual development *readiness* can be thought of as the demonstration of a willingness to progress and develop. When one is ready to move in a certain direction, if high expectations are provided, the stage is set for high achievement or performance that establishes an upward-spiraling cycle for the employee. The opposite is true when there are low expectations.

When considering development, one must:

- First target areas needing improvement by isolating tasks and competencies and selecting specific responsibilities that can be carried out better

- Assess whether or not the individual is ready to make changes to improve performance.

Development takes place whenever an individual or group is able to move from one task level to another:

1. The individual or group is told what is involved.
2. The individual or group is shown how to perform all related tasks.
3. Responsibility must be delegated to all those who are concerned.

Reinforcement must follow each positive change made in the development process. In addition, sufficient time must be allowed for each new learning activity.

Sometimes **behavior modification** is used to help individuals achieve desired performance--especially in the case of short-term goal attainment. This involves first determining attitudes and feelings of those involved in the developmental process, then providing rewards that reinforce preferred behaviors. Each time the person shows a desired behavior, an appropriate reward should be given right away.

Organizational Development

Organizational development (**OD**), is a process involving the preparation for and management of change in organizations. OD is utilized to help individuals adapt to change, and it involves:

- **Structure and policy change**
- **Behavior modification**
- **Affecting and changing values and attitudes**

Kurt Lewin has noted that **change involves three stages**:

1. Status quo **unfreezing**
2. **Making the change** to a new condition
3. **Refreezing** the change in order for the condition to remain constant

The end result of the implementation of organizational development should include the following:

- Enhanced organizational cohesiveness
- Improved focus and agreement on goals
- Integrated work teams
- Effective intergroup relations
- Reduced dysfunctional conflict

Organizational change involves:

- A plan
- Utilization of a systems approach (integrating and connecting human and other resource elements in an organization)
- An ongoing and continuous process
- The active participation of all parties concerned with the change
- Organization renewal
- A focus on specific action and goal attainment
- Use of well-established theory and practice, including action research

Action research is the process of performing behavioral research, then providing results to those involved; these individuals then use this data to create a plan for change.

The following assumptions are made by those involved in organizational development processes:

- Organizations should have particular characteristics.
- Change should take place in a particular way.
- Change is influenced by all organizational parts and units in an interdependent manner.
- Management must actively support organizational development in order for it to succeed.
- Change should bring about situations creating Win/Win results for everyone.
- Individuals and groups should behave in certain ways within organizations.
- Persons desire to be part of a group, learn, and be fulfilled in their work.
- Leadership and management should be shared in organizations.
- Organizational communication should be open.
- Group and team members should interact together in a positive manner.

Organization development is a process involving several steps and procedures:

Organization Development Steps
● An **assessment is done** and a diagnosis is made.
● **Relevant information is gathered**.
● **Feedback is provided** by those involved and the various issues are challenged.
● **A plan is established**; this includes the solving of relevant problems.
● **Training is provided** according to specific needs.
● **Team building processes are implemented**.
● **Development between groups takes place**.
● **Organizational goals are set**.
● **Individuals and teams work toward reaching set goals**.
● **The organization becomes stabilized**.
● **Process evaluation and follow-up are done**.

Problem diagnosis can be determined by:

- Separating the problem from symptoms of the problem
- Identifying changes needed to take care of the problem
- Specifying desired change outcomes and determining outcome measurement

Organizational change participation by organization members varies. Consider the following approaches:

- **Unilateral approaches**: These approaches involve management input only.

- **Shared approaches**: Shared approaches involve management decision making after consideration is given to (1) the individuals involved, (2) the amount of effort that must be expended to make the change, and (3) time factors. Some consider shared approaches to be better than other approaches.

- **Delegated approaches**: These approaches involve active subordinate effort in the program. An approach is developed and coordinated with the supervisor.

- The **unilateral approach**: The unilateral approach allows management to define and propose solutions; this approach focuses on organizational structure.

- **Replacement unilateral approach**: The replacement unilateral approach is used when key individuals are replaced as part of the development process.

- **Group decision-making shared approach**: The group decision-making shared approach allows subordinates to develop alternative solutions and make a decision on method implementation after management defines and communicates the problem.

● **Group problem-solving shared approach**: The Group problem-solving shared approach provides for the sharing of authority throughout the process from problem identification to solution.

● **T-Group approach**: The T-group delegated approach is used when there is the desire to have individual self-awareness increased among team or organization members.

● **Discussion group delegated approach**: The discussion group delegated approach is designed to bring managers and subordinates together into a group to talk about the problem and look at different development alternatives. The group then works together to develop a solution.

<u>**Organizational Development Methods**</u>

Several methods or approaches are used in organizational development, including:

- **Structural approaches**
- **Task and technology-based approaches**
- **Human resource approaches**
- **A varied approach (using Total Quality Management)**

The following are structural approaches that are introduced by management to bring about change through policies and procedures:

● **MBO** (**Management by Objectives**, originated by Peter Drucker): In this process, overall goals are discussed by managers and their subordinates. Attainable goals and objectives are established. Deadlines are then set for goal accomplishment and joint progress evaluation.

● **System 4 Organization** (developed by Rensis Likert): In this process, the highest stage of an organization's evolution is manifested in the attainment of organizational control, leadership, communication, motivation, interaction, decision making, and goal setting.

Task and technology-based approaches are designed to focus on specific tasks and projects to be accomplished in an organization:

- **Job design**
- **Work flow**
- **Work methods**
- **Techniques**
- **Computer-aided design (CAD)**
- **On- and off-the-job training**

Human resource approaches are designed to bring about effective and lasting changes in individuals that in turn help make great changes in organizations. Some of these approaches include:

- **Process consultation**
- **Survey feedback**
- **Team building**
- **Third-party intervention**
- **Managerial Grid®) organization development**

Process consultation involves internal or external agents who observe the group processes. The change agent discusses his or her observations with the group. The group then discusses with the change agent possible ways to make improvements.

Survey feedback is obtained from organizational members to learn about their feelings regarding the work they do, the teams with which they work, supervisors, and the overall organization. The questionnaires are completed, turned in, tabulated, and then discussed by group members.

Team building is discussed in detail in the Team Building chapter of this program. In a nutshell, team building involves:

- Team goal setting
- Analysis of team processes
- Examination of team member roles and responsibilities
- Development of team member relations

In **third-party intervention**, a specialist is brought in to help bring about change in organizational perceptions, attitudes, and stereotypes. Multiple approaches are used by these outside professionals, and conflict resolution strategies are used to aid the process. The emphasis is on consensus building and finding solutions acceptable to all parties. More details are found in the Resolving Conflict chapter of this program.

Managerial Grid organization development, developed by Blake and Mouton, is an extensive and systematic approach to change. Change agents assist managers in the process of identifying themselves on the Grid relative to their concern for people and production. Supervisors are either country club managers (having low concern for production and a high concern for people), impoverished managers (with a low concern for both people and production), authority-obedience managers (having a high concern for production and a low concern for people), organization man managers (with sufficient concern for people and production), or team managers (having a high concern for both people and production). The goal is to help managers progress to the team manager level.

A varied or multifaceted approach to organizational development includes **TQM** (**Total Quality Management**). TQM uses the setting and reaching of high standards to provide quality and ongoing improvement in products and services provided by organizations. TQM requires:

- The setting of an organizational objective for quality and ongoing improvement to be a high priority and guiding principle.

● A quantitative and qualitative definition of quality (for example, customer satisfaction).

● An understanding of (1) customers, (2) suppliers, (3) management roles, and (4) organization member roles in the development and carrying out of quality-related goals and objectives.

● An organizational structure that facilitates quality and ongoing improvement.

For entities wishing to promote the use of quality management standards, the **ISO 9000 certification** has been developed for worldwide use by the International Organization for Standardization.

<u>Manager Development Stages</u>

Managers are developed in the following stages:

1. They receive training relative to the program and its concepts.

2. Managers and their teams work together to improve their relationships and develop cohesive teams.

3. Intergroup cooperation is developed.

4. Goals are set based on identified changes required.

5. The program is evaluated and steps are taken to stabilize the changes.

<u>Organizational Development Program Implementation</u>

Key factors involved in organizational development implementation include:

● The extent or scope of the program
● Appropriate timing for program implementation

<u>On-the-Job Development</u>

Approaches commonly used to develop individuals on the job include:

● **Job rotation** (allowing individuals to rotate positions vertically or horizontally to increase skills, abilities, and knowledge).

● **Committee assignments** (providing persons a chance to observe and learn from others at work on the committee; they also have the opportunity to be involved in decision-making experiences and work on specific issues and problems facing the organization).

- **Assistant-to positions** (providing opportunities for individuals to work closely with supportive persons; such positions allow personnel to gain a wide variety of experiences and prepare to take on more challenging responsibilities in the organization).

Off-the-Job Development

Opportunities for off-the-job development include:

- **Seminars and courses** where individual knowledge is increased and persons have the chance to increase their abilities to conceive and analyze ideas and concepts.

- **Outdoor training** where individuals have the chance to build confidence and teamwork skills. Such training activities are often demanding, and they challenge individuals emotionally and/or physically.

- **Simulations** are provided to create conditions and situations that are similar to those experienced on the job, including case studies and role plays.

Introspection Development

Individuals in organizations are sometimes encouraged to take time out to ponder and think. Introspection can be beneficial to persons in a number of ways. Here are some examples:

- Attaining personal balance
- Learning
- Objectivity development
- Becoming more creative
- Looking beyond personal ego issues
- Developing personal intuition
- Increasing confidence
- Learning to look outside of the box

Mentoring

A mentor is an experienced or senior individual within an organization who takes on the capacity of role model in the career development of a less-experienced person. This role may or may not be institutionalized within the organization and is usually long-term in nature.

Mentors may be immediate supervisors, and individuals who act as mentors serve as guides and counselors. They point the way and help the mentee to learn the ropes of the business. Mentors help mentees develop their individual identities, feelings, competence, and proficiency by:

• **Being role models** (by giving the mentee behaviors and values to copy and integrate).

• **Counseling mentees** (by listening to the mentee and providing sage advice; also by delineating organizational values and accepted behaviors).

• **Providing acceptance** (by giving support and encouragement as needed).

• **Giving confirmation to mentees regarding their performance** (by providing encouragement and suggestions to mentees, and by allowing mentees to solve problems on their own).

• **Developing mutual association and friendship bonds with mentees** (by providing courtesies, kindnesses, and keeping confidential information shared between the mentor and mentee).

Mentors also assist mentees in the development their specific job-related skills by being:

• **Sponsors** (for mentee promotions and desired positions).

• **Coaches** (providing on-the-spot counsel regarding job skills).

• **Defenders** (providing shielding and protection from potential harm).

• **Providers of visibility and exposure for mentees** (helping make opportunities for the mentee to be seen and heard, especially among higher management organizational members).

• **Securers of ambitious job-related opportunities** (the mentor assists mentees in obtaining and succeeding at challenging assignments).

• **Referral provider** (the mentor may refer the mentee to sources outside the organization for assistance with specific issues and problems).

Mentoring is developed in the following stages:

Mentoring Stages
• Inducting or initiating
• Cultivating
• Separating
• Reclarifying or redefining

In the **initiating stage**, the mentor and mentee develop a working relationship.

In the **cultivating stage**, the mentor develops and fills his or her psychological, social, and functional roles that enable the mentee to make growth and progress. This stage may last for a period of time, as the junior organizational member may need counsel, nurturing, and protection for a few years before he or she is able to work completely independent of the mentor.

Once the mentee has reached a certain point, the mentor and mentee separate (in the **separation stage**), allowing the mentee to stand independent of the mentor in his or her functions.

After the mentee has become independent of the mentor, the mentor and mentee redefine their roles and relationships (in the **redefinition or reclarification stage**). Instead of having a superior-subordinate relationship, the mentor and mentee become peers in the organization.

The **advantages of mentor relationships** include:

- A high level of interaction between the mentor and the mentee

- The ability to have quick feedback regarding mentee activities and performance

Mentors benefit organizations by:

- Being able to locate organizational talent that may not have otherwise been noticed

- Helping transfer organizational expectations and values to others

- Noting morale and attitudes among organizational members

Disadvantages of mentoring relationships include:

- Dependence on the mentor to coach and train well

- Continuation of traditional modes and practices that may not be beneficial to the organization

It should be noted that:

- Mentor relationships must always be voluntary.

- Mentor relationships and activities may not always work out as organizations desire.

- Not all seasoned employees want to be or make good mentors.

Important Mentoring Traits

Traditional management and leadership have focused on the utilization and development of left-brain, masculine traits. While there is merit and value in conventional theory, the importance of the development and use of right-brain, nurturing traits cannot be overemphasized, especially as more women enter the work force and become integrated into managerial roles and bring these traits with them.

Development of the following traits is valuable to successful mentoring relationships:

- Becoming a nourishing person
- Developing a positive outlook
- Utilizing a supportive approach to interpersonal relations
- Using intuition in decision-making processes

Strategies for the Development of Effective Mentoring Traits

Here are some specific activities and strategies that can be implemented to help develop these traits:

- Realize that nearly everyone needs to grow and develop.

- Strive to be a role model for others in the organization.

- Form a buddy system with someone in your work area or another area in the company.

- Understand that development of nourishing, supportive traits is a long-term process.

Responsibilities of the Mentee in a Mentoring Relationship

Mentees have responsibilities in the relationship, including the following:

- Communicate openly and honestly.

- Be willing to learn, ask questions, and challenge the mentor.

- Work as effectively as possible, striving to apply the concepts taught by the mentor.

- Consider being a mentor to others at the appropriate time.

Mentoring Challenges

As a closing note on this subject, mentoring can provide special challenges, especially for women and minorities who are trying to break through the invisible glass ceiling of organizations. Businesses are looking at ways of breaking through this ceiling such as cross-gender mentoring. This type of mentoring involves:

- Identification of potential problems in general and with each specific case

- Decision making on the best way to carry out the mentoring relationship

- Provision of company support to help ensure the success of the mentoring relationship

Training

Training involves work-related learning resulting in long-term change designed to enhance a person's job performance.

Training involves a change in

- Knowledge
- Skills
- Behavior
- Attitudes

Employee training has a focus on the present; it is designed to help people do better in their current job assignments. Training increases employee productivity and effectiveness; it also helps minimize errors in work.

Initial job-related training comes in the form of the **employee orientation**. The new associate learns general concepts about his or her employer. This is followed by a training program designed to help the new person be able to meet a standard level of job performance. New personnel may be brought into the organization through a socialization process involving the teaching of organizational traditions, values and culture.

The bulk of training is aimed at improving and enhancing employee technical abilities. An emphasis is placed on improving employee communication and mathematical skills. Reading and writing, along with specific job-related competencies, are stressed.

Problem-solving skills are also taught in training. Such skills include activities that assist employees:

- In the definition of problems
- With the problem assessment process
- Creatively develop and analyze alternative problem solutions
- Choose effective solutions to problems

Interpersonal skills are also taught in employee training. As individuals learn to interact more effectively with others, their work performance improves. Such skills include:

- Improving employee communication clarity
- Increasing individual listening proficiency
- Learning conflict reduction strategies

Training Principles

The following principles are important in the training process:

- Material being used must be meaningful and relate well to the specific skill involved.

- The person being trained needs to be able to concentrate on mental and physical tasks to be done.

- The trainee must be motivated and interested in what is being taught.

- Training must approach the learning process little by little, rather than focusing on teaching large amounts of material in one sitting.

- Progress feedback should be provided to the trainee on a consistent basis.

- The trainer must look for signs of employee defensiveness and clarify the reasons for their behavior. Perhaps the trainee is uncomfortable with what must be done or has beliefs that run counter to what is being asked of him or her.

- Remember the number seven in the training process. Short-term memory of people seems to involve about seven categories of information. For example, most local telephone numbers are comprised of seven digits.

Although learning involved in the training process cannot be effectively measured, changes in behavior and attitudes can be determined. The following learning methods have been researched over time:

- Social learning
- Operant conditioning

Social learning involves both observation and personal experience. Learning comes from watching others, having things explained by another, and from having direct experiences. The focus of the Social-Learning theory is on individual observations and perceptions.

In social learning, a model should be provided that gains the attention of the learner. The observer should have a way to be able to remember what is learned for use at a future time. The experience should be motivational; it should also be made as relevant as possible to the actual work or employment of the learner.

The following four processes impact how persons and things impact individuals in Social-Learning:

● **Motor reproduction** (this process involves a person watching how something is done, followed by his or her mimicking what has been observed).

● **Reinforcement** (a person behaves a certain way in order to obtain, or as a result of receiving, positive incentives and rewards).

● **Retention** (the impression or influence an experience, person, or thing has on an individual impacts the degree to which the experience receiver remembers or retains the learning experience).

● **Attention** (a person's alertness, focus, and his or her commitment of important details to memory regarding another individual, thing, or experience is key to the attentional process; it helps if the person involved in the attention process can relate to the experience, in addition to their assigning importance and being attracted to that which is being given the attention).

Operant conditioning involves individual behavioral changes that come about due to consequences experienced after actions are taken or choices are made. A person will be reinforced in certain behaviors when consequences are favorable. He or she will avoid certain persons, things, or activities when the results are undesirable.

B.F. Skinner developed this theory that places emphasis on learning from external origins versus individual internal learning processes. Individual behavior can be molded in the following ways:

● **Positive reinforcement** (giving desirable rewards for actions or choices)

● **Negative reinforcement** (giving undesirable rewards for actions or choices).

● **Punishment** (providing chastisement for conduct or behavior).

● **Extinction** (the withholding of reinforcement or punishment).

It has been found that learning in the work environment:

● Generally begins at a quick pace, then tapers and levels off (this is called the learning curve)

● Is enhanced when motivation is involved

● Is improved by practice

● Necessitates feedback

● Needs to be relevant to job skills and performance

● Should be reinforced so that desirable behavior will continue

The following issues should be considered in the **training process**:

- Specific training needs should be identified.

- Training should be consistent with company goals and objectives.

- Responsibilities, assignments, and tasks needed to achieve goals should be determined.

- Attitudes and behaviors needed by individuals to successfully finish their assigned tasks should be resolved.

- Specific abilities and knowledge areas in which individuals are deficient should be identified in order for an effective training program to be developed.

Training Methods

Training comes in the form of:

- **On-the-job training**
- **Off-the-job training**

On-the-job training is common in work places. This type of training is highly effective for immediate application in employment.

The following are **types of on-the-job training**:

- **Apprenticeship**: Persons learn a skill during an extended period of time (two to five years) in apprenticeship programs. In white-collar positions, apprenticeships are referred to as mentor or coaching relationships.

- **Understudy**: Employees who utilize this learning approach work under the close view and supervision of a seasoned organizational associate in the process of learning technical skills.

- **Job rotation**: Individuals can learn about different positions by being given the opportunity to learn through performing other jobs at the same level of the organizational hierarchy.

- **Job Instruction Training** (**JIT**): This form of training is systematic in its approach. Employee access to assistance is provided during this process. It involves (1) an introduction to the job, (2) a clear presentation of job fundamentals, (3) first-hand experience on the job to show an understanding of the job, and (4) full job placement allowing the individual to perform the job.

On-the-Job Training Drawbacks

On-the-job training is fairly inexpensive and simple to put in place; however, it does have its drawbacks:

- Employee productivity is low during the learning process.

- Work accuracy takes time to develop; errors are made in the learning process.

- Workplace activities can be interrupted.

Also, due to the complexity of some skills, essential training may need to be provided off-the-job.

Off-the-Job Training

Another form of training, off-the-job, is also popular with employers. Here are some commonly-used forms:

- **Classroom lectures** are widely used to provide specific information in technical, interpersonal, and problem-solving skill areas.

- **Films and videos** visually demonstrate and explain specific technical skills in a more effective way than other training approaches.

- **Interactive videos** are designed to allow the trainee to make selections and changes based on options provided in the training materials.

- **Simulation exercises** provide training that mimics functions that will actually be performed on the job. Exercises used include case analysis, role playing, group interaction activities, and experiential simulation training.

- **Computer-based training** simulates the work environment. For example, computer models such as airline pilot simulations are also developed to copy specific on-the-job situations and teach specialized skills.

- **Programmed instructional learning**, including computer tutorials, virtual reality simulations, and interactive videos provides a concise, logical, and organized approach to learning specific skills.

- **Virtual reality** involves work environment simulation through the sending of signals to the brain.

- **Vestibule training** provides for hands-on training on equipment to be used in the actual work setting; practice is done on a simulated work station away from the actual job.

Training Program Evaluation

Training programs should be evaluated by a team of managers experienced in training. Effective programs will provide the needed skill training, regardless of their entertainment value or difficulty. When programs are making a positive difference in organizations, based on management evaluation, they will continue to be used.

The following **evaluation measurement tools** can be utilized:

- **Post-training performance**: Performance is based on employee job performance after training has been provided.

- **Pre-post training performance**: Performance is based on improvement made in specific job skill completion (comparing performance both before and after training is provided).

- **Pre-post training performance (with control group)**: Performance is based on skill improvement made, comparing trainee work before and after training is provided against performance of individuals who were not provided with training.

The **training evaluation process** incorporates the following steps:

- Program objectives are outlined.
- Specific objective activities and events are specified.
- Critical and baseline factors are determined for comparison purposes.
- Control groups are used to make comparisons.
- Program outcomes are measured.
- Unexpected results are isolated and reviewed.

Ethics Training

Training is also provided to assist organizational employees with regard to ethical business practices. Individuals are made aware of general ethics in addition to specific issues that need to be addressed in the workplace where the training is being provided.

The following are **objectives of ethics training** in organizations:

- Individuals are taught to distinguish ethical factors in the decision-making process.

- Decision making is made more uniform by the clarification of rules and norms affecting ethical decision making.

- Employees gain a better understanding of the importance of ethical conduct.

- Accountability and responsibility for ethical choices are clarified.

Global Organization Training

Multinational firms have special training needs. For example:

- Language training must be provided.

- Associates are encouraged to show a desire to communicate in the native tongue of the country in which business is being transacted.

● Social and cultural training should be included in order to assist the organizational associate in the communication process.

Coaching

Coaching is provided by managers who wish to be effective in their stewardship. They provide the subordinate with specific instruction, advice, guidance, and reassuring support toward the goal of better employee work performance. Traditionally, coaching was provided by managers and members of an organization's human resource department. In the team-oriented work environment, coaching is provided primarily by team members.

Coaching takes place at any level in an organization. Perhaps the most effective coaching occurs when there is no type of reporting relationship involved.

Behaviors of Highly-Effective Coaches

The following behaviors are displayed among highly-effective coaches:

● Effective coaches help the employee see how they can specifically improve their abilities, competence, and job performance. They do this by observing specific employee performance and behaviors, then asking questions of the employee about ways they think they may be able to improve.

● Effective coaches develop a climate that is supportive and helpful to the employee. They freely exchange ideas and offer to help. They provide counsel, when asked. They are positive in their approach and focus on what can be learned from mistakes.

● Effective coaches encourage continuous employee improvement and then reward the individual as progress is made. They also model the qualities they wish to see in the individuals they are coaching and allow for the modeling of desired performance.

Effective coaches:

● Encourage the sharing of employee observations and feelings

● Know how to listen well

● Provide specific feedback (including appropriate, constructive advice)

● Remain patient with others

● Have empathy for others

● Have self confidence and are enthusiastic

- Have a feel for others and where they are coming from

- Are able to interpret the environment and activities taking place

- Are tactful and have developed the art of diplomacy

- Are supportive of employees being coached

- Are non-competitive with other team members and have concern for their welfare

- Help take down barriers impeding needed performance

Advanced Organizational Management:
Advanced Administration
Chapter 7: Conducting Research

Objectives: In this chapter, the student will review the following concepts:

1. Research and the steps involved in formal research
2. Techniques and approaches involved in research methodology
3. Types of research performed in business and science
4. Preparation for research
5. The planning and designing of different types of research
6. Research proposal concepts
7. Various ways of performing research
8. Quantitative and qualitative research
9. Research data types
10. Key terminology relative to statistical data sampling, statistics, and validity
11. Primary and secondary research sources
12. Ethics in research
13. How to write about research

Introduction

Research is performed in various ways and for different reasons in organizations. It is generally done because a problem has arisen or an important question has been asked requiring investigation or experimentation. We'll now take a look at various factors involved in the research process.

Research Defined

Research involves more than just documentation and information gathering. Research is the collection and analysis of data and evidence relating to questions and issues addressed by researchers. Research involves inquiry, exploration, and study using the scientific method.

Research:

- Is originated with a problem or question
- Requires a goal
- Utilizes a specific procedure and plan
- Involves a specific issue, inquiry, or hypothesis (a hypothesis is a sensible guess or logical supposition that can be supported or rejected by data)

- Should be approached in a manageable and clinical way, with a main problem or issue broken into subcategories

- Is based on important assumptions (and the assumptions must be valid, as they make up the foundation of the research; they are also somewhat self-evident)

- Necessitates relevant data gathering and interpretation

After the problem has been (1) defined, (2) broken into subcategories, (3) provided with a hypothesis, and assumptions have been outlined, relevant data must be meaningfully collected and organized in order for proper interpretation to take place. Interpretation:

- Is subjective
- Requires researcher objectivity
- Must be done with the use of logic and inductive reasoning

The following steps are followed in formal research:

Formal Research Process
1. A **question is asked** by someone. Why is something the way it appears? What caused the issue under consideration?
2. The question involved is established in the form of a **problem statement**.
3. **Data is gathered** relating to the problem or issue.
4. A **hypothesis is formed** from data that seem to lead to the problem's solution.
5. **More data is gathered**.
6. All **data collected are put together in an organized way and given interpretation**.
7. A **determination is made**.
8. The **hypotheses are either supported or rejected** by the data gathered.

It should be remembered that research is never fully definitive or conclusive. Usually, research creates more questions than it answers, and additional research must be done in order to more fully support or not support hypotheses and conjectures made in research.

Research Methodology

Research methodology is a key consideration in the research process. Methodology involves techniques and approaches used in the process of making the following critical decisions:

- **Research planning**
- **Research Organization**
- **Project direction**
- **Setting of controls**
- **Data acquisition means**
- **Process for refining raw data**
- **Data arrangement**
- **Research analysis and conclusions**

Research Types

The following are common types of research performed:

- **Primary** (original or primary data research)

- **Secondary** (book and journal research)

- **Experimental** (based on experimentation data)

- **Field** (research that is done in a natural setting away from a laboratory situation)

- **Government** (based on government research data)

- **Grounded theory** (based on theory generated from data; patterns are detected from observations made, followed by hypotheses that direct the continued development of the research's progress)

- **Empirical** (relying on experience observed and made public)

- **Academic** (based on educational or academic research data)

- **Library** (based on library research data)

- **Historical analysis** (based on actual historical record data)

- **Case study** (based on the study of individual behaviors over a period of time; this type of research is used when exceptions must be studied)

- **Quantitative** (made up of numeric-based data)

- **Qualitative** (made up of observation field notes, printed research data, and interviews; examples include:)

    Ethnography (the observation of everyday life details as they naturally take place in the real world; this type of research is done by anthropologists)

    Phenomenology (based on social research performed in an attempt to understand the individual's perspective; this type of research is done when empathy is important)

    Unstructured (intensive) interviewing (based on open-ended questions asked during interviews)

    Direct observation (based on the researcher's actual observations of behavior)

    Participant observation (based on data gathered when the researcher actually becomes part of what is being observed)

    Content analysis (based on researcher interpretation of field notes)

Other types of research include:

- **Descriptive** (based on data that describes some group or phenomena)

- **Classification** (based on data in specific classifications)

- **Naturalistic** (involving systematic observations without any interruptions)

- **Longitudinal** (composed of data about the same objects or subjects that are re-evaluated over a period of time)

- **Comparative** (made up of research involving several organizations or situations and then making an estimate regarding the similarity or differences in the data)

- **Cross-sectional** (involving data that are collected at one point in time)

- **Mixed design** (involving different research designs for various independent variables used in research)

● **Marketing research** (data involving the systematic collection, recording, and analysis of data about issues relating to the marketing of services and goods; information is gathered using various procedures, instruments, concepts, scales, and techniques to help determine strengths and weaknesses in organizational marketing efforts; marketing research conducted helps organizations make strategic decisions about their marketing efforts)

● **Human resource** (based on human resource findings)

Also, human resources research can lead to a better understanding of the following issues:

- Validating tests
- Diversity in the workplace
- Health and wellness
- Managerial effectiveness
- Weighted application blank development
- Compensation surveys
- Training effectiveness
- Violence in the workplace

Human resource research is often used to help increase satisfaction and productivity of personnel and reduce employee turnover and absenteeism.

● **Behavioral science** (based on research done in behavioral sciences)

● **Action research** (the process of gathering behavioral research data and then feeding the information back to participants; results of the research are discussed by those involved, who then plan appropriate changes in behavior and approaches)

Other key types of research will be discussed later in this chapter.

Preparing for Research

In preparation for research to be done, the following areas need consideration:

- **Problem solving**
- **The research criteria**
- **Use of the scientific method**
- **Goals to be reached**
- **Research feasibility**
- **Planning**

As the researcher considers the questions involved and problems that need to be solved, the following techniques can be used:

- **Mindmapping** (involving the transformation of complex net-like fields into a manageable structure; appropriate key words are used in note taking to facilitate both recall and creativity)

- Creative thinking

- Critical thinking

Researchers should also have a specific place where data is organized and kept (for example, manual or electronic databases).

As the researcher approaches a project, he or she must be fully aware of the scientific approach and its key application in research.

The scientific approach utilizes a systematic, objective, and controlled process. Checks are built in the process so that activities and conclusions drawn are not biased or based on researcher preconceptions. The scientific method has several characteristics:

Characteristics of The Scientific Method
● The approach is systematic and cumulative.
● The purpose of the study is to help explain, understand, or predict.
● Definitions are precise.
● Procedures are known publicly.
● Data collection is objective.
● One must be able to be reproduce findings.

Research Plan and Design

When putting together an academic research plan, the following considerations should be made:

- The scope of observations or experiments should be set; one should determine what should be included and excluded in the research.

- New sources of primary data should be resolved. Primary data includes main or original data sources.

- Sources of data should be selected, with an emphasis on data reliability and practicality of data gathering.

- One should determine suitable variables that are involved in the research. These variables should be (1) specifically identified by name and abbreviated and (2) measurable, with the measurement unit type specified.

- Extraneous or irrelevant variables should be controlled or eliminated.

- The reasons why some identified variables are not used should be specified.

- Data should be collected from the source with fields of interest used; fields not of interest should be left out.

- A theory of what the data should look like should be developed.

- Data should be examined for irregularities, then the irregularities should be explained.

- Improved data should be gathered.

- Poor or irrelevant data should be eliminated or filtered out.

- This process should be completed for secondary data.

- Data should be processed in a visual format so relationships become clear.

- The above steps should be repeated for the next experiment.

- The data should be looked at for relationships and patterns and then an explanation for them should be developed.

- A theory explaining patterns and relationships should be developed and generalized.

- Statistical backing should be shown for the theory.

- One should indicate if the theory is accepted or rejected and with an explanation provided (if the theory is rejected, new variables and fields should be used); the limits of the generalization should be specified.

- The data should be written as it is developed; the material should be rewritten in a thorough, clear, consistent, and concise manner.

Research Designs

Three basic designs are used in behavioral science research:

Basic Behavioral Science Research Designs
● The field study
● The case study
● The experiment

In the **field study**, the following techniques are used:

- **Observation**
- **Personal interviews**
- **Questionnaire surveys**
- **Archival records, information, and statistics**

Interviews assist in obtaining a balanced view of the overall issue being examined before conclusions are made.

Questionnaires are more objective than interviews. They identify individual perceptions as to the degree (on a point scale) that a certain issue or question possesses a specific characteristic.

Groups of individuals are used for questionnaire comparison purposes, followed by longitudinal studies of observations made over a period of time.

A variety of factors are involved in the successful application of field studies in relation to a given hypothesis that has been developed.

Field Study Weaknesses

Some weaknesses in the use of field studies include:

- Researcher biases

- Negative impact on participant responses due to the researcher's physical presence in the interview or survey process

- Factors being overlooked (such as technological factors in connection with behavioral factors)

Case Studies

Case studies are a type of descriptive research involving the intensive study and gathering of detailed data about one person or group. The data is then analyzed and compared or contrasted with other case studies. Case studies are used in sociology, psychology, criminology, and anthropology. An example of a case study is the report of factors leading to a union strike.

Case studies, like field studies, have their limitations and problems. For example:

- No two cases are exactly alike, so it's really difficult to compare cases.

- Case study findings are subjectively interpreted.

- It's difficult to verify or repeat cases.

● It's hard to generalize when a case study is based on a sample of one person or group.

Experiments

Experiments:

● Utilize the most rigorous of scientific techniques

● Involve making something occur under known conditions

● Eliminate as many non-essential or irrelevant influences as possible

● Require close measurement or observation

● Show the relationships between variables being considered

● Are used to show causation, indicating the correctness of the hypothesis involved

There are two **main experiment types**:

● The field experiment, where manipulation and control of variables takes place in a natural setting.

● The laboratory experiment, where the researcher creates an environment for experimentation in an artificial or classroom environment.

The lab experiment allows for control of conditions so that relevant variables can be isolated and measured.

Field experiments are done in the actual environment being considered. Comparisons are usually made taking into account uniform factors over a period of time.

Field experiments have problems, including the following:

● Influencing factors cannot always be known or controlled.

● The presence of the researcher, if known by participants, can impact the experiment results.

● **Behavioral science experiments** are somewhat complex (for example, factors such as testing, history, maturation, instruments used, and the selection process add to a mix that can make it very challenging to do behavioral science experiments).

Other issues involved in behavioral science experiments include the measurement of variables involved in the experiment. The hypothesis is generally stated to reflect differences in the extent or size of a variable in relation to differences in the magnitude of other variables.

Examples of **measurement tools in behavioral science experiments** include:

- Personality tests
- Psychological tests
- Attitudinal questionnaires
- Electronic measurement of bodily functions (such as blood pressure or eye movement)

Research instruments must be:

- **Valid** (in other words, the instrument measures what is intended for measurement)
- **Reliable** (the instrument must be consistent in measurement)

Several specific **research designs** are used in behavioral science experiments, including:

- **One-shot design**: This pseudo-experimental design involves the one-time use of a treatment and the observation of the treatment. It is not commonly used because of its weaknesses.

- **One-group pretest-posttest design**: This pseudo-experimental design involves a pretest, the activity, and then a posttest that measures performance change after the activity is completed.

- **Static-group comparison design**: In this pseudo-experimental design, half of the groups involved participate in the activity and half do not. Both groups are then compared.

- **Solomon Four-Group design**: This experimental design measures four groups to help the behavioral scientist determine if change or gain has resulted from an administered activity. Events involved include the pretest, the activity, and the posttest. Not all of the groups participate in each event.

- **Pretest-posttest control group design**: This is an experimentation form that involves two groups: one that is involved in an activity and one that is not. There are members in both groups who are randomly selected to either be involved or not involved in the activity.

- **Posttest-only control group design**: This experimental form involves two groups, but only one group is given the activity; and both groups are given the posttest.

Research Proposals

Research proposals are written in order to obtain clearance or funding for research. They include:

- The proposal itself
- Standards to be included in the research
- Questions or issues to be addressed by the research
- Possible hypotheses that may be researched

Proposals include the following:

- A cover letter

- A title page with proposed proposal description

- Introduction and background

- The problem and its setting (statement of the problem, listing of subproblems, hypotheses, delimitations [research boundaries], definition of items, assumptions, importance of study, work to be done in the study, review of literature, quotations, proposed problem solutions, methods to be used, data involved [including their treatment and interpretation])

- A listing of data used (both primary and secondary), along with factors governing allowance of data in the research

- A definition of the research method(s) to be used

- An outline of the specific proposed handling of each subproblem (with a restatement of each subproblem and an inclusion of data needed; a description of where the data will be found, how the data will be gathered, and data treatment and interpretation)

- Inclusion of researcher qualifications

- An outline of the proposed thesis

- Bibliography sources

- The specific research schedule, including proposed progress report submission dates

- An equipment, resource, and facilities requirements list

- A detailed research budget

- A description of ethical protocol (for animal or human research)

Time factors for all elements of the research should be taken into account when developing and submitting a research proposal. For example, the proposal should be provided in advance, taking into account deadlines for fiscal, human resource, facility, and equipment needs of the research project.

Ways of Conducting Research

There are various **ways of conducting research**. Research can be based on:

- Obtaining primary data
- Utilization of secondary data
- Research data
- Research database
- Reference database
- Data backups
- Database fields
- Database records
- Database queries
- Data gathering
- Research notes
- Hypothesis testing
- Pattern matching

In the research process, one must always take into account:

- Data quality
- Interpretation of data
- Analysis of factors lying inside and outside the variables under consideration

Qualitative Versus Quantitative Research

Qualitative data consist of words such as printed research material, field notes from direct observations, and interviews. Qualitative data is exploratory and use inductive logic. Qualitative data lead to qualitative research.

Qualitative data is:

- Subjective
- Not usually quantifiable or used in making quantitative comparisons

Quantitative data is made up of numbers such as statistics, percentages, frequency counts, and questionnaire responses (in numbers). Quantitative data is confirmatory and uses deductive logic. Quantitative data lead to quantitative research.

The quantitative research approach embodies:

- **Use of the scientific method**
- **Control groups**
- **Explicit definitions**
- **Objective data gathering**
- **Findings that can be replicated**

There is an overlapping between quantitative and qualitative research. For example, numbers can be used to refer to specific events mentioned in interviews. Combining both methods can add to the comprehensiveness of--and check for congruence in--research findings.

Research literature has associated the following characteristics with qualitative behavioral science research:

- Research is witnessed first hand, whenever possible.

- Research generally centers around typical and routine activities or behaviors.

- Data gathered focus on descriptions of what takes place at specific locations and times.

- Emphasis is placed on activities that are shared in organizations.

- Research analysis is designed to be uniform, logical, and convincing.

Research Data Types

Research data types include:

- **Descriptive**: Data that describes or define an individual, group, or event.

- **Nominal**: Data is nominal if the observations or values involved can be assigned a code in the form of a number where the numbers are simply labels. You can count but not order or measure nominal data (for example, in a data set French could be coded as 0, Spanish as 1; citizenship status of an individual could be coded as Y if one is a citizen of the country, N if one is not a citizen of the country).

- **Ordinal**: Data is ordinal if the observations or values involved can be ranked (put in order) or have a rating scale attached. Ordinal data can be counted and ordered, but not measured.

Data Sampling

The following terms are relevant regarding **data sampling** (a sample is a group of respondents derived from a population):

Convenience sampling: A sample that is easy to obtain but is not a valid representation of the population (for example, interviewing people at a shopping mall versus taking a pure, scientific random sample).

Random sampling: A sample where a group of subjects (the sample) is selected for study from a larger group (the population). Each person is selected completely by chance and each member of the population has a known, but possibly non-equal, chance of being included in the sample. The likelihood of bias is reduced in random sampling.

Sample sizes: A sample size is the number of elements drawn from the population (for example, the number of names and phone numbers).

Stratified sampling: A stratified sample is obtained by taking samples from each stratum or sub-group of a population. This is done when it is expected that the measurement of interest will vary from among different sub-populations.

Cluster sampling: Cluster sampling is a technique where the entire population is divided into groups, or clusters, and a random sample of these clusters is selected. All observations in the selected clusters are included in the sample.

Data Statistics

When using data statistics in research, one should be aware of the following:

- **Measurement**: A measurement is a label or number attached to a unit of observation. If this number expresses dimensions or capacities, it is called quantitative measurement. If it records attributes or characteristics, it is referred to as qualitative measurement.

- **Descriptive statistics**: These statistics result from observed findings, data distributions, and relationships between data where there is no application of statistical tests (including reporting and summarizing on the observed findings).

- **Independent variables**: Two events are independent if the occurrence of one of the events provides no information about whether or not the other event will happen; in other words, the events have no influence on each other.

- **Normal curve**: A normal random variable should be capable of assuming any value on the real line, though this requirement is often waived in practice. For example, height at a given age for a particular gender in a specified ethnic group is adequately described by a normal random variable even though heights must be positive.

- **Standard deviations**: A standard deviation is a measure of the spread or dispersion of a set of data. The data values in a sample are not all the same. This variation between values is called dispersion.

● **Standard errors**: A standard error is the standard deviation of the values of a given function of the data (parameter), over all possible samples of the same size.

● **Degrees of freedom**: A term used by statisticians to describe the number of values in the final calculation of a statistic that are free to vary.

● **Mean**: The arithmetic average of a set of measurements.

● **Confidence intervals**: A confidence interval for a mean specifies a range of values within which the unknown population parameter, in this case the mean, may lie. As an example, these intervals may be calculated by a producer who wishes to estimate his mean daily output or the researcher who wishes to estimate the mean response by patients to a new drug.

● **Confidence limits**: Lower and upper values or boundaries of a confidence interval; in other words, the values that define the range of a confidence interval.

● **Inferential statistics**: Statistical inference makes use of information from a sample to draw conclusions (or inferences) about the population from which the sample was taken.

● **Correlation coefficient**: A number between -1 and 1 that measures the degree to which two variables are linearly related. If there is a perfect linear relationship with positive slope between the two variables, the coefficient is 1. If there is a positive correlation, whenever one variable has a high (or low) value, so does the other. If there is a perfect linear relationship with negative slope between the two variables, there is a correlation coefficient of -1; if there is negative correlation, whenever one variable has a high (or low) value, the other has a high (or low) value. A correlation coefficient of 0 means that there is no linear relationship between the values. There are a number of different correlation coefficients that might be appropriate depending on the kinds of variables being studied.

● **Partial correlation**: Partial correlation is used to examine the relationship between two variables while controlling for the effects of one or more additional variables. The partial correlation coefficient is interpreted in a similar manner to the correlation coefficient. The partial correlation command must contain three types of information: (1) a list of variables for which partial correlations are desired, (2) a list of control variables, and (3) one or more order values that indicate the number of variables to control for.

● **Hypothesis**: A statement about a parameter of a population. It must be decided, on the basis of experimental or sample evidence, if a statement appears to be true or false.

• **Null hypothesis**: The hypothesis that is to be rejected or disproved is referred to as the null hypothesis. The rejection of the null hypothesis implies acceptance of an alternative hypothesis.

• **Multi variate analysis**: Use of many variables to predict, forecast, or understand a situation.

• **Regression analysis**: This form of analysis deals with the establishment of reasonable mathematical models for the relationships between the variables being considered. Correlation analysis tries to measure the strength of the relationship.

• **Simple linear regression**: When the presence of a straight line, or linear trend, exists between two variables, there is a linear relationship between the variables. Equations are used that yield a straight line through the set of measurements; an assessment can be done to see how well the equation fits the data, and the strength of the correlation between the two variables can be determined.

• **Multiple regression**: Multiple linear regression aims to find a linear relationship between a response variable and several possible predictor variables.

• **Significance level**: The significance level of a statistical hypothesis test is a fixed probability, or likelihood, of wrongly rejecting the null hypothesis, if it is in fact true.

Statistical Validity

In research, the concept of statistical validity is important. For example:

• Data must be of high quality.

• Data must be generalizable across the population or subgroup.

Also, consider the following with regard to statistical validity:

• **Control groups** are often used to determine the validity of a hypothesis. A control group is the opposite of the experimental group. Members of this group are kept separate from the group that receives some type of experimental treatment and they are used as a base against which changes can be tested or measured.

• **Validity** is the extent to which research actually measures what it says it does.

• **Face validity** is the acceptance of a technique or measure simply on the basis of whether it appears to be valid.

- **Internal validity** refers specifically to whether an experimental condition or treatment makes a difference or not, and whether there is enough evidence to support the claim being made.

- **External validity** refers to the generalizability of condition or treatment outcomes.

Use of Primary and Secondary Research Sources

Primary sources of research typically include such original research processes as:

Forms of Primary Research
● Experiments (which we've discussed)
● Surveys
● Interviews
● Questionnaires

Interview and Questionnaire Preparation

When preparing to do interviews and questionnaires, one should be familiar with the following:

- The importance of interview planning

- Ways to effectively conduct interviews for the best results

- The appropriate use of consent forms

- Design of questionnaires for maximum effectiveness

- Proper administration of questionnaires

- Use of the Likert Scale (involving the development and administration of a survey in which individuals numerically rate specific items or behaviors)

The **Likert (or summative) Scale basic steps** are as follow:

1. Define the focus. The concept measured should be single-dimensional (this means that it deals with something that can be measured on a scale from low to high, best to worst, etc.).

2. Items to be judged need to be generated. This includes scale items you wish to have completed by each respondent. A number of people should be involved in this process.

3. Have the items rated by judges. The rating of each item is usually done on a scale from 1-5. For example, judges are either (1) strongly unfavorable to the idea, (2)

somewhat unfavorable to the idea, (3) undecided, (4) somewhat favorable to the idea, or (5) strongly favorable to the idea.

4. Select the items that have high correlation (after having computed the intercorrelations between all pairs of items judged).

5. Administer the scale. Each item should be rated from 1-5 (for example, 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = undecided, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree. The final score for the respondent on the scale is the sum of their ratings for all of the items (or the summated scale).

Secondary Research

We'll now look at secondary research sources.

Technical and non-technical journals are popular forms of secondary research. Books and government publications are also commonly used, in addition to publications of organizations such as:

- The International Association of Administrative Professionals
- American Management Association
- American Society for Training and Development
- The National Conference Board

Journals are also great sources of information about organizations.

Literature surveys are commonly used in the secondary research and investigation process. The following are examples of surveys that are performed:

- Electronic library
- Digital library
- Virtual library
- Internet research (using search engines, etc.)
- Research references
- Research bibliographies
- Research indexes
- Science citation index
- Library stacks
- Archival journals
- Dissertation abstracts
- Research publications
- Computer-based on-line searches
- Internet searching and browsing
- Literature reviews

The following is a small **sampling of journals** frequently used in various types of specific research:

- Journal of Management
- Journal of Business Research
- Journal of Labor Research
- Journal of Learning Sciences
- Organizational Dynamics
- Training and Development
- Research Reports (Economics)
- American Educational Research Journal
- American Journal of Distance Education
- Communications Research
- Journal of Research on Computing in Education
- Journal of Educational Computing
- Educational Technology Research and Development
- Journal of Educational Psychology
- Psychological Abstracts
- Nursing Research
- Sociological Methods and Research
- Environmental Research
- Dissertation Abstracts International
- Early Childhood Research Quarterly
- Journal of Speech, Language and Hearing Research
- Research in Communications Science

The researcher must be able to:

- Review research and work done by others
- Understand what is being described in the data that has been reviewed

When evaluating research, consider the following:

- The material being reviewed should relate to the question or problem.

- Determine if the data were originally collected and written about, or if the data were collected in other studies and reported in the article.

- Check to see if the article has a section outlining other relevant studies on the topic. Then, if possible, obtain and review copies of those articles, as well.

- When reviewing articles explaining procedures that you may wish to consider using to test certain hypotheses, decide if the procedures can be repeated in order to obtain similar results; also evaluate whether or not added information is required in order to repeat the procedures.

When doing literature surveys:

- Keep a **research journal**, notebook, or writing log, along with an annotated bibliography of the articles reviewed.

The **bibliography** should include the following information: (1) author name(s), (2) article title, (3) journal name, with year, volume, number, month, and page numbers, and (4) keywords that catch the focus of the article (this can be used for later reference to help you recall what the article is about).

When one reviews existing research with the intent of writing original research on the same topic, he or she should consider the following:

- Take into account what features or elements one desires to incorporate as part of the research or writing approach. For example, one may wish to use a similar method of data analysis or writing approach.

- Examine ways to approach the subject in a new and fresh manner.

- One should always reflect on and question material being reviewed.

Research Ethics

When doing research, the following items must be taken into account:

- Research ethics

- Plagiarism

- Research honesty

Writing About Research Conducted

When writing about research performed, one should consider the following concepts:

- Research writing issues

- Letters of inquiry

- The thesis outline

- Research writing format

- Research style

- Inductive or deductive logic involved

- Requirements for publication

- Definition of terminology used in the research
- Literature citing
- Paraphrasing
- Methods descriptions
- Presentation of data
- Conclusions drawn
- Writing of abstracts
- Intellectual property issues

Data regarding abstracting and report writing formats are found elsewhere in this review program.

Chapter 8: Coordinating Projects

Objectives: In this chapter, the student will review the following concepts:

1. Project coordination
2. Project management approaches and components
3. Planning elements and techniques
4. Time management concepts that contribute to effective project coordination

Introduction

Project coordination is a critical concept in work and office administration. Once one has developed this expertise, and after he or she has obtained the necessary tools, cooperation, and assistance from others, work and projects can be accomplished and plans can be carried out in an efficient and effective manner.

Coordination

Work divided among units must be coordinated. Coordination is essential when two or more interdependent persons or groups need to work together to reach a shared objective. Coordination brings unity of effort and action to the independent activities involved.

Individuals are responsible and accountable for specific project components in order to maximize project effectiveness and minimize duplication of effort.

Coordination techniques and approaches utilized include the following:

- **Rules and procedures**: Routine and repeated activities that can be planned in advance involve the use of rules and procedures to help facilitate the courses of action. When procedures and rules are used, work activities can be coordinated well. For example, employee shifts at a microchip production facility need to be planned, scheduled, and coordinated in advance in order for the work processes to go smoothly.

- **Direct supervision**: Direct supervision takes place when individuals are supervised and have their work monitored for quality and results. When a challenge comes up beyond the scope of standard rules and procedures, a supervisor can work with subordinates in handling the situation.

• **Staff assistants**: Assistants are often hired to help managers handle problems and coordinate activities. They assist management by gathering information, doing research, and providing suggestions regarding ways to handle situations and problems.

• **Liaisons**: Liaisons help provide coordination between departments in organizations. For example, if a marketing person has a question about coordinating an activity relative to the production schedule of a specific product, he or she can contact the department liaison in production to get needed details that will assist in the coordination process.

• **Shared adjustment**: When people work together and make adjustments, they can help one another effectively coordinate a mutual project. Interpersonal communication is key to the success of mutual adjustment. For example, if a large door must be manually opened, and it takes two or more people to do so, those involved can communicate and work together to accomplish the task with the maximum level of effectiveness.

• **Divisionalization**: Organizations create divisions to facilitate the coordination process for the head of the business. Divisions are like a company within a company; they are easier for a top manager to coordinate than are interdependent functional departments.

• **Committees**: Interdepartmental task forces, committees, and teams are made up of representatives from different interdependent departments. These individuals meet together on a regular basis to review problems and assist with coordination between the departments.

• **Use of standard values, goals, and targets**: When goals, targets, and values are shared, it is easier for individuals to work together to coordinate activities.

• **Utilization of standardized skills**: Skill standardization allows work to be coordinated efficiently and effectively within organizations. This involves providing necessary training for all individuals who need to attain the shared skills.

• **Autonomous integrators**: Integrators include individuals and groups responsible for coordinating activities of several interdependent departments. They are independent of the departments they coordinate, and they report to departmental managers. They are especially helpful in organizations involved with rapid change, particularly in high-tech industries.

Project Management

A **project** is a one-time group of activities and events with a specific start and finish time. Projects can be large or small. The management of projects involves:

- The itemization of a list of specific tasks
- Well-defined specifications
- The time factor, including precise times by which tasks must be completed
- A budget

Standardized planning and operating procedures are used to help in the management of projects; however, because organizations are encountering an increased number of unique and unusual types of projects, project management is of critical importance in order that time deadlines be met and project components be coordinated properly.

Project managers coordinate project activities with the various departments and entities involved; and project teams work together toward the completion of the project, after which time they move on to other projects or leave the organization.

In project organizations, the following **types of planning** are integrated into the project management process:

- **Production planning** (identification of specific items to be produced)

- **Facilities location planning** (the place where items are to be made)

- **Facilities layout planning** (the arrangement of work areas and equipment)

- **Process planning** (the way items will be made)

- **Capacity planning** (the quantity of items to be made)

- **Overall plan** (aggregate planning--the production plan for specific time period such as one year)

- **Master schedule** (the number of items of each product to be made in manageable periods of time such as one month)

- **Materials requirements** (the materials needed to fit the needs of the master schedule)

- **Overall operations plan**

Another consideration in production planning is **cellular layout** that involves the grouping together of human resources and equipment into cells or work centers with everything needed for the production of the service or good involved.

Quality considerations are also made in connection with each planning component.

Project management requires:

- Determination of goals and objectives
- Identification of events, activities, and resources involved
- Establishment of work flow and activity sequences
- Calculation of the time involved for activities and events to be completed
- Project completion date resolution

As the project moves forward, the project manager must keep track of the project's progress as compared with set objectives. Also, it must be determined if any change in resources will be necessary. For example, if a critical component of the project is running behind schedule, the project manager needs to determine what additional resources are needed to keep things back on track.

Specific tools and techniques used in project management will be discussed later.

Projects and Matrix Structures

The **matrix structure**, similar to the project approach, is a design involving the permanent assignment of specialists from various functional departments within an organization to work on one or more projects led by a project manager. The matrix looks like a graph. On the top of the graph is a listing of functional departments involved, and along the side or vertical dimension of the graph is a list of each specific project involved. Individuals from the various departments or units are specified for each project listed.

Matrix Structure

Project	Department or Function				
	Manufacturing	Marketing	Accounting	Human Res.	MIS
Project A					
Project B					
Project C					
Project D					
Project E					

The original purpose of the development of the matrix structure was to enable firms in the highly-technical U. S. aerospace industry to manage a number of concurrent, complex projects. A challenge arising from the use of this management structure was the fact that it violated the unity of command concept in management stating that each individual should be responsible to only one supervisor. In the matrix structure, individuals report to both their functional manager and their project manager. The way this problem is overcome is by (1) having personnel report directly to functional managers with regard to specific areas such as annual reviews and salary recommendations, and (2) having individuals report to project managers with respect to all areas specific to fulfillment of project responsibilities. This requires regular communication and careful coordination between the department and project managers involved.

Matrix and Project Structures Compared

The matrix structure differs from the project structure in the following ways:

- A project structure has no formal departments.

- In the project structure, at the end of a project, individuals are assigned to a new project.

- Project structures do not use organizational hierarchies as do matrix structures.

- In project structures, project managers lead project teams in defining work to be done, in addition to controlling and looking after daily work functions of the project.

Planning

Planning precedes action. It involves the setting of goals and objectives and the outlining of action to be taken.

Planning Steps

Planning involves the following steps:

- **Objectives are established.**
- **Situational analysis and forecasting are done.**
- **Alternative courses of action are outlined.**
- **The various alternatives are assessed.**
- **A choice is made from among the alternatives.**
- **The plan is implemented.**

In organizational planning:

- Teamwork must be utilized for overall organizational efforts to be coordinated in order to maximize the successful reaching of goals.

- Managers are assessed based on how well objectives are achieved.

- Many firms have changed from a centralized to a decentralized planning approach in order to allow those who work most closely with the customer to be able to control planning.

Aggregate planning has been briefly mentioned in relation to overall project management. It is the process of finding out what is needed to forecast sales demand, including service and production activities and resources involved.

Also, in **materials requirement planning** (**MRP**), computer programs take data from the inventory database and master production schedule to come up with information about what parts, assemblies, and raw materials are needed, by specific time periods, in the production process.

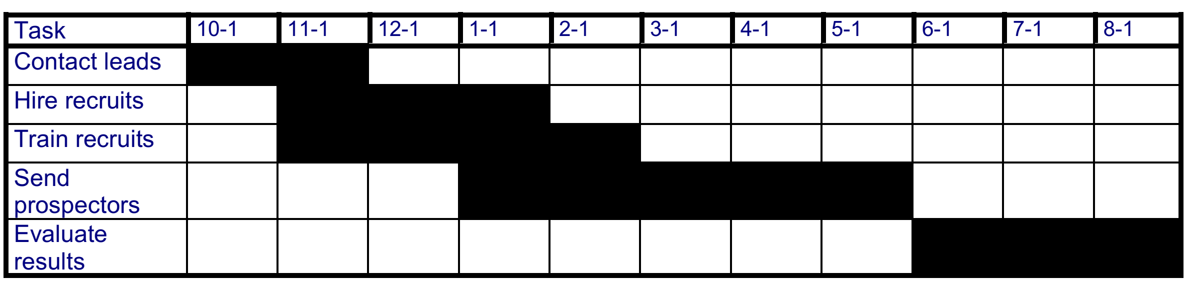
Capacity planning involves a determination of how much a system can produce in terms of both output and input. Organizations are not designed to run at full capacity all of the time, so they try to run at an effective capacity instead. Effective capacity is the ratio of expected capacity divided by the design capacity, or the percent of designed capacity expected. When capacity needs are high during limited or selected time periods, organizations often need to outsource or obtain temporary help to cover capacity shortages.

The project manager uses **scheduling techniques** to assist in the planning and tracking of project progress, including the following:

- **Budgets** (tools that help in the planning and management of funds available for the project)

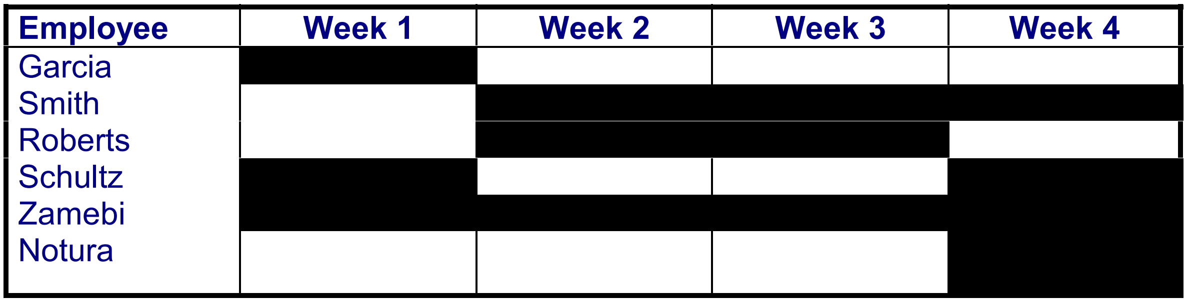
- **Gantt charts** (scheduling tools used to plan and monitor project activities over time; they include a listing of each activity to be performed and a linear calendar schedule; a horizontal bar plots the start and finish time of each event, and the timing of each event is shown on the graph in relation to every other event to be completed in the project)

Project Gantt Chart



- **Load charts** (bar graphs specifying resources to be used and when they will be needed; for example, human and other resources are graphed, by name and in relation to time periods during which they will be needed to help with project components)

Project Load Chart



- **PERT network analysis** (including utilization of the Program Evaluation and Review Technique using a flowchart-type diagram to (1) isolate all activities to be completed in the project, (2) determine the order of event completion, (3) diagram the specific flow of project activities taking into account all beginning and ending times, (4) determine the estimated amount of time needed to finish each activity, (5) diagram the entire project, and (6) determine the critical path--or the longest sequence of activities involved in the project--in order to determine in advance what areas need the most attention in order to keep the project on schedule)

- **Breakeven analysis** (the mathematical computation of the point at which all costs are covered based on the product’s unit price, variable costs per unit, and total fixed costs involved; more details on breakeven analysis are found elsewhere in this review program)

The breakeven point can be determined by using the following formulas:
Sales Price per Unit - Variable Costs per Unit = Contribution Margin per Unit.
Contribution Margin per Unit divided by Sales Price per Unit = Contribution Margin Ratio.
Breakeven Sales Volume = Fixed Costs divided by Contribution Margin Ratio.

- **Environmental scanning tools** (including such items as reading of journals, newspapers, books; attending trade shows; reverse engineering of competitor products; competitive intelligence, or the organized gathering and evaluationof public information available about the competition; plus marketing research, including the gathering of marketing-related primary and secondary research data)

- **Qualitative forecasting** (involving the use of expert opinions and judgments to determine various outcomes; examples include executive judgment, scenario planning, and sales force estimation)

● **Quantitative forecasting** (involving the use of mathematics to compare past performance data with predicted future scenarios; an example includes time series analysis wherein a study is made of observations taken at specific times to ascertain certain patterns)

● **Benchmarking** (involving research on practices done in the field that have led to superior performance)

● **Linear programming** (a mathematical technique used to solve problems dealing with resource allocation)

● **Simulation analysis** (involving the mimicking of a real world activity or events to determine what would happen if particular choices were made with different variables involved)

● **Inventory management systems** (involving the use of models to optimize an organization's inventory level; for example, the economic order quantity, EOQ, and ABC analysis)

Use of the **economic order quantity** provides information regarding the most economical amount of inventory to order so that total inventory costs are kept to a minimum. **ABC analysis** gives data about which specific inventory items need the most attention or control. *A-rated* items are the most critical, followed by *B* and *C* items.

Contingency Planning

Another important planning concept deals with making contingencies for unexpected events.

The following are examples of times when contingency plans used by organizations:

● When marketing objectives are not attained

● When demand for products exceeds planned forecasts

● When competitors enter or exit markets serviced by the organization

● When new technological changes impact products and services

● In times of disaster affecting the organization's monetary, physical, or human assets

Contingency Planning Process

Contingency planning involves the following process:

- Identify potential events that could affect organizational strategies.
- Calculate possible timing of such events.
- Estimate the event impacts--for good or ill--on the organization.
- Create contingency plans that will fit both current strategies and the budget.
- Determine if each contingency plan will be both effective and worth the potential cost and effort.
- Isolate early warning signs of key events; then develop plans to take advantage of the lead time given. For example, when contingencies were made for possible computer-related problems when clocks around the world changed to 12:01 a.m. on January 1, 2000, early warning signs were determined in advance. Action plans were made by organizations and countries to take advantage of available lead time in case computers, telephone systems, and electronic grids were adversely affected.

Personal Project Coordination Issues

In the chapter on Delegating and Empowering, we'll discuss individual issues impacting project coordination such as priority setting and delegation.

A Note On Strengthened Supplier Relationships and Outsourcing

The increase of reliance on outside sources is because businesses are attempting to reduce labor costs.

Businesses are becoming increasingly reliant on outside sources because they are attempting to reduce labor costs. Production and manufacturing concerns depend upon the careful coordination and orchestration of suppliers in handling outsourcing relationships, as they play a growing role in organizational operations. As suppliers become more involved with the overall production process of organizations, closer associations must be built, and careful project coordination must take place.

Time Management

The effective use of time makes the difference between success and non-success of an individual or organization.

Depending on one's cultural orientation, time management may be seen from different perspectives; and both organizational and personal priorities focus on what is considered most important in the culture.

For example, most North Americans view time management from a perspective of efficiency and productivity. This viewpoint holds that financial rewards, the acquisition of property, and other forms of perceived success are attained when time is utilized most productively.

In such cultures, a person's stress can be greatly reduced when he or she learns to properly manage time and then follows through on what has been learned.

In cultures where an emphasis is placed on individuals and the quality of life, time management may take on an entirely different meaning.

In his book, "Seven Habits of Highly Successful People, " Dr. Stephen Covey discusses time management from a perspective of 'organizing and executing around priorities.' He suggests there have been four generations or "waves" of time management, each one building upon its predecessor:

Time Management Waves

Generation 1. The recording and use of notes and checklists

Generation 2. The generation of calendars and appointment books

Generation 3. The existing time management field of study wherein priorities are set, values are clarified, and the worth of activities is measured against the values establishes

Generation 4. Self-management, versus "time management"

According to Covey, "Rather than focusing on *things* and *time*, fourth generation expectations focus on preserving and enhancing relationships and on accomplishing results..."

Time may be spent doing a variety of things, including those that are

- Urgent and important (such as dealing with crises)
- Not urgent, but important (like spending time building relationships)
- Urgent and not important (such as dealing with interruptions at work)
- Not urgent and not important (for example, participating in trivial activities)

When we deal with activities based on priorities and values, and when we ACT, versus reacting to events and activities in our lives, we are able to see results and significant accomplishments come about.

One can focus on values and priorities only after he or she has come to a clear understanding of his personal mission; the same is true of organizational missions (that are described more fully in Part IV of this program's review of the development and communication of mission statements).

In essence, a mission statement concisely states the reason for being and provides a driving force behind every activity and action carried out by the person or company.

The following is a more detailed review of current traditional time management tools:

- Setting personal and formal business goals: planning life the way you choose to live it

When you set personal and formal goals, you take time out to evaluate those things that are most important to you or the organization and then set specific objectives to reach the desired goals, along with a time for objective completion and goal attainment.

Doing time costing: determining the cost of time for an individual or organization

Time costing takes into account each component involved in the activity, the amount of time spent, and the dollars or other resources foregone as a result of performing the activities involved.

You can determine how much your time is worth to an organization by adding the following components:

- Salary
- Payroll taxes
- Benefits
- Office space you use
- Equipment and facilities you use
- Office supplies used
- Cost of administrative support received
- Profit you should generate by your activities

When you know the value of your time and determine where your focus should be placed, you are in a better position to make plans and set goals.

Goal setting focuses on (1) the gaining of knowledge and (2) organization of resources. It involves the identification of specific items to accomplish and targets to reach. Goal setting provides the following benefits:

- Increased motivation
- Improved performance
- Achievement and accomplishment
- Improved self-confidence
- Increased satisfaction and pride
- Reduced stress and anxiety
- Enhanced concentration and focus

Successful goal setting and achievement requires planning, self-discipline, and hard work. It also involves correctly identifying what needs to be done (including appropriate factors involved such as timing, resources, etc.).

Effective goal setting requires:

• That all goals be written
• The setting of priorities
• Precision in terms of follow-through dates, times, the measurement of achievement, etc.
• That goals are manageable and broken down into specific facets and components
• That goals be realistic and doable; if goals are set too high or too low, the chance of their successful completion and positive impact on the overall picture is adversely affected

● Making and utilizing activity logs: coming to an understanding of where time is lost

Activity logs are designed to help you monitor the way your time is spent. They help you determine how you currently spend you time as you assess what you really need to concentrate and focus on (which may or may not coincide with your current activities).

When a detailed log is kept, including the activity performed and the exact time of day the activity was performed, one can begin to see ways in which time is both used effectively and wasted.

Here is an example activity log:

Activity Log for Tuesday, March 30 (partial day displayed below)

Activity	Start Time	End Time	Total Time
Pick up mail from mail room	9:00	9:15	15 min.
Open and sort mail	9:16	9:40	25 min.
Route mail	9:41	10:05	25 min.
Visit with co-worker	10:06	10:18	13 min.
Take phone call	10:19	10:30	12 min.

● Establishing work and/or personal priorities: setting priorities to accomplish tasks that add the greatest perceived value

When overall goals and priorities are established, and we've determined what we personally must do or what we can do best (versus using delegation), we are in a position to move forward effectively in the time management process.

As you examine goals and priorities, you should take the following into account:

• Clarify what you should spend your time doing
• Determine what activities bring you the most satisfaction
• Assess your strengths--what you do best
• Analyze weaknesses--what others may do better than you
• Consider opportunities and threats you face in your work
• Clarify, with your employer, critical points such as the following:

The purpose of your job
Get a view of the "big picture" — how you fit into the overall scheme of things
Measures of exceptional performance and success on the job
Priorities and deadlines
Resources available to accomplish the work to be performed
Costs acceptable for the completion of the job

- Setting up small-scale planning: making action plans

An action plan is a listing of activities or tasks that must be accomplished before an objective can be achieved. The action plan focuses on goal attainment versus specific items that must be accomplished during a day's time.

The use of action plans allows an individual to concentrate on stages of objective achievement and allows for the monitoring of progress made toward the reaching of an objective.

When action plans are made, persons need to have a feel for the overall amount of time it will take to complete a project. If the project is complex, a planning tool such as the Critical Path Method (CPM) can be used. The critical path, when a project is flow charted using the Program Evaluation and Review Technique (PERT), is the longest sequential path that must be taken in the execution of an overall project.

When a project is less complex, the normal completion time may be estimated by taking the following items into account:

• Unexpected priority work
• Unscheduled activities
• Emergencies or accidents
• Interruptions
• Quality control rejections
• Unplanned meetings
• Sickness or vacation time of key persons involved
• Down time (or breakdown) of equipment needed
• Delays in receipt of materials or supplies

• Other unplanned events or activities

- Making and prioritizing to-do lists: doing the most important tasks first

To do lists itemize specific tasks to be performed to achieve goals. The development and use of such lists is critical to productivity. They may be put together at the end of a business day for the next day or first thing in the morning of a working day; to do lists may also be recorded on a schedule or in a planner as to do items come to one's attention--allocated to specific dates for accomplishment.

When these lists are prioritized for a specific date, the tasks are placed in order of importance for accomplishment that day. The most important items should be done first, taking into account variables and factors that impact specific time periods during which certain tasks can be accomplished.

For example, you may need to pick up an important document from a local attorney's office. This may be high on your list of things to accomplish, but the document may not be available to pick up until 4:00 p.m. or later. That fact will impact the timing of this important task's completion.

Improving Time Management

Various factors are involved in the improvement of one's time management. Here are some to consider:

- Improving the quality of time
- Effective use of "wait time"
- Speed reading and effective reading strategies
- Avoiding procrastination
- Creating more time
- Avoiding distractions
- Eliminating unwanted tasks (where possible)
- Minimizing distractions in work

Productivity and Methods Improvement

Time can be better managed when productivity (units of output per employee work hour) and work methods (ways of accomplishing specific tasks) are improved.

Motion studies are used in this process. They involve an analysis of the way one performs tasks, the way things are arranged in the office, and the design of equipment or tools being used to do the work.

When looking for ways to make improvements in work, consider the PDCA Cycle:

1. **P**lan
2. **D**o
3. **C**heck
4. **A**ct

When making your improvement plan, identify what needs to be improved. Consider how and where these improvements need to be made. Then analyze the task being done. Then make a specific improvement plan.

Next, try out the improvement plan. Then, see if you achieved the desired results. Finally, take the desired action and make adjustments as they become apparent.

In Japan, an approach is used where individuals think of change as good. They call it kaizen (kai “change” and zen “good”). The focus is on method and procedure improvement.

Improving the Quality of Time

The quality of your time can be improved when the following factors are taken into consideration:

● Consider when you perform various tasks and how personal energy levels affect these activities; for example, if you experience times of low energy during a work day, try and perform mundane or routine tasks during this time; perform activities requiring intelligence and creativity for periods during which your energy is higher.

● Determine ways you can improve your performance by increasing or stabilize your energy level in a healthy way (for example, determine ways you can enhance your diet, rest, and fitness practices).

Effective Use of “Wait Time”

We all have time during which we must wait for something, whether it’s waiting for a meeting to start, waiting for an associate to join us for an activity, waiting in lines, waiting in traffic, etc. Let’s now examine ways in which we can more effectively use this time:

- Try not to be more than five minutes early to meetings.
- Confirm appointments the day or morning before.
- Use audio media or the radio reduce automobile wait time stress.
- Make discrete use of cellular telephones and other electronic devices to accomplish work during waiting periods.

Speed Reading and Effective Reading Strategies

Individuals who need to read and evaluate large amounts of material should consider taking a speed reading course or learning other effective reading strategies to decrease amount of time spent reading and synthesizing materials.

Effective reading strategies include the following:

- Skim material to glean key ideas and concepts (if only an overview of data is necessary); focus on the first sentence of each paragraph, charts, graphs, and bolded or highlighted text; and look for dates, subjects, nouns, and verbs or activities mentioned in text.

- Use an “active reading” approach to keep your mind focused on important material and minimize mind wandering. This is done by underlining, highlighting, and making annotations (of original text or photocopies) as you read material.

- Handle “junk mail” once at the most; if it is well written, its message will be quickly communicated.

- Leave complex technical information to “experts,” or keeping a “glossary of terms” handy in case a difficult jargon-related concept is discussed.

- Scan newspaper and periodical indexes or tables of contents for articles of interest or importance. Go only to the sections where information is desired or needed--bypass the other sections.

- Read only the first part of news articles where the key information is presented.

- Focus on the introduction and summary of viewpoint or opinion articles.

- Compile a table of contents for company reports and whole subject documents; for example, if you are reviewing are report on a specific subject, before reading the report, put together a list of items, concepts, and topics that you feel should be covered. Then, as you read the report, look for omitted concepts and unnecessary trivia that can draw the reader’s attention away from important concepts that may have been missed or obscured.

Avoiding Procrastination

When one delays or puts off the unavoidable, he is procrastinating. Procrastination slows down progress toward reaching desirable, set goals and should be avoided.

The only times when procrastination may be considered are when:

- A project is not essential and you do not have the mental focus or ability to carry it through properly.

- You have something more important and urgent to do than the project that is being put off.

- You need more information, skills, or resources to finish the project properly.

Ways to avoid procrastination include:

● Break projects into manageable pieces.

● Keep the planning process moving along--do not let it get bogged down.

● Delegate work, when possible.

● Use self discipline when doing routine or boring tasks that are easily procrastinated: Assign completion deadlines and stick to them.
When one delays or puts off the unavoidable, he is procrastinating.
Procrastination slows down progress toward the reaching of desirable, set goals.
Procrastination should be avoided!

● Watch out for perfectionism--don't brood or fuss over a project too long.

● Avoid hostility toward tasks or persons wanting to have tasks done.

● Don't allow yourself to be pushed up against deadlines to get an adrenaline rush. Many projects fail or are not completed on time because they are put off.

The only times when procrastination may be considered are when:

● A project is not essential and you do not have the mental focus or ability to carry it through properly

● You have something more important and urgent to do than the project that is being put off

● You need more information, skills, or resources to finish the project properly

<u>Creating More Time</u>

There are two main ways to come up with more time:

1. By delegating (which subject is covered elsewhere in this review program)
2. By getting up earlier

If you can do so without jeopardizing your health and well being, you may consider getting up earlier and getting into the office sooner to get work done. If you rise an hour earlier each, you can give yourself nearly one week of extra working time every month.

A key to rising earlier is getting into a routine. It may be difficult at first to get up earlier each day, but as time passes, it will become much easier. If it does not, it may be due to the fact that you need to go to bed earlier in the evening.

Avoiding and Minimizing Distractions

No matter how well a day is planned, nearly every administrative professional has his or her share of distractions--many of which cannot be avoided. It is important to realize that distractions come with the job and to psychologically learn to "roll with the punches." When the employer calls, always answer promptly!

When it is necessary and possible to avoid distractions, consider the following suggestions:

- If you are not responsible to greet visitors in the office, leave the hospitality role to another individual.

- When associates stop by your office or desk to visit, use phrases such as "I'd love to stop and chat, but I've got a deadline on this project!" Then politely send them on their way while continuing your work.

- If you work in a casual environment, consider using a traffic light with the light on red or yellow when you are busy; place the light on green at other times (or turn the light off).

- Have visitors screened, if possible.

- Set specific appointment times for visitors.

- Have meetings standing up or outside your door, when appropriate to minimize the length of the meeting.

- Set time limits.

- Be sure and use agendas or discuss the scope of what will be covered in your meeting at its onset.

- Stand up to indicate the end of the meeting.

- Set a meeting for another person's office or a conference room if you want to make it easier on yourself to leave when needed.

- Use barriers such as closed doors, tables, and desks to your advantage when you're busy; remove places where people can sit, where possible or needed; or, when necessary, consider using techniques such as avoiding eye contact or standing up when someone wants to visit with you.

- Use effective telephone skills and techniques to minimize the length of phone conversations (this area is covered elsewhere in this program).

Eliminating Unwanted Tasks and Things That Waste Time

Sometimes administrative assistants are approached to take on unwanted tasks and projects. Sometimes there is a choice as to whether or not the assistant actually needs to do the job--and sometimes there is a choice as to when the project must be completed.

When an employer requests that you do a task while you are completing another priority project she has given you, let her know that you would be happy to do whatever she wants you to do, then let her decide what project is most important. At this point, the employer--not the assistant--must make the priority-shifting decision and be accountable for the outcome and impact this decision may bring into play.

If a co-worker or other person who has no supervisory authority requests assistants to help on a project, and the project interferes with other priorities and responsibilities, the assistant must firmly and politely say, "No."

If you cannot be interrupted and someone feels you must still help with a project, suggest someone else who may be able to help or otherwise collaborate with another individual.

Consider the following time wasters that may be eliminated from your life:

- telephone interruptions
- meetings
- telephone communication
- e-mail (non-essential reading and sending)
- advanced communication technology obsession (i.e., Internet)
- crisis situations with no contingencies
- lack of objectives
- lack of priorities
- lack of deadlines
- personal disorganization
- cluttered desk (work area)
- involvement in work that should be handled by others
- underestimating time it takes to do work
- involvement in too many activities at one time
- lack of clear lines of authority
- failure to establish responsibility
- information from others that is insufficient, delayed, or inaccurate
- indecision
- procrastination
- unclear or lack of instruction or communication
- can't say "no"
- nonexistent or inadequate standards
- lack of tracking progress
- weariness or fatigue

Here are some tools to help minimize time wasters:

● Gain a better understanding of your job, your relationship with others, and expectations you have of yourself and others and others have of you.

● Resolve misunderstandings with others.

● Assess how you are spending your time through a time inventory (time budget).

● Schedule and perform tasks requiring less concentration and effort during non-peak times of the day. Productivity peak times are times when you get the most done. After you've determined what your tasks are, assign them to times of the day when they can best be accomplished based as much as possible on your ability to get these tasks done the best.

● Use a time caddy (looking a week ahead and reserving time for prior commitments).

● Use a follow up or tickler file system to track things that need to be done.

● Use personal information manager (PIM) software to help set priorities and schedules in conjunction with a planner such as a personal digital assistant (PDA). PDAs include a date book, computerized Rolodex, time sheet, expense form, notepad, e-mail system, and tickler file.

● On-line sources of PIMs include PlanetAll.com, scheduleonline.com, and AnyDay.com.

● Make a note of any patterns you see where you have failed to meet your deadlines. Look for hints as to why you had problems with your deadlines, and try to minimize or eliminate the problems.

● Establish effective work habits that will help you be more productive. For example, try to make communication time more effective.

● Batch work together: write letters and memos at one time or in organized time segments during the day. When you go through correspondence, mark it by the way it should be handled: (1) supervisor needs to act upon, (2) read, route, or file, and (3) throw it out now.

● When writing reports, plan your report completely before you begin writing it. You will then be able to use your time more effectively.

● E-mail Time-saving Guidelines:

> 1. E-mail those persons who are not easily accessible (not someone across the hall).

2. Limit the number of times a day you check your e-mail (don't check it continuously throughout the day).

3. Review and reply to priority e-mails only; save others to review or delete later.

4. Limit the number of times per day you access the Internet.

5. Send e-mails only to those who need them–not to everyone.

6. Keep security issues in mind; do not use e-mail communication when another more appropriate or secure way is available.

Keep these same issues in mind when using telefax communications.

Here are some telephone time use tips:

1. Take calls during specific time periods during the day (if you have this luxury).

2. Batch return phone calls in priority during times when you can best reach the other party.

3. Know what you want to communicate before you make the call; then stick to the agenda and avoid lengthy conversations.

4. Have your calls screened by another, if possible.

5. Make conference calls, when needed, to maximize productivity.

6. Do not remain on hold for a lengthy period of time (unless it does not have a negative impact on your productivity).

General Time Management Suggestions

The firm Peat Marwick has established the following six time management principles:

1. Create a daily to do list
2. List goals and set priorities, A, B, C...
3. Do A's first
4. Handle each piece of paper only once
5. Do it now!
6. Ask: "What is the best use of my time right now?"

Look at alternative work schedules:

- Telecommuting (working from home or while traveling)
- Flextime (flexible working hours within specified limits)
- Compressed work weeks (working more hours per day, fewer days per week)

Here are a few parting hints with regard to time and work management:

- Maintain personal focus.

- Establish and maintain balance in life.

- Divide large projects into manageable components and activities.

- Combine activities, where possible and effective.

- Involve yourself in time-wasting activities only as they are congruent with your personal priorities and values; for example, if you really need a break from the grind, allow yourself time to simply waste time--your sanity has value!

Advanced Organizational Management:
Advanced Administration
Chapter 9: Delegating, Empowering, and Increasing Influence

Objectives: In this chapter, the student will review the following concepts:

1. Empowerment and its impact on organizational team members
2. Delegation and work in organizations
3. How to say *NO*
4. Types of influence used in interpersonal relations
5. Power and how it is used in organizations
6. Power in interpersonal relations
7. The impact of ethics and politics on power
8. Leadership and interpersonal influence
9. The relationship between authority and influence
10. Increasing personal influence

Introduction

Management individuals are learning that empowerment of organizational associates is an important way to help get things done, positively affect work quality, and make personnel feel better about their roles and contributions on the job. Leaders must first be willing to delegate responsibility and authority to their subordinates. Subordinates then need to be able to take ownership of their responsibilities, be given the tools needed for success, and then work to accomplish their goals.

Empowerment

Individuals in organizations who are given enhanced self-esteem and ability to perform their work are empowered. Empowerment involves a process that actually changes the way people feel about themselves.

Bureaucratic environments are especially prone to have unempowered organizational members. Let's now look at reasons why individuals do not feel empowered, which leads to the need for empowerment:

- Organizational members do not have the abilities, needed resources, or option to make choices leading to their empowerment.

- Individuals feel they have no control over their situation.

Factors Leading to A Feeling of Powerlessness

Key factors relating to individuals feeling powerless include the following:

- The **organization itself**: Communications may be poor, the organization may be in a state of major transition or change, competition may be fierce, or resources may be highly centralized.

- **Management styles** used in the organization: A negative, controlling approach may be used by management; or management may not provide feedback relative to actions and their consequences in the organization.

- The **job itself** and the way it is designed: Training may be lacking; goals may be unrealistic; roles may not be clearly defined; task variety may be limited; the work environment may be too restrictive with excessive rules and guidelines; resources may be antiquated or lacking; or participation in decision-making may be limited.

- **Reward systems** established in the organization: Rewards may arbitrary or limited; rewards also may not be based on innovation or performance.

Now, let's take a look at how individual powerlessness can be turned around. This involves implementation of employee empowerment.

Empowerment Phases

The following phases are involved in empowerment:

- Conditions leading to feelings of employee powerlessness are identified (for example, the work itself may be mundane or performance goals may be unrealistic; or work incentives and rewards may be low).

- Managerial practices are examined. Those practices that do not empower personnel are identified.

- Empowerment strategies that will overcome lack of empowerment are determined and put into place. The implementation of job enrichment through redesign and employee incentive programs are examples.

- As personnel feel more empowered and effective, individual attitudes and performance levels are expected to rise. Both individuals and the organization are benefitted when personnel are empowered in their work.

Managerial Empowerment Strategies

Management use a number of strategies to help empower individuals in organizations. Here are some examples:

- Management can have and show a strong belief in the abilities of individuals hired.

- A supportive emotional atmosphere can be fostered.

- Small and large victories, based on empowerment strategies, can be celebrated along the way.

- Special rewards can be given to individuals as they demonstrate that they make a difference in organizations.

- Individual organizational members can be given ownership over their areas of responsibility.

Empowerment has become an important concept to organizations in recent years. Here are some examples explaining why this is the case:

- As organizations have downsized operations, managers have been left with increased loads. This has necessitated the empowerment of subordinates to make sure the work gets done.

- With the globalization of the economy, decisions must be made quickly. This requires that decisions be made at lower levels of organizations, translating into a need for individuals to be empowered to make these decisions.

Employee empowerment must be accompanied by several components in order for its successful implementation in entities:

- Management must be willing to delegate responsibility and necessary authority for employee empowerment to take place.

- Superiors must also be willing to work with subordinates in a participatory manner.

- Training must be provided in order for individuals to gain the skills and knowledge needed.

- Persons must be allowed to gain the required experience, coupled with the appropriate level of managerial support.

- Individuals involved must have a desire for a degree of work autonomy and have an internal locus of control.

Delegation

We'll now discuss delegation concepts and how delegation affects organizational operations.

Delegation and empowerment are closely-connected terms. Empowerment involves the assignment of jobs to individuals along with the enabling of these persons to get the work done.

Delegation is a process that involves the passing on of authority from one individual to another; for example, typically a supervisor delegates to a subordinate specific jobs or tasks along with the necessary authority to accomplish the work. The manager or individual who does the delegating retains the ultimate responsibility for the job's proper accomplishment, however, with the subordinate being accountable to the supervisor for specific performance of tasks.

Authority Delegation

Delegation refers to the making of decisions versus the actual work itself.

Some of the benefits that come from having authority delegated include the following:

- As individuals are delegated authority and behave responsibly, they are able to develop and deal with greater challenges in work.

- As individuals grow through the proper handling of delegated responsibility, they are able to be more independent in their work, and they are trusted to participate in organizational problem solving that in turn can make their work more challenging and satisfying.

Some of the costs involved in the delegation of authority include:

- Some supervisors are hesitant to delegate authority because they want to be in control and are used to making decisions by themselves.

- Financial outlays involved in training required to provide needed training may be high (and these costs can outweigh the benefits derived).

- Accounting and reporting expenses may be increased due to the potential need for reporting the effects of decisions made by subordinates to management.

Here are some more points about delegation:

- Delegation takes place at all levels of an organization.

- Because individuals cannot always accomplish every task that they need to perform, they must be able to delegate work to others.

● Those who are delegated work must be willing to ask themselves if it's wise to do things as they've always been done.

● Those who delegate tasks and responsibilities should consider providing a variety of tasks and challenges that will help others grow and gain new abilities.

● Individuals may be assigned to complete an entire project, versus just completing one small part.

● Tasks and projects may be best delegated to natural work groups or teams versus other individuals.

Responsible individuals who delegate and receive delegated assignments must consider the following issues:

● **Results**: Individuals who are free to chose whatever ethical methods they wish to get the job done can focus on end results.

● **Guidelines, specifications, and parameters**: Basic guidelines should be clear in the mind of the person to perform the work. Guidelines will help the individual stay clear of potential hazards or mistakes that have been made by others in the past. However, in order for one to utilize initiative and creativity, he should not be unduly limited or restricted.

● **Accountability**: Individuals are accountable to perform according to specific standards. Accountability reporting should take place at specified intervals and at the point of final project evaluation.

● **Resources**: Resources needed for the project should be identified, including personnel, equipment, financial, technical, or other resources.

● **Consequences**: Positive and negative results and outcomes of delegated work should be specified in advance and evaluated at the appropriate time. Examples of consequences may include financial rewards and new job assignment opportunities.

● **Time management**: Traditional time management involves a focus on specific tasks and time. Volumes have been written on this topic. You'll find more information in other parts of this program, including the chapter on Conducting Meetings.

Some contemporary time management concepts are centered around the accomplishment of results and the maintenance and enhancement of interpersonal relationships. Franklin-Covey has developed an approach based around what they call the **Quadrant II Self-Manager**. This system includes the following components:

● Personal and professional role identification

- Goal establishment and selection based on results desired in each role during a week's time

- Time scheduling of tasks, appointments, and activities based on goals

- Daily adaptation based on the occurrence of unexpected events and experiences (this allows a person to be flexible to meet special demands of the day and take advantage of unique opportunities that arise)

Priorities: According to E. M. Gray, *The successful person has the habit of doing the things failures don't like to do*. When one sets priorities, she or he needs to remember to do the most important things first. Tasks are specified, ranked, and then organized into manageable pieces that must be accomplished by specific deadlines. Competent individuals learn to organize and complete tasks around priorities.

Priority Determination

When one prioritizes, he or she assigns a preference to one task or event over others.

When tasks are recorded on a to-do list, they are given priority rank in order of preference. Then, each task is focused on, one at a time. When setting priorities, the responsible individual should consider each of the following priority setting determinations:

- He is the only person who can accomplish the activity.

- The task is her primary responsibility.

- His or her departmental budget or performance will be affected.

- It must be determined when the task or activity needs to be completed.

Task accomplishment should also be considered in light of both organizational and personal missions and values. More information is found on these subjects in the chapter covering Communicating Mission and Values.

Tasks can be assigned priorities using a rank numbering system or an alphabet letter representing one of the following priority rankings:

D: Delegate the task to someone else if another individual can do the work.

L: The task is assigned a low priority. This takes place when the priority-setter has special knowledge or abilities to accomplish the task, but it is not a major responsibility, and the task does not have to be done right away.

M: The task is given a medium priority. This is the case when the priority-setter is the only person who can do the job and the task is either not his or her responsibility, will not detrimentally impact the department's budget or performance, or the job does not need to be done immediately.

H: The task is a high priority. This is the case when the task must be accomplished by the priority setter, it is his or her primary responsibility, and the task must be completed relatively quickly.

Delegation and Situational Leadership

Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard argue that follower readiness is key to an individual's ability to take on delegated responsibilities.

When an individual is both willing and able to take on new responsibility, he or she is ready to a certain degree. An individual many not need any supervision if he or she is highly ready and desires to perform at a high-quality level.

In Situational Leadership, the following leadership approaches are used with regard to appropriate **follower readiness levels**:

- **Telling**: The leader must tell followers what to do because they have a low readiness level.

- **Selling**: The leader is supportive and provides followers with instructions because followers have a nominal readiness level.

- **Delegating**: The leader delegates the work to followers and provides them with a nominal amount of support and direction. Followers have a fairly high readiness level.

- **Participating**: The leader shares decision-making with followers, who have a high readiness level.

The Art of Saying *NO*

Sometimes, for various reasons, we'd really like to say *yes* to taking on added responsibility, but we must say *no*. This happens when we cannot fit the task into our priority list or when we cannot justify taking on the assignment.

Saying NO does not have to be a difficult experience. And it can be done pleasantly and nonapologetically. When one really wants to take on a new project or activity, but it cannot be justified, he or she may say, *I'd really love to help, but I simply cannot right now*.

If one does not want to help, he or she can say something like, *I appreciate you thinking of me, but I'm unable to help now. Have you considered...?* Suggestions may then be shared with regard to ways the delegator may further pursue task accomplishment.

In his book entitled ***The Seven Habits of Highly Effective People: Powerful Lessons in Personal Change*****, Dr. Stephen Covey has made some very astute comments with regard to saying *no* to people:**
As I work with different groups, I tell them that the essence of effective time and life management is to organize and execute around balanced priorities. Then I ask this question: if you were to fault yourself in one of three areas, which would it be: (1) the inability to prioritize; (2) the inability or desire to organize around those priorities; or (3) the lack of discipline to execute around them, to stay with your priorities and organization?
Only when you have the self-awareness to examine your program--and the imagination and conscience to create a new, unique, principle-centered program to which you can say "yes"--only then will you have sufficient independent will power to say "no," with a genuine smile, to the unimportant.

Increasing Influence

Individuals in organizations have influence over one another. Interpersonal influence can take on different forms depending on the individuals and circumstances involved. As persons learn and practice specific principles, they can increase (1) their sphere of influence and (2) the degree of influence they have on others.

Types of Influence

In our study about increasing influence, we'll learn about various types of influence that are used to affect interpersonal relations and organizations.

Major types of influence include the following:

Types of Influence
● Leadership
● Authority
● Power

Leadership is the ability of one to inspire or obtain action from others that goes beyond what is necessitated or expected under the circumstances. Effective leaders vary their style based on personal preferences, environmental circumstances and factors, and the readiness level of followers.

Authority involves one's ability to legitimately seek compliance from others in the taking of certain actions. It is a type of power that is based on the position held by the leader--the individual holding authority over others has the right to ask that something be done. For example, if one is hired to prepare monthly budgets for a specific manager, that manager has the right to request them of that hired individual.

Power is said to be the utilization of one's ability to get another individual or group to do something.

Power can be defined from different perspectives. For example, consider the following:

Position power is the amount of authority and responsibility that is given to an individual in an organization to accomplish certain responsibilities in that organization.

Legitimate power is the same as authority. It involves the use of power based on the position or office held by the power user.

Expert power is the credibility one has in a specific area of expertise; the amount of power allocated to that individual is based on the degree of dependence others have on that person because of their specialty.

Reward power is the influence one has on others based on their ability to provide rewards and incentives such as pay increases, promotions, and job enrichments.

Coercive power is based on the ability one has to punish another.

Referent power is influence one has on others based on interpersonal attractions and charisma he or she possesses.

Personal power comes from (1) individual goal fulfillment and (2) positive subordinate feelings of respect and commitment toward leaders for the goals they set and their leadership behaviors.

Influence: The Use of Power

Interestingly, as individuals climb the corporate ladder, they become more dependent upon people (versus less dependent). Although executives have formal authority and influence over individuals in organizations, they can only win the enthusiasm and full support of employees and associates through certain leadership behaviors.

Leaders must examine the following issues with regard to power and influence in organizations:

- **Their leadership behavior**
- **Their possession of power**
- **The way they use power**

Most all interactions in organizations are based on influence or power held by, or lacking in, individuals in the entity. The control of departments and members of organizations is based on power and influence.

Individuals who learn to assist in organizational goal fulfillment through adaptation to the entity's environment are the people who attain power.

Also, when individuals become less dependent on needed resources, they have acquired a degree of power. This includes the ability to obtain resources that are scarce, important, and non-substitutable.

Here are some examples of **influence activities** or **power games** used in organizations:

- **Information access control** or sharing of only selective data

- **Control of access to individuals**

- **Exchange** (or doing something for someone else, thereby creating a perceived obligation on the part of the exchange recipient to return the favor)

- **Control of the agenda**

- Use of **red tape**

- Use of **indirect influence** (such as changing an organization's formal reward systems and structures)

- **Following rules** to the letter

- **Slowing of work**

- **Use of expertise**

- **Use of alliances**

- **Development of coalitions**

- **Use of charismatic qualities** to influence others

One's **ability to thrive on change and cope with uncertainty** also gives an individual power in an organization.

<u>Ways of Acquiring Power</u>

Administrative professionals can acquire and use power by:

- Safeguarding and providing proper gatekeeping of organizational information

- Building a support network

- Supporting and promoting the success of his or her department and executive team

- Developing the image they desire through appropriate dress and behavior

- Obtaining appropriate control of resources

- Being proactive and visible

- Gaining and utilizing needed skills and abilities that will help reach goals of the executive, department, and organization

- Developing and nurturing relationships and gaining allies

- Avoiding fringe individuals, groups, or activities

When developing influence, one should consider the following points:

- It takes a significant amount of time to build influence and power in an organization. One must be willing to invest the time and energy involved.

- It is important, wherever possible and ethical, to meet supervisory needs.

- One should know and use organizational priorities.

- It is useful to utilize power statements in communications.

- One should be proactive and take risks.

- Power-related skills can be learned and used in organizations.

- Getting to know those who hold power in organizations can be an effective way of increasing personal influence.

- Individuals desiring to obtain power must be willing to be confront people and issues.

- Persons should know who they are and develop their traits and abilities--especially their strengths.

- Organizational symbols and language should be used.

Cues of An Individual's Influence

Signals are given with regard to an individual's influence or power in an organization; for example, you know if someone has influence in an organization when he or she:

- Can relatively easily get through to someone in authority
- Can intercede favorably on behalf of someone in trouble in the organization
- Is invited to participate in important meetings
- Is asked by the boss to share their feedback or opinion in meetings
- Enters the room and receives a special "hello" from the top executive
- Has important connections and contacts

Behavioral Responses to Uses of Managerial Power

The use of different types of power, especially from a managerial standpoint, provides fairly predictable behavioral responses in individuals being acted upon. For example:

- Rewarded behavior is generally compliant.
- Behavior based on coercion brings opposition or resistance.
- The use of legitimate power typically brings about compliance.
- The utilization of referent power is normally attended by commitment.
- When expert power is involved, there is generally a certain level of commitment involved.

Uses of Power for the Best Follower Results

The best type of power or influence for a leader to use varies based on each situation. In many cases, the use of referent and expert power brings about the strongest follower satisfaction and performance levels.

Individuals who take into account follower readiness levels will consider using different types of power, as follows:

- When followers are below average in their readiness to follow, leaders will use position and reward power forms.
- When individuals are average in their readiness to follow, leaders will often use position, reward, legitimate, and personal power.
- When persons are above average in their readiness to follow, leaders will often use personal, referent, information, or expert power.

Factors Affecting One's Ability to Be Influenced

From the perspective of persons who are the recipients of influence attempts by others, the following factors may affect people in their ability to be influenced, including:

- The **relationship** between the individuals involved in the influence transaction
- **Values** held by the person being influenced (for example, if an individual places a great deal of value in his or her work schedule, and a supervisor has control over the schedule, the subordinate will be susceptible to the manager's influence)
- **Counter power** existing between the parties involved (in other words, a manager may have influence over a subordinate, but if the subordinate holds power to offset the power of the manager, a state of Counter power exists)

A good example of counter power exists in the manager-administrative assistant relationship. In addition to the authority or power a manager has over his or her administrative staff member, the assistant has access to highly-confidential information about an employer, which gives the assistant a certain amount of influence or power over the executive.

Power and Interpersonal Relations

Influence and interpersonal relations go hand in hand. Every day people try to influence you, and you attempt to influence them, in various ways. Here are some **approaches used to affect interpersonal influence**:

- Image (or impression) management
- Persuasive communication
- Negotiations

Image Management

Image or impression management involves steps taken by an individual to influence or control impressions others form of them. Here are some specific techniques used in impression management:

- **Ingratiation** (use personal charisma or charm)
- **Consultation** (approach others for their input and feedback)
- **Use of positive political tactics**

Examples of **positive political tactics** include the following:

- Laugh at others' humor
- Network with people with influence
- Volunteer to assist with projects and assignments
- Help others succeed
- Utilize information in a wise manner
- Sincerely compliment others
- Strive to be calm and collected in stressful circumstances
- Exchange favors
- Follow group or team norms
- Use diplomacy
- Nurture relationships and develop allies
- Show an interest in what others do

In image management, it's also important to use **business etiquette**. Here are some areas in which etiquette plays a key role (more details are also found in the section of this program dealing with professional protocol):

- First-time introductions
- Cross-cultural communications

- Everyday behavior in the work place
- Handling of telephone conversations
- Treatment of hard copy and electronic correspondence and communications
- Dining behaviors

Image management focuses on accentuation of the positive and reduction of negative impressions. It's important to **avoid making political mistakes** or blunders such as:

- Being annoying
- Burning bridges
- Disloyalty or open criticism of influential individuals in the organization
- Bypassing the executive
- Poor handling of facing up to having made a mistake
- Intentional creation of false impressions

When blunders are made, one should avoid becoming defensive and remain composed.

Persuasive communication is another approach to affect interpersonal influence. Here are some suggestions to achieve improved persuasive communication:

- Learn to be a better speaker.

- Gain an increased proficiency in written communications.

- Ask questions and try to come to an understanding of the message receiver to be certain you are sending the desired message.

- Utilize both verbal and nonverbal feedback processes.

- Use multiple channels or approaches in communication.

- Minimize defensive communication approaches.

- Provide relevant information that minimizes or eliminates obstacles between the message sender and receiver.

Persuasive communication on the part of the persuader involves:

- Self confidence
- Commitment
- Honesty
- Humor and enthusiasm
- Active listening
- Positive and complimentary communication transactions with others

Persuaders:

- Know what they want
- Approach others in terms of their interests and needs
- Explain the benefits that come from what they are describing or explaining
- Try to see things from the message recipient's point of view and understand others' objections
- Use power language and terminology; they also try to minimize or avoid language mistakes
- Give specific reasons for asking questions of those they are trying to persuade
- Try to obtain agreement or a positive response as soon as feasible

Negotiating is yet another approach used to affect interpersonal influence. Negotiations occur:

- Between two or more individuals who must make decisions together
- When the parties involved are not in full accord
- In situations where there is at least some chance that the parties involved can come to a joint agreement

The following are suggestions that can help make interpersonal negotiations more effective:

- One should be familiar with the person with whom he or she is negotiating.
- A climate of trust and openness should be established.
- Positive, shared points should first be brought up.
- Problems, not persons, should be addressed.
- Initial offers should generally be discounted, depending on the situation and the needs of the parties involved.

Negotiations can be improved by:

- Parties being willing to make small concessions
- The negotiation's focus being kept on the issues involved

The best types of agreements are those that create a winning outcome for all parties involved.

Negotiation-related review material is also found in the Resolving Conflict chapter of this review program.

Individual and Gender Communication Differences

It is important to recognize that there are differences in communication styles used by individuals. Here are some examples of communication **roles often taken by women**:

- Many like to converse to build rapport between themselves and others.
- Some are often complementary of other individuals.
- Many women are indirect in their conversations; they often wish to be polite versus coming across as rude.
- There is a tendency for women to build empathic support-based relationships.
- Women tend to desire to find solutions by talking with others.
- Women often wish to be compatible, harmonious, and conciliatory in the communications.

Here are some examples of communication **roles often taken by men**:

- Many like to show off their knowledge and ability when they talk to others.
- Men tend to be direct in their communication.
- Some like to maintain their personal independence in their conversations.
- Some men are often critical of other persons.
- Many men prefer to seek for solutions versus attempting to be empathetic with others.
- Men generally like to work independently in the resolution of their problems.
- Men tend to dominate meeting discussions.
- Many men are proactive in pointing out their contributions and accomplishments.
- Men sometimes like to come across as impressive, remarkable, or awesome, with an emphasis on being macho and intimidating.

In terms of the **basic difference between women and men** in relation to the use of influence in organizations:

- Women are likely to use referential or personal power when dealing with others.

- Men typically use position and formal power in their transactions.

Power in Ethics and Politics

In power and politics, individuals and management must consider the following key ethical issues:

- Individual rights must be respected.

- Personal or management behavior should result in the helping the largest number of individuals possible.

- Individuals must be treated fairly and equitably.

Also, consider the following approaches used from different power bases:

- Subordinate interests should be defended.
- Associate concerns should be recognized.
- All individuals involved should be kept informed.
- Employee self-esteem must be guarded.
- Credible, desirable rewards should be offered to subordinates.
- Associates should be notified of rules and consequences.
- Warnings should be provided before punishment.
- Punishment should fit the situation and should be done in private.

In addition to approaches used in image management, the following tactics are used in organizational politics:

- **Rational persuasion** (this approach uses logic to persuade others)

- **Inspirational appeals** (this approach utilizes shared ideals and values)

- **Coalition tactics** (this approach utilizes different sources to help in the persuasion process)

- **Upward appeals** (this approach involves obtaining support from superiors)

- **Pressure tactics** (this approach involves threats, intimidation, and other actions designed to motivate action)

- **Exchange tactics** (this approach involves the exchange of favors)

Organizational Politics

The politics of organizations involves decisions affecting the allocation of limited and valuable resources. The following factors increase the likelihood of political activity in organizations:

Factors Affecting Organizational Political Activity
• Organizational **complexity and uncertainty** • **Competition** among personnel • **Unclear goals** • **Nonprogrammed decisions** • **Change** in organizations

When rules and procedures have not been established for issues and questions that arise, organizational politics kick into gear. The following concerns are of special note with regard to politics in organizations:

- **Coordination of interdepartmental activities**
- **Human resource promotions and transfers**
- **Authority delegation**

Individuals and units of organizations wishing to gain organizational power and influence work to control strategic activities such as:

- **Scarce resources**
- **Actions required for individuals to complete their work**

Limiting Organizational Political Behavior

Managers can reduce undesirable political behavior in organizations by:

- **Reducing system uncertainty** (including making it clear what criteria are used for evaluating and rewarding individual and team performance, and then rewarding performance in an appropriate and timely manner)

- **Decreasing competition among individuals and teams** (in part by substituting competition for resources with externally-oriented objectives and goals)

- **Reprimanding or discharging individuals** disrupting the organization due to political maneuvering

- **Breaking up dysfunctional units**

- **Creating a culture that promotes the reaching of organizational goals** versus enabling individuals who pursue personal political power games

Influence and the Use of Leadership

Leadership and influence are terms often used synonymously. Those who wish to influence others must learn to:

- Properly understand what needs to be influenced

- Change behavior, the things over which the individual has control, and situational circumstances

- Communicate about what is being influenced in a way that others will understand and accept

Dr. Paul Hersey suggests **four strategies leaders can use to influence organizational transformation**, taking into account (1) actions involving organizational structure and (2) actions involving leaders inspiring followers in the entity:

- **Endorsing strategies** (involving a low amount of inspiring actions and a low number of structuring actions): Leaders utilizing endorsing strategies initiate and advocate organizational transformation and then observe and report on progress made

- **Enlisting strategies** (involving a high number of inspiring actions and a low number of structure-related actions): Leaders using enlisting strategies promote commitment and are involved in decision-making and implementation of the strategies

- **Enabling strategies** (involving a high amount of inspiring actions and a high level of structure-related actions): Leaders who use enabling strategies have a vision of the future and help to organize roles and activities

- **Enforcing strategies** (involving a low amount of inspiring actions and a high level of structure-related activity): Leaders using enforcing strategies eliminate the system as it stands and put in place a completely new organizational structure

Leadership and Trust

Leaders who wish to increase their personal influence in organizations learn the importance of developing trust.

Trust is developed when:

- Individuals are honest in their communications and dealings

- Fairness and consistency are practiced

- Individuals can express their feelings

- Organizational members are encouraged and allowed to be open and frank one with another

- Promises and confidences are kept

Influence and the Use of Authority

We have mentioned authority as a type of power or influence used by individuals. Individuals holding authority in organizations can influence others via providing rewards for employee performance, including the following:

- **Skill-based pay**
- **Spot awards**
- **Merit raises**
- **Recognition**

Individuals with authority in organizations also use goal-setting methods to influence and affect subordinate motivation and behavior.

Other ways managers can influence employees include:

- **Job enlargement**
- **Job enrichment**
- **Job redesign**
- **Job rotation**
- **Employee empowerment**

In empowerment, individuals are given authority, tools, and data needed to perform their work in an increased autonomous way.

People who have been empowered:

- Are trusted and respected
- Understand their roles and responsibilities
- Have authority to do their jobs
- Receive needed training to perform to a specified level of excellence
- Are kept informed with regard to data and issues relating to their work
- Are given timely performance feedback
- Are allowed to make mistakes

Empowerment is specifically discussed in the Delegating and Empowering chapter of this program.

Expanding One's Circle of Influence

Individuals are influenced by and have influence on others. Consider the following:

- **People like to be in the *in-group*.**
- **People are influenced by their employers.**
- **People are affected by organizational culture and norms.**
- **People are influenced by values and attitudes.**

Individuals can expand their circle of influence by being proactive and working on the things over which they have control.

The following points are important to consider when one desires to expand her circle of influence:

- Utilization of **proactive behavior** expands a person's circle of influence (individual proactivity involves behavior based on making specific decisions and choices; proactive people do not react to situations, they act, and their actions are driven by values and goals).

- Personal circumstances are powerfully impacted by responses chosen for those circumstances.

- People who **make and keep promises** are trusted and respected. They have ever-growing circles of influence.

- Individuals who set positive goals and work hard to accomplish them are esteemed by themselves and others.

Dr. Stephen Covey states that in order to influence others, and thereby expand our circles of influence, we should first understand them. We do this, in part, by developing the art of effective listening. This is not accomplished by any special technique, but honestly and sincerely listening with the true intent of wanting to come to an understanding of others--by being able to gain an understanding of how others feel and what their needs are.

According to Dr. Covey, *Your character is constantly radiating, communicating. From it, in the long run, I come to instinctively trust or distrust you and your efforts with me. But unless I open up with you, unless you understand me and my unique situation and feelings, you won't know how to advise and counsel me...*

In addition to coming to truly understand others, we can increase our influence by making deposits into others' emotional bank accounts. This is done by:

- Taking care of the details and small things
- Keeping our promises to others (and ourselves)
- Having personal integrity (in other words, walking our talk)
- Sincerely apologizing to others when we have hurt or offended them

● Making expectations clear
● Providing love and support

We can also build our circles of influence by:

● **Developing an abundance mentality** way of thinking (versus having scarcity mentalities--in other words, having the attitude that there is plenty for everyone versus feeling that there is only so much of something to go around, so everyone must fight for his or her share of the pie)

● **Maintaining a balance between consideration and courage** (this is also referred to as *maturity*).

● **Working for win-win agreements** in our personal and business dealings

Win-win agreements are accomplished by doing the following:

1. The problem must first be seen for the other party's point of view.

2. It must be determined what will comprise a fully agreeable solution to everyone involved.

3. Options that will bring about the solution must be identified.

4. An agreement is made that will bring about full satisfaction for everyone concerned.

Three keys to building win-win relationships include:

● ***First seek to understand the other individual***
● ***Build synergy together***
● ***Value differences and uniqueness***

Advanced Organizational Management:
Team Skills
Chapter 10: Team Building

Objectives: In this chapter, the student will review the following concepts:

1. Teams and how they function
2. Team building and organizational change
3. The characteristics of effective teams and how they are created, developed, and maintained

Introduction

Teams are used increasingly by organizations to help them achieve overall corporate goals and strategies, provide added job satisfaction to team members, and enable entities to be more flexible and competitive in a rapidly-changing environment. We will now consider current team building issues and their implications to us as individuals as well as to organizations of all types.

Groups and Teams Defined

Teams Defined

A **team** is a group of two or more individuals who work together and share common objectives. Teams are widely used in businesses and organizations today.

Effective teams require:

- One or more specific objectives or goals
- Team interaction
- Group performance

A survey of companies in the United States found that over two-thirds of these organizations were using formal teams to perform work. Many smaller entities are also utilizing teams to complete tasks and solve problems.

Teams and Groups

Teams:

- May vary in their goal or purpose
- Can be **functional** (taking members from a specific area or department)
- May be **cross-functional** (bringing members together from various functional areas and organizational levels; cross-functional teams foster cooperation, innovation, and group member commitment)
- Are **formal** (sanctioned by the organization) or **informal** (not intentionally created by the entity)

Types of Teams and Groups

Teams may be:
• **Functional** • **Self-directed** • **Cross-functional** • **Task** • **Special-purpose** • **Problem-solving** • **Informal**

Functional Teams

Functional teams are formal, ongoing groups made up of managers and employees from within the organization. The manager serves as the link between groups for each organization. Likert calls this role the linking pin function. Functional groups should coordinate efforts via the assistance of the manager who links the various activities together.

Functional teams generally deal with routine, recurring tasks and activities. Its team members and goals may change over the course of time; however, basic functions of the team do not change.

Self-Directed Teams

Self-directed teams (SDTs) are functional groups in which the manager (in organizations using managers) shares various responsibilities with team members through participative management. The manager and employees work together to set team objectives and develop a plan to accomplish them.

In organizations not using managers on teams, self-directed or **self-managed work teams** are teams of six to eight members that function without a manager. They are responsible for an entire work process. They do their own hiring, set goals, and make decisions relative to team activities. They deliver a service or product to a customer found either inside or outside of the organization.

Self-managing or self-directed teams are created through the following process:

- The organization creates a special executive committee that determines how teams can be best utilized, based on the organization's overall mission. Kinds of teams needed are identified.

- Teams are created.

- Intensive training is provided for all team members.

- Some confusion is encountered as teams begin to function.

- There is a move to teams where one member is chosen as the leader (leader-centered team), unless individual members continue to learn and practice leadership skills.

- Team members may become so loyal one to another that some team member problems may be hidden in order to protect members.

- Once teams get past the point of needing to provide extreme loyalty to members, they can move to building fully self-directed teams.

The following are examples of leading productivity-boosting programs involving work teams:

- Employee involvement programs
- Quality programs
- Process improvement methods and techniques
- Equipment, technology, and training
- Automation and computer issues

Examples of products made by self-directed teams include automobile production and insurance claim processing. Team members usually rotate among the different jobs and gain the skills required for each job. Each individual becomes responsible for the team's performance and not just his or her own specific job. In addition, variety is added to work and time spent on repetitive activities is reduced. The result is enhanced job satisfaction.

Semi-autonomous teams have managers who allow team members some autonomy over their own positions. Team members set their own goals, give input into problem solving related to their work, and make many decisions regarding their own work-related tasks.

Cross-Functional Teams

Cross-functional teams bring together members from various functional areas and organizational levels. Activities shift from independent functions to key processes involving interdependent functions between groups. Cross-functional teams can improve company operations and also allow the flattening of organizational structure.

Task Teams and Groups

Task teams, unlike functional groups, are generally made up of members from different organizational departments. They are effective in problem-solving activities. These formal groups are often referred to as task forces, or committees. Committee members serve on task forces in addition to their normal work assignments. They work together until the task is completed or until their time to serve has ended. They make recommendations dealing with ongoing as well as nonroutine issues. They may (1) report to management for a decision to be made or (2) have their own decision-making authority. It is important, however, that the team's decision-making authority is clear.

The following are **types of task forces** or committees:

- Standing committees
- Boards
- Ad hoc committees
- Project matrix teams
- Venture groups

Standing Committees: Permanent groups dealing with ongoing organizational issues and activities. When member terms are completed, another person is generally assigned to the position. Committee members often serve on a rotating basis in order to help keep continuity in committee activity.

Boards: Boards are corporate standing committees comprised of trustees or directors who oversee the management of organizational assets, set and approve policies and objectives, and keep abreast of progress made toward the attainment of organizational objectives.

Ad hoc Committees: Temporary task forces set up for a specific goal or purpose. They exist until the task is accomplished or the goal is reached (i.e., recommendation to hire a new management team member, purchase of a new computer system, etc.).

Project matrix teams: Teams established to oversee the completion of a special custom-tailored product requiring exacting specifications (i.e., major defense contractor). In the matrix, each employee has a functional manager (i.e., engineering), in addition to being assigned to work on one or more special projects.

Venture groups (sometimes referred to as project teams): Venture groups plan entry into new service or business areas. They are established to work on the creation of new products or processes in organizations. They expedite the process by cutting through the red tape of bureaucratic structures. Venture groups have one manager and are made up of specialists and managers from different organizational functional groups.

Special-Purpose Teams

These teams are set up to develop new products, work procedures, and introduce new technology into an entity. Members of various functional units of the organization are involved (i.e., marketing, production, accounting, customer service, etc.) to help link the various parts of the organization.

Special-purpose teams are also used to directly influence issues such as workplace safety, quality, and productivity.

Hot groups are small in size, dedicated, and high-achieving teams that work on challenging assignments. The issues considered by hot groups captivate team members. Hot groups are especially feasible in organizations that provide flexibility, openness, autonomy, and give people top priority.

Hot groups are

- Temporary in nature
- Intense in feeling and emotion
- Involved in an important mission that captivates team members

Transnational teams involve individuals from various countries, and the activities requiring team work extend to various countries. In order for transnational teams to be successful, it is important that

- Communications are very clear.

- Decision-making is handled carefully.

- Organizational strategies are well defined and kept in the forefront of team member thinking.

- Teamwork is thoughtfully built.

Problem-Solving Teams

Problem-solving teams are comprised of individuals from various areas of a department. Often called **Quality Circles**, project groups, safety groups, audit groups, or task forces: These groups are made up of 6 to 12 members who usually meet once a week for an hour or two to consider ways to make improvements in quality, efficiency, or the overall work environment. Quality circle members are provided training in problem analysis, including statistics. The basic problem analysis process used by quality circles is as follows:

- Problems are identified.
- Problems are selected for solutions to be found.
- An analysis of specific problems is done.
- Solutions are identified and recommended by the task force.
- Review of solutions is done by management.

Ideas considered by problem-solving teams are passed on to management for their consideration.

Informal Groups

Informal groups are not intentionally set up by organizations, in contrast to formal groups such as task and functional groups that are designed by an organization to carry out its purposes and reach its objectives.

Informal groups are created when members come together on their own, of their own choice, due to their shared interests and goals.

Informal groups, sometimes called **cliques**, are made up of members of different departments and areas of organizations. Members often get together during work breaks, lunch, and after working hours to discuss various issues and concerns. Informal group or team membership tends to be open, and it changes much more rapidly than membership in formal groups or teams.

Informal groups can be beneficial or a hindrance to organizations.

Teams Described by Organizational Activity

Teams can also be described by the activities they perform in an organization:

- Advice or involvement
- Development or project
- Service or production
- Negotiation or action

Advice or involvement teams: Committees, involvement groups, and quality circles that can be set up for a short or long duration; such teams make decisions, recommendations, proposals, and selections in an organization.

Development or project teams: Task forces, engineering and development teams, research and planning groups that differ with each new project; these teams investigate, plan, design, and present various prototypes--they put together reports and submit their findings in organizations.

Service or production teams: Data processing, assembly, and mining teams; flight attendant crews; their process is repeated or continuous; service or production teams can be involved with customer service, equipment repairs, food service, components, and retail sales.

Negotiation or action teams: Negotiating, surgical, and sports teams are examples of negotiation or action teams; they are involved in brief performance activities, often repeated under different conditions or circumstances; they may be involved in contracts, lawsuits, surgical work, or combat missions.

Nature of Team-Based Organizations

In **team-based organizations**, the team is the basic work unit, unlike traditional departmentalized or hierarchical organizations. Individuals work together in teams and perform most of the planning, decision making, and implementation involved in the accomplishment of their work.

Team-Based Structures: Organizational Design

Team-based structures are made up of work teams that do the entity's work. Teams design their work as they choose. This makes empowerment of personnel critical. There is no strict line of management authority from top to bottom in the organization. Teams are accountable for their work and performance.

Here are some **organizational structure types**:

- **Autonomous internal units**: These are structures made up of decentralized, independent business units that have their own products, end-user markets, goals, etc.

- **Simple structure**: Simple structure organizations have little formalization with wide spans of control; authority is found in a single individual, and there is low departmentalization.

- **Functional structure**: In the functional structure, related specialties are grouped together.

- **Divisional structure**: Partially autonomous divisions or units comprise divisional structures.

- **Project structure**: Project structures are made up of project teams guided by organizational project managers; they are flexible in nature without departmentalization or organizational hierarchy. Organizational resources are made available to the project teams whose managers serve as coaches and mentors instead of controllers of day-to-day work efforts.

- **Matrix structure**: Matrix structures assign specialists from various functional departments to work on projects led by project managers. The term matrix is derived from the interwoven horizontal and vertical dimensions comprising the structure: The horizontal dimension is brought about by the various departments involved; the vertical dimension is represented by the manager and those he or she supervises in the project.

  A challenge that comes into play because of the matrix structure is its violation of the **unity of command** management principle, because a dual chain of command is created by it. Each team member is supervised by both a functional (departmental) manager and a project manager. Both managers must share authority. The project manager will generally have authority over individuals only with regard to the project's goals, while the functional manager has responsibility over personnel in traditional human resource issues such as promotions, wages, and annual reviews. Both managers must communicate on a regular basis to keep everything running smoothly.

In some organizations, selected personnel are assigned permanently to project matrix teams.

- **Network-based organizations**: These are made up of formal, informal, and electronic networks.

  Formal networks: Formal organizational networks include the top management team and members brought together from the different company functions, units, geographic regions, and various levels of the organization.

Informal networks: Informal networks are made up of persons interconnected on an informal basis. They work together to solve one another's problems using their different skills and expertise.

Electronic networks: Various networks such as the Internet and other formal and informal networks are utilized to find answers to questions and obtain information for decision making and other purposes.

- **Learning organizations**: The term learning organization is used to describe a philosophy or mind-set of an entity. Learning organizations are designed to adapt and change on an ongoing basis. All individuals in the organization are continually involved in identifying and resolving issues.

- **Boundaryless organizations** (also referred to as the horizontal corporation by management experts): Designed to avoid any specific predefined organizational structure; boundaryless organizations do not have the typical horizontal or vertical boundaries found in traditional organizations. They are also not limited to or defined by external boundaries.

Here are some examples of **organizational boundaries**:

- **Authority boundaries** (who is in charge)
- **Political boundaries** (what are the interests of the various parties)
- **Task boundaries** (who is responsible for what)
- **Identity boundaries** (who are members of the group, team, or organization)

Team Importance: Team Characteristics

Teams and groups have the following characteristics:

- Members share common goals
- They define themselves, and are defined by others, as team members
- Team members interact on a regular basis
- Team members perceive involvement to be rewarding

Purpose for Team and Group Involvement: Reasons to Join Groups

Individuals join groups for the following reasons:

- Attraction
- Affiliation
- Activity
- Proximity
- Help

Attraction: Group members are attracted to others who share attitudes, personalities, and interests.

Affiliation: Individuals have a need to interact with others. When team members enjoy working with the people in their group, they tend to experience increased levels of job satisfaction.

Activity: Work-related teams and groups come together to perform specific activities. Individuals often join groups because of the activities the group performs.

Proximity: Groups are often formed by people who work in the same department or company or who live in the same area.

Help: People often join groups because of the help the groups provide them (i.e., assistance, security, development of business contacts, networking, etc.).

Team Use in Organizations

Teams are used by organizations for the following reasons:

- Development of esprit de corps
- Increased flexibility
- Added performance
- Enhanced utilization of human resource diversity
- Heightened management strategic thinking

Team Development Stages

Each team is unique; however, it is generally felt that all groups and teams go through a series of similar stages in the team development process. R. B. Lacoursiere, after extensive research of articles and studies of group dynamics, developed the following five stage team development model:

Team Development Stages

- Orientation
- Dissatisfaction
- Resolution
- Production
- Termination

Each of the these stages is unique and separate; however, there is an overlapping of elements of the various group development stages.

Stage 1: **Orientation**

Development level: Low
Commitment: High
Team member competence: Low

Team members who come to a group initially have fairly high commitment to the group. Task competence is low. Team members experience some anxiety with regard to how they will fit into group and other unknown variables such as how well they will perform their different functions, how the group will get along, group purposes and goals, and so forth.

Traditional groups are not usually started with all new members, as is the case with self-directed groups and teams. It is important that group objectives and roles be clearly stated and understood by all team members for group development to continue. Some functional groups never go past this stage due to on-going unresolved anxiety issues.

Stage 2: **Dissatisfaction**

Development level: Moderate
Commitment: Low to moderate
Team member competence: Low to moderate

After a period of time, group members begin to be dissatisfied with the team for various reasons. The tasks are perhaps more difficult or complex than expected and team members become frustrated over their lack of competence. Groups able to progress beyond this point gain satisfaction and learn to be a team.

Stage 3: **Resolution**

Development level: High
Commitment: Variable
Team member competence: High

Over time, team members work out differences between their original expectations and the reality of their situation. As member competence increases, individuals become more satisfied with the team. With the development of team member relationships, affiliation needs are filled. Conflict and change bring continual challenges that need to be resolved. Teams that deal effectively with these issues will continue to progress to the next stage; otherwise, they will revert to stage 2.

Stage 4: **Production**

Development level: Excellent
Commitment: High
Team member competence: High

Competence and commitment remain strong in this stage. Positive feelings are engendered among team members as they remain productive and keep a positive team structure. Open communication is developed between team members.

Stage 5: **Termination**

Development level: Excellent
Commitment: High
Team member competence: High

Task teams eventually come to an end. In functional teams, termination takes place only if there is a major reorganization of the entity involved. Team members usually have sad feelings about leaving the team--especially when team members have had a good working relationship and they will no longer have contact with one another. A feeling of relief is experienced, however, if the team did not progress through the stages of team development.

Teamwork Advantages and Disadvantages

Advantages of Teamwork

The following are teamwork advantages:

● **Synergy** is often developed through teamwork (the group's total output exceeds the sum of each person's contribution to the team).

● A number of productive possibilities may be found when several competent, knowledgeable individuals are involved in the process.

● Working in teams enhances member job satisfaction.

● Team members help the group avoid errors by evaluating one another's thinking.

Disadvantages of Teamwork

Here are some disadvantages of teamwork:

● **Group-think** (an extreme form of team consensus) can set in.

● **Social loafing** may take place (an individual may avoid his or her responsibilities by not carrying his or her fair share of the work).

● **Internal conflict** is fostered when a team is not functioning well.

● **External conflict** can develop when cohesive teams become fearful of those outside the group (xenophobic).

● Team members face **pressure to conform** to group performance standards; shunning of group members can occur in some teams.

Team Member Roles

Team members occupy a number of roles, including the following:

- Listener
- Process observer
- Knowledge contributor
- People supporter
- Collaborator

- Mediator
- Challenger
- Gatekeeper

Listener: Listening involves a lot of work and commitment; those who take the time to listen get much more from the communication process than those who are constantly preparing to speak.

Process observer: This individual sees the transactions that take place between and among team members (including members team member consolation, coalition forming, communication processes, etc.).

Knowledge contributor: The team member having special knowledge to contribute provides valid and useful data for team consideration.

People supporter: This team member provides emotional support for team members and promotes conflict resolution.

Collaborator: This team member helps keep the group on track and focused on its goal(s).

Mediator: The mediator fills the role of one who helps to resolve conflict. Conflict resolution is covered elsewhere in the program; however, three steps can be used by the mediator:

1. Permission is asked of each side to interpret the side's point of view.

2. Each side is interpreted, followed by a confirmation from each party that the interpretation is correct.

3. The interpretations are verified or corrected by each side.

The team then moves on to more productive activities.

Challenger: This individual challenges team deficiencies, bad ideas, ineffective team processes, and poor decision-making processes.

Gatekeeper: Gatekeepers help keep the team-contributions gate open to members when it is closed to them, for whatever reason.

<u>Individuals and Teams</u>

A note on dealing with individuals versus teams: Group leaders and members need to be aware of intra team dynamics and the various readiness levels of members on the team. It's important to remember that individual team members must be dealt with differently in one-on-one situations.

Key Employees and Team Building

Successful managers have found that diversity is important in creating a team that works well. When key employees are brought into an organization from outside the group, and when team members with various perspectives are brought together in an open environment where all parties can express their points of view, the group can expect to have an increased competitive edge and a better chance of reaching its goals.

Interpersonal Aspects of Team Play

The following interpersonal actions and attitudes are important in team play:

- **People-related**

Trust
Cooperation and collaboration
Recognition of others (achievements and interests)
Providing constructive and helpful critiquing

- **Task-related**

Seeing the big picture
Expertise (technical and otherwise)
Taking responsibility for self and problems
Assisting others in doing a better job
Understanding the need for team consensus

Development and Evolution of the Team Concept

The **team concept** has been influenced by many factors over the years, especially the early behavioral science theories of Maslow, Herzberg, Mayo, McGregor, Blake and Mouton, Hall, and Hersey.

Here are some studies and concepts directly related to the evolution of the team concept (incidentally, more behavioral science-related details can be found elsewhere in this review program):

- Elton Mayo and the Hawthorne Studies
- Douglas McGregor and Work Teams
- Jay Hall and Competence
- Blake and Mouton's Leadership Grid®
- Paul Hersey's Situational Leadership

Elton Mayo and the Hawthorne Studies

The **Hawthorne Studies** conducted at the Western Electric Company Works in Cicero, Illinois, performed in the 1920s and 1930s, shed new light into individual and group behavior. Scientific management's single best approach had to be modified to recognize the effects of individual and group behavior. These studies concluded that behavior and feelings are closely related, group influences strongly impact on individual behavior; group standards set in place individual worker output; and group standards, sentiments, and security are more important factors than money in determining employee output.

McGregor's Influence

Douglas McGregor is most well-known for his **Theory X** (negative view of people) and **Theory Y** (positive view of people) approaches to individuals and human motivation. In the *Human Side of Enterprise*, McGregor brings up a few characteristics of an effective work team:

1. The atmosphere of the workplace tends to be informal, comfortable, and relaxed.

2. There is a lot of discussion about work-related issues.

3. The tasks or objectives of the group are well understood and accepted by the members.

4. The members listen to one another.

5. There is disagreement (the group is comfortable with this and shows no signs of having to avoid conflict).

6. People freely express their feelings as well as their ideas, both on the problem at hand and on the group's operation; there is little avoidance, and there are few hidden agendas.

Adams' Equity Theory

The **Adams' Equity Theory**, first presented by John Stacey Adams in 1963, states that individuals want a balance between what they put into their work and what they gain from it. Adams calls an individual's contribution to employment **inputs** and rewards obtained from work **outputs**.

The following is a graph illustrating the Equity Theory:

The Adams Equity Theory

Inputs	Balance between Inputs and Outputs	Outputs
Work effort, skill, sacrifice, enthusiasm, support of those at work, flexibility, loyalty, etc.	Individuals desire to have a balance between inputs and outputs	Rewards such as salary, benefits, special perks; in addition, development, training, recognition, appreciation shown, opportunity for promotions or advancement, etc.

According to Adams' theory, as long as individuals get the rewards they are seeking for the effort they put forth, they have a sense of motivation toward and satisfaction in their work.

Jay Hall and Competence

In the 1980s, Jay Hall, a strong Theory Y proponent and social psychologist, found that a majority of workers need to show their **competence**. They need to perform well. He encouraged management to provide a positive work environment that enables people to reach their potential. He also found that high-achieving managers have a strong interest in both individuals and productivity. They rely a great deal on a participative management approach. Low and moderate achievers, however, avoid involving their employees in the decision-making process.

The Leadership Grid®

The **Leadership Grid**, formerly called the Managerial Grid (by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton), shows the relationship between concern for people and concern for production. The Grid clarifies how these two dimensions are related. It also communicates about leadership patterns and styles. In summary, here are the five most important styles outlined by Blake and Mouton:

- **Impoverished managers** (1,1 on the grid) give little of themselves and expect little of others.

- **Country club managers** (1,9 on the grid) have low concern for production and high concern for people.

- **Authority-compliance managers** (9,1 on the grid) are task oriented; their concern for production is high, and their concern for people is low.

- **Middle-of-the-road managers** (5,5 on the grid) are satisfied with modest performance and moderately concerned for their employees.

- **Team managers** (9,9 on the grid) have both a high concern for people and production. They are considered proactive.

Paul Hersey's Situational Leadership

The **Situational Leadership Model**, developed by Paul Hersey and his colleagues at the Center for Leadership Studies, offers an alternative to the Leadership Grid. In Situational Leadership®, Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson provide us with a model that involves the relationship between relationship behavior (supportive behavior) and task behavior (guidance provided by the leader). Follower readiness (involving both ability to do the tasks needed and willingness to perform) is also a key factor in the model.

The following leadership styles are described in the Situational Leadership Model (each style is used based on the situation and follower readiness level):

- **Delegating** (turn over responsibilities to followers)
- **Participating** (share ideas and help in the decision-making process)
- **Selling** (explain decisions made and allow the chance for clarification)
- **Telling** (give instructions and supervise work carefully)

When a leader's behavior is correctly directed in connection with follower readiness, there is a good chance that both the leader and the follower can be as successful as possible in completing the task at hand.

Team Building

Team Building: An OD Technique

Team building is a widely used organizational development (OD) approach. The team building technique is designed to help teams operate more effectively.

Team building can be utilized in different ways. Here are some examples:

- Team building is widely used to help new and existing teams desiring to improve their effectiveness (i.e., a three-person medical team involving a doctor, nurse, and administrative person are brought together to form a team; they are then trained in team-development skills).

- Top executives can go through a development program, after which they complete the program with middle managers they supervise. The middle managers then go through the program with their supervisors, who in turn complete the program with their personnel. The agenda is adapted to meet the needs of the specific group being trained.

Action Research

Organizational development's stress on action research is probably most apparent in team building. **Action research** is the process of collecting data from organizational employees about a system needing change. The data is then fed back to the personnel so they can review and analyze it, identify problems, come up with solutions, and then follow up with action.

Team Building and the Change Agent

The **change agent** is someone who helps facilitate change in an organization. This agent can be found by the organization either internally (i.e., a manager) or externally (i.e., a consultant).

The Change Agent's Responsibilities

The external change agent has the following general responsibilities:

- Meet first with the team manager to review the importance of the team-building program; in this meeting, the change agent and manager discuss the program's goals, and the manager expresses his level of willingness to have his or her practices evaluated by team members.

- The change agent and manager then meet with all team members to establish rapport; they then review the agenda, goals, and activities of the team-building program.

- Confidential interviews and/or survey feedback questionnaires may be used to help identify group problems.

- A team-building program may take a single day or several days to complete, depending on group size and the number of issues to be addressed.

Team Building Goals

The following goals may be used by change agents and groups in the team-building process (team goals will vary depending on the group's situation and needs and the change agent's skills):

- Team objectives are identified and clarified.

- Responsibilities of individual team members are reviewed.

- Problems and road blocks to the reaching of team goals are identified.

- The preferred teamwork style is discussed; a change in style, if needed, is determined.

- Team management skills are discussed and developed (including decision-making, problem-solving, planning, and objective-setting).

● Team culture attributes are identified; the development of relationships based on trust, honesty, openness, and understanding among team members is pursued.

Team Building Agenda

After the identification of team-building goals takes place, an agenda is developed. Typical team building agenda topics include the following:

● **Climate development**. The consultant or change agent begins by developing a climate of trust and support. The program's purposes and objectives are also discussed.

● **Process and structure evaluation**. The team evaluates the strengths and weaknesses of its process. Ideal team norms are discussed and selected.

● **Problem identification**. Team strengths and weaknesses are next reviewed. The team reviews areas of improvement that were revealed in interviews and feedback instruments. The team lists improvement areas. It then ranks and prioritizes them based on how team improvement can be improved the most.

● **Problem solving**. The team first develops a solution for the first priority item on the list. It then moves to the second, third, fourth priority items, and so forth.

● **Team training**. Team building frequently includes specific training designed to deal with the problems and challenges facing the team.

● **Adjournment**. At the program's end, a summary of accomplishments is reviewed, after which responsibilities are assigned for follow-up activities. A commitment to team development is made by team members.

The Manager's Role in Teamwork

We'll now look at team building from a management perspective.

The following managerial components are important to team building:

● Development of consideration
● Development of structure

Consideration

In team building, a climate of **consideration** involving mutual trust, respect, and consideration for the feelings of team members is important. Use of consideration builds the foundation for relationships where this is effective communication and understanding.

Consideration, the equivalent of concern for people on the Leadership Grid, helps build rapport with

- Peers
- Superiors
- Employees

Consideration is also critical to the success of any personal or working relationship.

Interpersonal consideration involves utilization of the following:

- Establish an open communication channel and climate.
- Create conditions favorable to frequent individual and team success.
- Recognize achievements and accomplishments.
- Provide individualized supervision.

Structure

Structure involves the interpersonal skills that facilitate the definition of goals and provision of feedback needed within the team. It is the equivalent of concern for production on the Leadership Grid. With structure, team members know what is needed in addition to knowing deadlines and other job process specifics.

The following are suggestions for improving structure skills:

- Provide a clear definition of goals.
- Give pertinent feedback on a regular basis.
- Quickly handle poor performance issues.

An important note: Structure is a positive thing in teams; however, control that involves the dictating of what must be done on an ongoing basis does not facilitate productive team work.

The Non-Management Team Member's Role in Teamwork

We now consider the following issues in relation to **non-management team member roles in teamwork**:

- **Empowerment**
- **The team member role**
- **The non-management leadership role**
- **Relationship management**

Every team member should take an active role in helping the team reach its goals and accomplish its mission. Every team member ought to and should be a team builder.

Empowerment

Empowerment can improve effectiveness and efficiency in organizations. **Empowerment** provides ownership of a position to the position holder. It allows a team member to make decisions and have control over procedures and work conditions related to his or her activities on the team. Empowerment provides increased team member morale and improved productivity.

The Team Member Role

When an individual becomes a valued team member, he or she generally will want to continue receiving the respect and appreciation that comes from this acquired status. The following are suggestions relative to how an individual can effectively fulfill the team member role:

- Articulate, voice, and live strong beliefs.
- Come up with creative solutions to problems.
- Share ideas.
- Stay connected with the team; avoid participation in cliques and team subgroups.
- Build the team; avoid any activities that may sabotage team efforts.
- Be honest and open in communications with team members.

Relationship Management

The following are suggestions for the management of relationships:

- Develop good understanding with supervisors and team members.
- Assess strengths and apply them appropriately in work--especially in relation to team efforts.
- Take the time and effort to develop and maintain relationships with team members.

Creating Effective Teams

Teams are made up of members committed to a common goal and purpose. Teams set specific performance goals. Team members are accountable for team results. The emphasis on performance is what creates an effective team.

Here are some characteristics of good teams:

- Team members who like working in teams are selected.
- Team spirit is emphasized, in addition to positive social support.
- The team size is maintained at an appropriate level.
- Goals that are established are clear.
- Whole tasks are assigned, versus partial tasks.
- Tasks are treated with importance.
- Regular training and cross-training in the right areas are provided for team members.
- Urgent and demanding performance standards are established.
- Team members have the necessary competencies and skills.
- Team members put forth sufficient effort to achieve goals at acceptable quantity and quality levels.
- An atmosphere of trust is developed and nurtured.
- Team members spend a good amount of time working together.
- The team is unified and committed to its goals and objectives.
- Communication is open, clear, timely, and effective.
- Appropriate strategies are used to carry out efforts effectively.
- Team members are able to negotiate well.
- Team members are challenged with new information and perspectives.
- Leadership and coaching are provided in appropriate ways by team members.
- Immediate performance-oriented goals and tasks are regularly set.
- Positive feedback, recognition, and rewards are given liberally on a regular basis.
- Effective internal and external support is provided.
- Team behavioral rules are clear.

Team leaders can dramatically impact team effectiveness. Here are some suggestions made by specialists Robbins and Hunsaker regarding the **creation of effective teams**:

- Establish a common goal or purpose to which team members can aspire.
- Provide and maintain a mix of team member personalities and competencies.
- Assess strengths and weaknesses of the team.
- Develop specific individual goals.
- Obtain consensus on the goal achievement approach.
- Invite and encourage team member accountability and performance.
- Build the team through providing chances for large and small achievements.
- Nurture trust, openness, and honesty in the team.

Trust is developed by team leaders and members who

- Communicate
- Are predictable
- Are supportive
- Are fair
- Show necessary competence

Here are some additional factors related to the creation of effective teams:

- Develop appropriate organizational support so that the necessary resources and support are available to the team.

- Develop proper group structures, including clearly-defined tasks and objectives, appropriate group size and composition, etc.

- Acquire needed consultation and coaching for goal attainment, conflict resolution, team work coordination, etc.

Development and Management of Effective Teams

Management must provide the following support mechanisms to help bring about proper team functioning in organizations:

- Philosophy encouraging teams and teamwork

- Flat organizational structure

- Procedure, information, and incentive systems that allow teams to flourish

- Policies that encourage fair treatment and employment stability

- Use of a competency-based approach to work at all levels (the approach must encompass all functions and tasks)

Managing Teams

We can look at managing teams from the perspective of the management process:

- **Planning**
- **Organizing**
- **Leading**
- **Controlling**

Planning: In team management, the following concepts are important relative to the planning function:

- Carefully set appropriate team goals.

- All team members need to clearly understand goals (have the team members write down their understanding of the goals, if there is any question with regard to their understanding; then check their responses to determine where any misconceptions may exist).

Organizing: Organize tasks to be sure structural and authority issues are clarified.

- Determine leadership factors.
- Understand factors related to and limits of authority.

- Establish effective and efficient work methods, systems, and strategies.

- Outline who will be responsible for tasks, including how and when assignments will be accomplished.

Organizing tasks involved with managing a team include clarification of authority and structural issues. The following team structure issues must be addressed:

Leading: Important issues in leading that a team must address include, among others, what role the leader will play, how conflict will be handled, and what communication processes will be used.

Controlling: Important control issues relative to team management include team performance evaluation and the type of rewards to be used.

Team Rewards

Team Group and Individual Performance Evaluations

Group incentive plans are being used in connection with teams.

The following are some incentive approaches used by organizations:

- **Gainsharing plan** (an incentive plan that shares rewards of the team's efforts with all team members).
- Team incentive systems
- One-time bonuses
- Employee recognition programs
- Informal recognition

Interpersonal Skills Used in Team Management

The following issues should be considered by individuals involved in team management:

- Establish an open, informal, nonthreatening atmosphere that encourages team member communication.
- Ask relevant and appropriate questions to stimulate ideas and discussion.
- Listen carefully to team members' concerns and ideas.
- Use the consensus approach in reaching team decisions on important issues and matters.
- Encourage team member participation in discussions.
- Involve team members in goal setting.
- Establish and implement guidelines to maximize productivity of time spent in meetings.
- Take time to acknowledge and celebrate team accomplishments.
- Use appropriate techniques to motivate team members (i.e., recognition, responsibility, etc.).
- Develop respect among team members.
- Sincerely demonstrate to team members that their contributions are important and valued.

Improving Group and Team Effectiveness

Before we can improve team effectiveness, we must first assess how well the team is performing.

Richard Hackman, a foremost expert on group effectiveness, has suggested three factors to consider in the team performance analysis process:

1. Determine whether the group's outputs (decisions, services, or products) are valued by their customers (those who use or obtain them).

2. Consider if the members of the group are in a position to continue working cooperatively together.

3. Find out if team members are gaining satisfaction and growth from the team experience; also learn if they are feeling a sense of well-being in their team experience.

Teams and Total Quality Management (TQM)

TQM requires that managers provide team members encouragement to share their ideas. Managers also need to follow up on the suggestions made. Problem-solving teams are utilized to foster the sharing of ideas and facilitate the implementation of improvements that can be made as a result of employee suggestions.

A popular team application of total quality management is quality circles.

Quality circles are generally comprised of 6 to 12 persons (employees and supervisors) who are involved in sharing a responsibility. They do the following:

- Meet together regularly (usually once a week) at their place of employment during working hours to review problems relating to quality.

- Review quality problems.

- Determine reasons why the problems exist.

- Make recommendations to solve the problems being encountered.

- Take corrective action, as authority permits.

After evaluating quality circle feedback and recommendations, management normally makes final decisions with regard to problem solution implementation.

Factors Affecting Group Development and Performance

Every team has its issues and characteristics that impact the performance of both individual members and the overall team. The following issues are important considerations in this area:

- Structural issues
- Team norms
- Cohesion

Structural Issues

Consider the following with regard to team structure:

- **Team size**:

Social loafing (the act of individuals in large groups reducing their work effort).

Process costs (costs of team coordination increase as the team becomes larger).

- **Team make up** (composition):

Homogeneous (very similar).

Heterogeneous (different; diverse).

Diversity in gender, age, ethnicity, etc., have an impact on teams satisfaction, commitment, and member roles. Communication inside and outside of the group is also affected.

- Other issues:

Differentiated roles: Different members have varied roles on teams. Their various positions are connected with expected behaviors for those positions.

Status: Individuals have various levels of standing or prestige in a group that are determined by various factors including seniority, unique skills, or perceived leadership qualities.

Differentiated status: There are different levels of rank and status found among members of groups, in addition to different roles.

Role ambiguity: If behaviors are not clearly defined, role ambiguity takes place.

Role conflict: A situation in which a member of a group faces two or more opposing sets of expectation.

Team Norms

Team norms are standards set by the team affecting and guiding team member behavior.

Norm Characteristics

Norms:

- Are established to address important team issues and concerns

● Are expected by the team to be followed when they relate to key team issues

● May not be as critical to be followed to the letter when they relate to low priority team concerns

● May not apply to all team members (depending on member roles, etc.)

● Vary in degree of their acceptance by team members

Norm Development

The following are important factors influencing team and group norm development:

● Originally-formed team behaviors (established at the team's onset or creation)

● Behaviors team members bring with them from other or former teams

● **Critical events** (times when something important happens, creating expectations for team member responses in the future)

● Stated team standards (statements and expectations made about how things must be done by team members)

Team Norm Effects

Team norms are designed to obtain conformity by team members. Members may choose to conform to norms or deviate from them. The following are considerations to take into account in this regard:

● Team size: Pressures to conform to team norms increase up to a certain number of team members. After that point, team size has little bearing.

● **Degree of team agreement**: When a team agrees strongly on any norm, there is greater amount of pressure on individuals to conform.

● **Situation ambiguity**: When a situation is very ambiguous, individual team members turn to the group to assist them in deciding on their behavior.

● **Team identification**: When individuals see themselves as part of a group, they are more likely to conform to its norms.

● Past team success: A team that is perceived as successful will have members that are more likely to conform to its norms.

Cohesion

Team **cohesion** is strong when members are motivated to continue with the team. Cohesion is generally sought after and seen as advantageous.

Research has shown that the following factors can be important in the development of team cohesion:

- Strong competition with other teams
- Past success and high team performance
- Interpersonal attraction of team members

Team cohesiveness can have possible advantages, including the following:

- There is an increase in the quality and quantity of team interaction.

- There is a tendency for greater team member satisfaction.

- The team is more likely to achieve goals that are acceptable to team members.

- There is added team influence on team members to conform to standards and norms.

On the other hand, there are potential disadvantages to team cohesion, including:

- Very cohesive teams with members not following group norms may have problems effectively handling these situations.

- Highly cohesive teams have a tendency toward group-think (team members withholding divergent views from the team in order to appear in agreement).

- Teams with goals different than those of the overall organization can present a problem to the overall entity.

- Cooperation between interdependent teams can be stifled by highly cohesive teams.

Objectives: In this chapter, the student will review the following concepts:

1. Leadership and its primary elements
2. Primary leadership theories
3. Leadership and its impact on teams and team processes
4. Effective leadership
5. Contemporary leadership issues

Introduction

Leadership is a key to the success of teams. It is provided by both formal and informal leaders. As individuals utilize effective leadership principles, they experience personal growth and add to overall organizational effectiveness.

Leadership Defined

Leadership is the attempt of one individual to influence the behavior of another individual or group. Leadership does not involve coercion or force, which sets it apart from other ways of influencing individuals or groups such as the use of authority or power. Leadership involves three skill areas:

- Situation diagnosis
- Adaptation of one's behavior and resources to meet the needs of the situation
- Communicating with others in an understandable and convincing manner

In other words, a leader requires excellent critical thinking skills, which means that he or she must:

- Carefully review each situation
- Determine the core values and assumptions motivating those involved in the situation
- Appraise and evaluate all evidence in the situation
- Cognitively relate leadership theory to the situation, develop a plan, and then put the plan into action

Leadership skills can also be evaluated from the following three perspectives:

- **Interpersonal**: Possession of empathic, persuasive, and other positive interpersonal qualities

- **Conceptual**: Ability to analyze, think logically, and use other mental aptitudes

- **Technical**: Attainment of specialized information or knowledge and an understanding of how it should be applied to meet the needs at hand

Leadership is needed in organizations in order to:

- Help bring about a change of environmental conditions

- Assist in the motivation of human behavior toward the accomplishment of organizational goals

- Promote and facilitate the satisfaction and goal attainment of organizational personnel

- Facilitate the conflict management process

- Aid in the coordination of diverse organizational units

Strategic Leadership

Strategic leadership is needed at all levels of an organization and in all of an entity's functional areas in order for a business to implement its overall corporate strategies.

Strategic leadership:

- Defines an organization's direction

- Develops an entity's direction

- Communicates a business's vision of the future

- Involves both internal operations and the environment outside of an organization

- Deals with complexity, ambiguity, and volumes of information

- Requires the integration of multiple functional areas

- Motivates organization members toward the accomplishment of strategic goals and objectives

Not only is organizational effectiveness enhanced by strategic leadership, but it is also affected by factors outside the control of the business such as micro- and macroeconomic conditions, governmental regulations and policies, international situations, and technological advances.

The Management Hierarchy and Leadership

Management and leadership are not necessarily synonymous terms. Leadership is a more encompassing term than management. In management, organizational goals are the most important issue. In leadership, the goals of the leader, whether they conform to organizational goals or not, are the key issue.

When considering leadership in relation to the management hierarchy, we find that management individuals have a primary responsibility or focus based on the organizational level in which the individual is involved.

Leadership Focus

Leadership should be provided by management in the following focus areas:

- Policy formulation and the beginning of organizational structural change

- Providing supplements to and completing existing structures that need further development to be more effective.

- Administration of the organization to keep it moving forward in the right direction

Now let's look at these considerations from a hierarchical perspective.

- Top-level management provides overall organizational direction and policies.

- Mid-level management deals with subsystem decisions and activities.

- Lower-level management sees to the carrying out of everyday operations in one organizational area or group.

Elements of Leadership

The following elements are tied to the use of leadership:

- Power
- Leadership traits

The expansion of a leader's power base enhances his or her organizational influence.

Leadership traits include

- **Drive** (the leader has initiative, energy, and ambition)

● **Integrity and honesty** (the leader is trustworthy, open, and candid)

● **Self-confidence** (the leader has optimism about achieving goals and overcoming problems and obstacles)

● **Emotional maturity** (the leader is nondefensive, even tempered, and has an ability to remain calm in stressful situations)

● **Desire to lead** (the leader possesses zeal and motivation to provide direction)

● **Knowledge** (the leader has a good understanding or comprehension of things in general--and specifically with regard to the business or organization in which the leader operates)

Ralph Stogdill's trait theory of leadership indicates that successful leaders usually:

● Are taller than followers
● Are intelligent, insightful, and verbally fluent
● Have initiative, energy, and ambition

Stogdill found that the attributes of a successful leader varied based on the situation involved. He did not find a connection between leadership success and traits such as extroversion or emotional stability.

Leaders also have the **ability to inspire a vision** in organizational members that elicits a positive, emotional response within them. In order to accomplish this, a leader should:

● Persuasively communicate a shared vision.

● Think like a leader (use the three-step leadership process and apply sound behavioral science principles).

● Acquire sound judgment (based on knowledge, unbiased judgment, intuition, creativity, and careful timing).

● Select a leadership style appropriate to the situation.

● Develop effective leadership traits and make the most of innate personal leadership traits.

● Use leadership skills.

All leaders have their own way of leading. Some are ostentatious or eccentric, while others are quiet and reflective.

University of Michigan researchers have created a leadership continuum. Three main leadership roles have been identified in connection with this continuum:

- **Close supervision**: A leadership style that includes close supervision wherein the leader checks subordinate work to be sure it adheres to standards.

- **General supervision**: A standard leadership style falling in the middle of the leadership continuum between close and laissez-faire leadership.

- **Laissez-faire supervision**: A style involving little or no subordinate supervision.

General leadership styles include the following:

- Employee oriented
- Participative
- Job centered
- Autocratic

Additional details and approaches to leadership style will be discussed later in our review of leadership theory.

Leaders may:

- **Provide consideration** (people behaviors such as helping subordinates, friendliness, concern for others, and supplying recognition for personnel--also known as employee-centered leadership or socio-emotional orientation)

or

- **Initiate structure** (task behaviors such as putting rules and procedures in place, seeing that performance standards are maintained, and providing clear-cut role delineation between supervisors and subordinates)

Leaders and managers also may:

- Be participative with their employees in organizations

or

- Utilize autocratic leadership approaches to attain their goals

Experts Vroom, Jago, and Yetton have created the leader-participation model that enables leaders to determine if they should use a participatory management style. In the leader-participation model:

- First, the leader has a set of management decision styles he or she can use.

- Second, the manager needs to use a set of questions to diagnose the situation.

- Finally, a decision tree is utilized to tell how much participation should be used under the circumstances.

The Decision Tree

The decision tree is a chart that helps the manager determine how much participation should be used in a situation. Starting on the left-hand-side of the chart, the manager is asked whether or not there is a quality requirement that would make one selection more rational than another. The manager then selects *Yes* or *No* and then follows the tree to the next step where another question is given. The leader continues to respond *Yes* or *No* to each question on the tree until he or she reaches the last question on the branch that has developed during the process. At the end of each branch is the end of the reasoning for that branch or a reference to one of five leadership decision styles that should be used in the situation.

Decision Tree

			Yes........Style
		Yes............Next Ques.	
	Yes ....Next Ques.		No
Quality Req.}		No	
			Yes.........Style
	No...........Next Ques.	Yes............Next Ques.	
		No	No

The main **leadership decision styles** are:

I. Make the decision or solve the problem yourself using information available to you.

II. Obtain data from subordinates, then make the decision.

III. Share the problem individually with selected subordinates and get their ideas and suggestions. Make the decision yourself with or without the influence of subordinates.

IV. Share the problem with subordinates in a group setting. Get their suggestions. Make the decision yourself with or without subordinate influence.

V. Share the problem with subordinates in a group. Come up with a solution together. Allow the group to make the decision, and be willing to abide by the decision, even if you don't agree with it.

A leader should consider the following attributes when determining how much participation is needed in a given situation:

- How important is the quality of the decision?

- Is sufficient information and expertise available to make a quality decision?

● How structured is the problem?

● How important is it that subordinates have commitment to or accept the decision and its implementation?

● Will the group accept the decision if the leader makes it on his or her own?

● How important is it that subordinates be motivated to attain goals connected with the problem situation?

● How much conflict will be created among subordinates should a given decision be made?

Leadership and Power

We'll now spend a short time examining the area of leadership and power. More data regarding this subject will also be discussed in the advanced administration topic addressing *increasing influence*.

Power is the ability of an individual to influence other persons' behavior. When individuals climb the organizational ladder, they become more dependent on others to help them accomplish their goals. There are different types of power and various ways in which people use power to obtain their objectives.

Types of Power

The following are the main **types of power** utilized by individuals in organizations:

● **Personal power** (based on individual characteristics)

● **Position power** (based on one's position or status in an organization)

● **Reward power** (based on rewards one can provide another)

● **Coercive power** (based on force or control one individual can place on another)

● **Expert power** (based on special knowledge possessed by an individual)

● **Legitimate power** (based on role, position, or other attributes that give legitimacy to the power holder)

● **Referent power** (based on one's referring to or identifying with another individual)

Use of Power

The following are issues that should be considered by leaders and managers relative to the **use of power**:

- The type of power to be used
- The amount of power to use in a specific situation
- Influence tactics that may be appropriately used
- Whether or not power should be shared with others

Empowerment is the sharing of power with others. More on this concept is discussed elsewhere in this program.

The control of others' behavior only through formal authority has its limitations. In addition, sometimes leaders become dependent on individuals over which they have no authority (for example, a corporate CEO has no authority over a board of directors).

Behaviors used to influence the actions of others are described as tactics. The following are some influence tactics used by leaders:

- **Persuasion** (use of arguments and facts to get others to come around to your point of view and do what is requested)

- **Exchange** (offer to do something for someone in exchange for something in return right away or at a future time)

- **Appeals** (both personal and inspirational; request for assistance by use of appeal to aspirations or ideas of another individual; or, appealing to friendship and loyalty of another person)

- **Pressure** (use of demands or threats or constantly checking up on someone to influence another's behavior)

- **Ingratiation** (use of flattery or praise to get someone to do something)

- **Coalition approach** (finding a third party individual to help influence the targeted party)

- **Legitimization** (making something legitimate or authoritative in order to get another to become involved or help out)

- **Consultation** (involving others to help in development of an activity or strategy in which their support is needed)

Leadership Theory

We'll now take a look at the following leadership theories:

- Contingency Situational Leadership Theory
- Situational Leadership
- Transformational and Transactional Leadership
- Path-Goal Leadership
- Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory
- Vertical Dyad Linkage Leadership Model
- One Minute Management
- The Attribution Theory of Leadership
- Visionary Leadership
- Leadership Substitutes

Contingency Leadership Theory

Fred Fiedler's **contingency theory of leadership** involves styles and the amount of control one uses in a leadership situation. While taking into account both high or low relationship behavior and high or low task behavior, the following four leadership styles are used in this approach:

- **Selling** (leaders use this style when followers are not able but willing to do the task at hand)

- **Telling** (this style of leadership may be utilized when followers are unable and unwilling to do something or when they have a willingness to do the task but they do not how to accomplish it)

- **Participating** (this approach is used when followers have the ability to accomplish the task but are not willing to do the work or they need emotional support)

- **Delegating** (this approach works best when followers want to do the job but they need help in the task's accomplishment)

Situational control (whether or not the leader or the followers have more control over work situations) involves the following:

- Clarity of roles and tasks or goals assigned
- Relations between the leader and the followers involved
- Power held by leader (and the ability to provide rewards or punishments)

Fiedler's model also takes into account whether or not leaders are

● Task oriented
or
● Relationship oriented

In situational leadership, one must also account for the readiness level possessed by followers with regard to the goal, task, or objective involved in the situation.

Follower readiness is determined by the follower's degree of willingness (commitment or motivation) or ability (knowledge or skill) to accomplish a goal or do the task at hand.

Followers may be:

- **Unable and unwilling** (leaders should use the telling approach with these individuals)

- **Unable and willing** (leaders should use the selling approach with these followers)

- **Able and unwilling** (leaders should use the participating approach with these persons)

- **Able and willing** (leaders should use the delegating approach with these followers)

When followers are unable and unwilling, they:

- May not finish the work assigned
- Often complain or are defensive
- Procrastinate or avoid doing the task
- May try to get someone else to do the job
- Frequently do not complete the task in an acceptable manner
- May be unsure about what is to be done
- Possibly ask questions about what is to be done
- Are often late in accomplishing the assignment
- May do only the minimal amount of work necessary
- Might demonstrate a high level of frustration

Those who are unable and insecure in work to be done show slightly different behavior than those who are unable and unwilling to do work; they often:

- Act unclear or confused about the job to be done
- Are afraid of failure
- Show discomfort about what they are to do

Leaders should use the following approaches when dealing with persons who are unable and unwilling (they use the telling leadership style):

- Define the follower's role clearly.
- Give the follower specifics regarding what is to be done.
- Provide close supervision and accountability.
- Break up instructions into bite-sized or incremental pieces.
- Keep instructions simple.

Leaders should do this by guiding, directing, and telling instead of being dominating, demanding, or threatening in their approach.

Effective leaders who use the telling approach:

- Should state facts in a specific manner.
- Provide positive reinforcement when small improvements are noted.
- Try not to overwhelm the follower.
- Minimize the follower's fear of mistakes.
- Give needed help each step along the way.

Followers who are unable and willing frequently:

- Are excited to learn how to accomplish the task
- Are open and receptive to input and directions
- Pay attention and show enthusiasm about what they are to do
- Are interested about what is to be accomplished
- Desire to have the task clarified

Leaders should use the following approaches when dealing with persons who are unable and unwilling (they use the selling leadership style):

- Give details with regard to the task or objective.
- Explain the role of the follower.
- Provide for a two-way discussion to take place.
- Explain decisions made and provide clarifications, as needed.

Leaders should do this by explaining, selling, and persuading. They should not be manipulate, defensive, or preachy to followers.

Effective leaders who use the selling approach:

- Solicit questions from followers.
- Give solid explanations.
- Verify that the follower understands what is to be done.
- Seek follower support through persuasion.
- Provide step-by-step details with an emphasis on how to accomplish the task.

Followers who are able and unwilling may:

- Show that they have skill in needed areas
- Demonstrate hesitance to complete the task or work alone
- Desire feedback and leader involvement constantly
- Want to be reinforced regularly
- Have a feeling that they are overworked
- Show resistance or hesitance
- Focus on problems and question their own competence

Leaders should use the following approaches when dealing with persons who are able and unwilling (they use the participating leadership style):

- Build and praise followers.
- Request input from followers.
- Nurture two-way communications--and especially listen actively.
- Allow followers to make decisions.
- Where appropriate, be complimentary of follower efforts.

Leaders should do this by encouraging and supporting followers and allowing them to participate in task development and follow-through processes. Leaders should not be condescending or patronizing to followers.

Effective leaders who use the participating approach:

- Focus on results.
- Share decision-making with followers.
- Support and encourage followers.
- Help build follower commitment.
- Freely provide needed information to follower.

Followers who are able and willing generally:

- Can work on their own
- Will accomplish the work at high quality levels
- Keep the leader updated regularly on the job's progress
- Are results-oriented
- Utilize available resources in an efficient manner
- Show a willingness to assist others
- Finish work on time or ahead of schedule
- Are often creative and share their ideas

Leaders should use the following approaches when dealing with persons who are able and willing (they use the delegating leadership style):

- Provide light supervision.
- Delegate tasks.
- Be accessible to followers.
- Show the big picture to followers.
- Reinforce follower results.

Leaders should do this by assigning, delegating, and being aware and attentive of follower activities. They should not withdraw from, avoid, or dump assignments on followers.

Effective leaders who use the delegating approach:

- Provide needed resources.
- Delegate activities.
- Encourage followers to lead the communication process.
- Receive and listen to follower updates.
- Allow followers to have autonomy.
- Cultivate an environment conducive to follower risk taking.

Determining The Appropriate Leadership Style

A leader determines the **appropriate leadership style** to use after carefully considering and assessing the following factors:

- **Task(s) or objective(s) to be accomplished**

and

- **The individual or group readiness level**

The leader then determines action to be taken, takes the action, assesses the results, and determines if any follow-up is needed.

The Center for Leadership Studies has developed two readiness scale instruments that are used to help measure readiness:

- The manager rating scale
- The staff rating scale

Ability and willingness are measured in relation to various behavioral dimensions utilizing perceptions of both managers and staff members.

The **task behaviors** considered include:

- Goals to be accomplished
- Organization to be accomplished to facilitate work completion
- Time line establishment
- Specific directions for the work's accomplishment
- Job progress reporting

The **relationship behaviors** involved are:

- Communication
- Support
- Interpersonal interaction facilitation
- Active listening
- Feedback

Situational Leadership

Hersey and Blanchard have developed a **situational leadership model** that includes four leadership styles matching subordinate maturity level with given situations. The four styles include:

- **Autocratic** (the leader tells the follower what to do and closely oversees performance)
- **Consultative** (the leader sells the follower on what needs to be done and oversees the job at major stages; employee input may be considered)
- **Participative** (the leader obtains the participation of the follower and provides little direction or support; a small amount of time is put into overseeing the work done; decisions are made by both the leader and the follower, with the final word being made by the leader)
- **Laissez-faire** (the leader allows the follower to do the work with little input or support)

Transformational and Transactional Leadership

Leadership is also described by some management experts from a vantage point of transactions that take place between supervisors and subordinates or leaders and followers. Three elements are required in the **transactional approach**.

The ***locus of leadership*** is the intersection, or meeting point, of the following three factors involved in a leadership transaction:

- **Leader**
- **Follower(s)**
- **The situation**

Every leader, follower, and situation is unique and has its own special attributes. Leaders and followers have their own personalities, competencies, motivations, understandings, and expectations. All situations also have special factors.

Transactional leadership involves use of the authority of one's office to reward subordinate efforts. Transactional leaders guide followers in the direction of set goals. They also clarify task and role issues and requirements.

Transformational (or charismatic) leadership, on the other hand, involves leadership through providing a vision or mission for organizational members to work toward. Transformational leaders motivate followers to lengthen their stride, stretch, and grow. They are charismatic individuals who consider the needs of each follower and work to stimulate each team member's intellect.

Transformational leaders possess the following characteristics:

- Self confidence
- Creativity in the use of unconventional strategies
- Ability to clearly communicate a vision
- Willingness to take risks
- Perception of themselves as a change agent
- Belief in their own ideas
- Strong need for power

Researchers Tichy and Devanna have suggested that there are three stages in the **transformational leadership process**:

1. The need for change is recognized.
2. A shared vision is created and communicated.
3. The change is institutionalized.

Transformational leaders are especially likely to:

- Try to influence others' impressions
- Put an emphasis on values, ideals, and goals
- Model desired behavior
- Communicate great expectations to followers regarding performance
- Make sacrifices for the organization
- Be innovative or unorthodox in their approach or actions

Path-Goal Leadership

The **expectancy theory of motivation** is the basis on which **path-goal leadership** was developed. The expectancy (valence) theory states that a person's motivation to do something:

- Is based on one's desire to do something
- Depends on whether or not he or she can accomplish what must be done

If the path to goal attainment is kept as easy to follow as possible, and if rewards are provided for individuals or groups working toward the attainment of goals, the chance that the goal will be reached increases.

The path-goal theory of leadership requires that leader behavior:

- Be satisfying and positive to subordinates
- Be motivating and provide needed guidance, support, and rewards

Followers need to have a positive degree of job satisfaction in order for the path-goal model of leadership to be most successful.

Leaders who desire to increase follower motivation:

- Clarify what is expected of followers

- Clarify the path and reduce and minimize obstacles to the reaching of goals and objectives

- Increase opportunities for follower satisfaction through their successful performance and reaching of goals

- Provide effective rewards for successful goal attainment

- Give direction and coaching to followers

The path-goal leadership theory incorporates four leadership styles:

- **Directive**: A style that involves the leader letting followers know what is expected of them.

- **Supportive**: A style in which leaders treat followers as equals.

- **Participative**: A style involving leader involvement of followers; the leader consults with followers for their ideas and suggestions before making decisions.

- **Achievement-oriented**: A style used by the leader wherein he or she sets high goals and expects followers to perform well and continuously improve.

Situational or contingency variables involved in the path-goal theory include:

- **Follower individual characteristics** (including personal abilities, traits and characteristics; degree of receptivity to the leader's style; and the amount of control individuals perceive they have over their ability to be rewarded for their efforts)

  and

- **Demands and pressures of the workplace and environment** that impact job satisfaction and goal attainment (including the nature of work to be performed, organizational authority, and the follower's work group)

The **Leader-Member Exchange** (**LMX**) Theory states that a leader may have one primary leadership style, but he or she may use various styles with different group members. This is the case because of variances in leader and follower needs, varying situational factors, and different relationships held between leaders and followers.

Vertical Dyad Linkage Leadership Model

George Graen developed the **Vertical Dyad Linkage leadership theory**. The term *vertical* denotes upward and downward relationships. The term *dyad* refers to the one-on-one aspect of the leader-follower relationship. *Linkage* refers to the connection between the leader and followers.

The Vertical Dyad Linkage theory states that leader behavior is not consistent among followers. Leaders tend to develop ties with some individuals, while at the same time allowing distance to grow between themselves and other followers. A leader who may be considerate and somewhat unstructured with one follower may be rigid and structured with another. The relationships between leader and follower can create in-group and out-group statuses, affecting job satisfaction and performance of those involved.

One Minute Management

One minute management concepts have been developed by Kenneth Blanchard and associates in response to ways of handling situational leadership. The idea behind the one minute manager is that leaders should take an extra minute of time to be sure that their focus is on what will have the greatest impact in the positive motivation of followers toward performance and goal achievement.

Essentially, one minute management covers aspects of two main leadership areas:

- Goal setting
- Leadership communication with followers or subordinates

One Minute Goal Setting

Goals must first be clarified: Both leaders and followers should know what must be done and the standards by which their actions or activities will be evaluated.

Goals must be limited in number: Paul Hersey, Kenneth Blanchard, and Dewey Johnson have recommended the following step-by-step process to the limiting of the number of goals an individual should have:

1. The individual should itemize the key activities to be done for the following three to six months.

2. Priorities should be set; activities should be ranked by order of importance with dates set for goal accomplishment.

3. Some sort of measure needs to be established to enable the individual to tell how well he or she is progressing toward goal attainment so that changes or improvement can be made should things get off track.

4. Performance standards, including minimum, average, and outstanding performance levels, should be set. This includes quantity, quality, time, and cost factors.

5. Incentives need to be established to provide rewards and benefits for goal accomplishment.

6. Consideration needs to be given to those issues or obstacles that may prevent or retard goal achievement.

7. Specific steps or activities needed to attain the goal should be specified.

8. Appreciation and recognition needs to be shown during the goal-attainment process and after an objective has been reached.

9. When things don't go as planned, it may be necessary for the follower to be reprimanded, especially if the person has the ability to accomplish the task but he or he does not get it done. If the person needs additional training or assistance, this should be provided. Then the process of setting goals and action steps should be revisited, and the individual should make another attempt to accomplish the goal.

One Minute Communications

Different communication forms have been given special consideration by Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson, including:

- **One minute praising**
- **One minute reprimands**
- **One minute apologies**
- **And other one minute management considerations**

Time must be taken for praising followers. In **one minute praising**, the leader must:

- Be specific about what is being praised.
- Act in a timely manner --provide the praise soon after the positive behavior takes place.
- State the compliment in terms of the leader's feelings.

Also, when leaders are close to followers, praising is made more effective.

One minute reprimands involve leaders reprimanding behaviors of followers instead of the followers themselves. The leader shares his or her feelings about what was done or not done by the follower involved. Reprimands are:

- Done soon after the problem behavior or activity occurs
- Stated in specific terms

At the end of the reprimand, the leader should reaffirm the individual involved.

In **one minute apologies**, individuals making the apology should:

- Reprimand as soon as possible after the event has occurred.
- Use specific language.
- Express the apology in terms of feelings.

The person offering the apology should then reaffirm himself or herself and then move forward productively.

Other communication issues covered in one minute management include the

- Need to compliment and build up others

- Importance of listening to others and hearing out what they are saying

- Necessity of speaking in terms of specifics versus talking in general terms

- Significance of improving and building upon interpersonal skills and understanding that people want to have power shared with them, they don't want to be controlled by it)

A couple other leadership theories include the *attribution theory of leadership* and *visionary leadership*.

The **attribution theory of leadership** states that leadership is simply an attribution that people make about leaders.

Visionary leadership is the ability to create and communicate a credible and inviting vision of the future growing out of or improving on the present.

Leadership Substitutes

Sometimes approaches other than leadership can take the place of either good or bad leadership. For example, consider the following **leadership substitutes**:

- Being professionally oriented
- Having training, experience, or ability
- Being involved in a project or task that is naturally satisfying
- Volunteering or working in an advisory or support position
- Working in a synergistic, positive-oriented group or team

Also, when leaders do the following, they can reduce the need to provide special leadership by:

- Selecting the right people for the job
- Arranging or organizing the task correctly in the first place

Leadership and Teams

No single person can lead a complex organization on his or her own. But entities rely on the leadership of managers and individuals at all organizational levels.

Leadership is essential to the maximization of team efforts. Teams are formal work groups designed to help reach organizational goals. Teams are made up of individuals who have desires and goals independent of organizational goals. Teams are typically interdependent--in other words, they depend on other individuals, groups, or teams to help them accomplish their specific objectives.

Team leadership skills are critical to the success of teams and organizations because:

- Teams are the backbone of organizations, and the performance of each team affects the performance of the overall entity.

- Teams are utilized a great deal as a major means of increasing productivity.

- Leadership decision making involving team participation brings about better results and increased team member commitment to team goal accomplishment.

- Managers spend so much of their time in one form of team activity or another (up to 90 percent), and team facilitation activities become more important with the use of self-directed teams in organizations.

- Changing workplace demographics requires leadership to manage diversity in today's businesses and organizations.

Also, because managers are rated more and more based on team performance versus individual efforts only, today's team leader or manager will want to be an effective leader not only to help the team be successful, but also to help them obtain the rewards that come from involvement with a successful team.

Team Leadership Applied to Team Development Stages

We've discussed the team development stages as researched and developed by R. B. Lacoursiere. Hersey and Blanchard's Situational leadership can also be applied to **team development stages**, as follows:

- In team development stage 1, **orientation**, the leader or supervisor uses the autocratic supervisory style that includes a high emphasis on tasks and a low emphasis on supervisory functions. The leader works to help the team develop its abilities.

- In team development stage 2, **dissatisfaction**, the leader uses the consultative style that involves a high emphasis on team tasks and a high emphasis on supportive maintenance behavior. After individual roles are clarified, team dissatisfaction sets in, and the manager needs to encourage team members to work toward goals. Individual team member needs must be met during the process of team development, in addition to the necessity for continued growth of team competency.

- During team development stage 3, **resolution**, the leader utilizes the participatory style that uses low task behavior and high supportive maintenance behavior. When team members know what to do and how to do it correctly, they can be allowed to provide input and accomplish their work with little supervision.

If dysfunctional conflict arises or team members begin to lose interest or enthusiasm, it is especially important that the leader focuses on relationship maintenance behavior to help the team move forward. If the leader continues to focus on tasks at this point, the team may become dissatisfied and problems may ensue.

Team motivation and development, in addition to the maintenance of human relations in the team process, is a continuing effort. Team member competence is increased as individuals are allowed to be involved in making decisions relative to their work and grow in their commitment to the team effort.

- In team development stage 4, **production**, the leader will back off and use a laissez-faire style involving low task and low supportive maintenance functions. The leader will become involved if a problem arises.

Behavioral Challenges Encountered by Team Leaders

Team efforts can run into a snag now and then. Productivity can suffer when intra-group member attraction, proximity, and desirable goals are not present. Group-think causes special challenges, in addition to power struggles that may take place among team members.

Team Problem Symptoms

The following are symptoms that indicate to leaders and team members that troubled waters are brewing for the team:

- Personal criticism is present.
- Communication is guarded.
- Meetings aren't working right.
- Commitment level ebbs.
- Disagreement is never shown.
- Team goals are unclear.
- Dysfunctional conflict exists.

On the other hand, solid goals, commitment, team size and mix, and mutual team member accountability can enhance team productivity.

Teams are also helped or hindered by behaviors and roles played by team members. We'll talk more about these roles when we discuss group problem solving processes.

Managing Interteam Behavior and Performance

Leaders who wish to help manage interteam behavior and performance should consider the following techniques:

- Implement rules and procedures that will help two or more teams interact more effectively.
- Transfer a team member from one team to another to give him or her an opportunity to understand challenges first-hand.
- Place appropriate individuals in linking roles where they can help coordinate activities of two or more teams.
- Create task forces allowing individuals from more than one team to work together to accomplish mutual activities or solve problems.
- Disconnect or decouple physical or administrative team connections in order to continue to reach organizational goals while minimizing team interactions (this approach should be used only in cases where teams do not work well together).

Leadership Effectiveness

Effective leaders know their ABC's, which, according to Blanchard and Lorber, stand for

- **Activators** (those things that need to be done before good performance can be delivered)
- **Behaviors** (the desired performance)
- **Consequences** (what follows the desired performance)

Robert Lorber and his associates also developed the PRICE system that focuses on productivity improvement:

● **P** (**Pinpoint** or identify key performance areas needing improvement)

● **R** (**Record** performance in that area)

● **I** (**Involve** others in the performance improvement process)

● **C** (**Coach** those needing assistance with the performance improvement process)

● **E** (**Evaluate** what has been done through the process; and set a future course of action, as needed)

It is important that the performance needing improvement can be measured in order for it to be properly evaluated. **Performance improvement measures** must be:

- Understandable
- Reliable
- Unbiased
- Reflective of the smallest working unit's performance
- Stable and uniform

When performance is recorded, starting with a base line of data, it must be noted in an accurate way on an ongoing and consistent basis. Also, it's important to note productivity improvement efforts made.

Leading Effective Teams and Work Groups

The following factors influence **work team effectiveness**:

- Design (team make-up, norms, and arrangement)

- Task-related interpersonal processes (information and knowledge sharing, dysfunctional conflict reduction, and development of commitment)

- The environment (training, rewards, and task clarity)

- Team effort, skills, and task performance strategies

- Work-related technologies

Team effectiveness results in:

- Effective and productive output

- Satisfaction of individual team members

● Ability to continue working as a team toward the accomplishment of future goals

Leaders in teams can do the following to promote team effectiveness:

● Gain an increased awareness of team and group dynamics and motivations involved in team situations.

● Harness group cohesiveness through the use of rewards.

● Be sensitive to team norms that assist or hinder team performance.

● Understand how pressures for team members to conform can have positive and negative repercussions (i.e., team members following standard procedures versus being involved in spontaneous and innovative activities).

Increasing Leadership Effectiveness

Efforts to increase leadership effectiveness must be focused on changing the situation versus changing the team member involved. Here are some suggestions for **changing situations**:

● Change leader-member relations and activities (by spending more or less time with team members, transferring team members in or out of the team, or by obtaining more rewards for team member positive behaviors).

● Adjust the job or task structure (by making tasks more or less structured).

● Modify the position power (by either increasing use of powers or authority or by utilizing task delegation or inviting more task participation by team members).

Leader success can be improved by:

● Developing an organization that is engineered in such a way as to maximize and facilitate individual and team goal and task accomplishment

● Selecting the right people for the team

● Providing appropriate and sufficient leadership and skills training

● Furnishing timely and proper rewards for all team members

Key Leadership Traits

The following list of key **leadership traits**, when developed by team leaders, can enhance their leadership success:

- Have developed a sense of personal identity.
- Develop values that guide personal and professional behaviors.
- Be independent, responsible, and courageous.
- Be genuine and authentic.
- Create a vision.
- Simplify.
- Be trustworthy and trust team members and subordinates.
- Stay cool and calm.
- Make the environment conducive to risk taking and dissent.
- Gain expertise and knowledge in needed areas and competencies.
- Obtain broad experience.
- Develop personal self-confidence and find ways to help other team members do the same.
- Have personal integrity.
- Interact with others in an assertive and stable way.
- Possess or develop a sense of humor.
- Be self-objective and aware.
- Model effective leaders and self-develop leadership behaviors and traits.
- Develop personal charisma.

Here are some suggestions for personal charisma development:

- Smile often in a friendly and sincere manner.
- Think positively; personal thoughts precede actions.

- Genuinely make other people feel important.

- Become a master communicator.

- Take time for people--express yourself in a warm and compassionate way toward others.

- Be energetic and on the move (personal esteem, attitude, hygiene, exercise, rest, and diet can all contribute to developing this orientation).

- Tell others how important they are, while sharing your own accomplishments in appropriate ways.

- Speak highly of others while you are with them and when you are out of their presence.

- Sincerely express appreciation and gratitude for others on a regular basis.

- Take personal risks.

- Gain and communicate a passion for the team vision.

- Present yourself effectively while meeting others and exchanging greetings.

Team leaders can lead teams more effectively by:

- Promoting the team's mission

- Using team symbols

- Utilizing peer evaluations

- Developing team unity (and minimizing internal team in-groups and out-groups)

- Encouraging open and honest communication, including productive criticism

- Setting high performance standards

- Creating a sense of urgency in team activities

Leadership Constraints

Constraints affecting team leadership include:

- Lack of skills
- Corporate culture and climate
- Precedent, organizational structure, or other issues that may inhibit effective leadership
- Lack of access or knowledge of available alternative solutions to problems
- Situational characteristics impacted by leadership power levels and the relationship between the leader and subordinates involved in the situation
- Rigid leadership behaviors that inhibit the leader's ability to be flexible in certain situations
- Amount of control the leader has over rewards

Contemporary Leadership Issues

Many of the leadership theories we've already discussed in this material on team leading are applicable for evaluation in a review of contemporary leadership issues.

In addition, we'll now consider the following:

- Followers and the Leadership Process
- Paradigms of Human Interaction
- Leadership and Corporate Culture

Followers and the Leadership Process

After having discussed leadership principles in relation to teams, we'll now review concepts from the perspective of the follower.

Followers have characteristics similar to leaders; and leaders are also almost always followers.

Followers respond to leaders, who in turn react to followers, and followers are always assessing their behaviors in light of the behaviors they think they should be show.

Each leader-follower relationship is unique. And these relationships develop over time. Leader-follower relationships move from a

● Stranger phase
to an
● Acquaintance phase
to a
● Maturity phase

As leaders and followers build their relationships, they work through a role-finding process. Each individual focuses interest mostly on himself or herself, with interpersonal influence being at a low level.

As the relationship continues to develop in the acquaintance phase, leader and follower roles begin to grow. Mutual influence increases somewhat, and exchanges between the leader and follower take on greater quality. The leader and follower are moving toward a team approach.

In the maturity phase of the leader-follower relationship, individual roles are developed, and influence and quality of communication and exchange activities is high. The leader and follower are able to focus on working together as a team.

Here are some specific ways in which followers can provide leadership in a team setting:

- Be a good listener; active listening provides a form of emotional leadership that can serve the team well.

- Diligent, effective, and efficient work can provide leadership for other team members with regard to how work should be done.

- Be responsible in the use of creativity on the job by following rules set to avoid irresponsible behaviors.

Paradigms of Human Interaction

Dr. Stephen R. Covey has developed six paradigms of human interaction:

1. Win/Win (I win, you win)
2. Win/Lose (I win, you lose)
3. Lose/Win (I lose, you win)
4. Lose/Lose (I lose, you lose)
5. Win (I win)
6. Win/Win or No Deal (I win, you win, or we cannot have an agreement at all)

He stresses that the habit of effective interpersonal leadership is *Think Win/Win*. This habit emphasizes the need for all parties to benefit from interactions. This way of thinking assumes that there is sufficient for everyone, in comparison with a scarcity mentality with takes a Win/Lose approach, where one party wins and the other loses, assuming that there isn't enough of what is wanted to go around for everyone.

Dr. Covey notes that when people think in terms of dichotomies, strong or weak, win or lose, their thinking is flawed. He points out that this type of thinking is based on position and power versus basing thought on principle. There is enough for everyone, and individual success does not have to come at the expense or exclusion of other persons.

Another interpersonal concept to consider is trust. Dr. Covey states in his book, The Seven Habits of Highly Effective People, *Trust is the highest form of human motivation. It brings out the very best in people. But it takes time and patience, and it doesn't preclude the necessity to train and develop people so that their competency can rise to the level of that trust.*

As trust and cooperation levels increase in an organization, behaviors move from defensive (Win/Lose or Lose/Win) to respectful (compromise) to synergistic (Win/Win).

Leadership and Corporate Culture

Corporate culture involves the behavior, values, and belief systems that are accepted and practiced by members of an organization. Every corporate or organizational culture is unique and tailored to the specific needs of the entity.

Leaders can affect organizational culture by

- Being role models of specific behaviors
- Providing rewards and status for desired behaviors
- Paying attention to specific areas of the organization
- The way they set organizational policies
- Their development of human resources and other practices and processes
- Their actions and reactions to situations and crises

Trust is created in organizations when

- Credibility, integrity, and honesty are traits important to the organization and its members.

- Open communication can be practiced by all organizational members.

- Competence exists and is developed in organizational members.

- Organizational members are loyal to one another.

- Consistency and fairness are used by persons in the handling of all situations.

Team members should always:

- Be open
- Show consistency
- Express their feelings
- Practice fairness
- Be honest and truthful
- Keep their word
- Maintain confidences
- Be competent in what they do and say

Chapter 12: Group Problem Solving

Objectives: In this chapter, the student will review the following concepts:

1. The principle concepts of group behavior
2. Group problem-solving and decision-making
3. Group problem-solving modes and behaviors
4. The change process and its impact on group problem-solving

Introduction

Groups are found in every organization. Each group has its problems and challenges. As group members continually recognize their problems, determine strategies to overcome them, implement their plans, and then evaluate how things have gone, they can become truly effective and productive.

Group Behavior

The foundational issue underlying group and team problem solving is in the area of group behavior.

Factors affecting team and group behavior include the following (discussed in greater detail elsewhere in this review program):

- **Norms**
- **Conformity to norms**
- **Roles**
- **Size**
- **Cohesiveness**
- **Status relationships**

Other factors to keep in mind include ways the group or team handle conflict:

- **The way the team sees conflict**
- **The way the team handles conflict**

Functional conflict supports team goals. Dysfunctional conflict keeps the team from reaching goals; for example, consider the following **dysfunctional conflict forms**:

- **Avoidance** (one or more parties suppressing or withdrawing from conflict)
- **Accommodation** (one giving priority to other's needs)
- **Forcing** (one making his or her own needs top priority over others)
- **Compromise** (each party involved giving up something of value)
- **Collaboration** (members seeking a solution that will benefit each party)

The following factors are also important to team behavior:

- Team structure
- Resources available to the team
- Processes used by the team
- Tasks performed or to be done by the team

Group Problem-Solving and Decision-Making

Team Problem-Solving

Teams use the same overall step-by-step scientific approach to solving problems as is used by individuals. When they get together to solve problems, they usually have a team meeting or discussion instead of using formal problem-solving approaches or procedures. In this meeting, team members discuss the problem, its nature, and start to look for ways to solve it.

When teams use a systematic approach to problem solving, they increase their chances for success. The following steps are taken in this approach when teams consider more complex problems (these steps are not needed for making minor decisions):

Group Problem-Solving Steps
Step 1. Problem identification
Step 2. Problem clarification
Step 3. Cause analysis
Step 4. Discussion of possible solutions
Step 5. Selection of solution(s)
Step 6. Plan implementation
Step 7. Follow-through assignments agreed upon
Step 8. Action plan developed for follow-through

In order for the process to be successful, team members must be accountable and follow through on their assignments.

After the action plan has been carried out, the team will get back together to evaluate how things have gone.

Advantages of Using Teams to Solve Problems

Use of teams in the problem-solving and decision-making process can result in:

- More choices and alternatives

- Increased ability to see all sides of issues being considered (especially through use of the devil's advocate approach)

- Better decisions

- High degree of team acceptance

- Higher team morale

Disadvantages of Using Teams to Solve Problems

There can be a down-side to using teams in the problem-solving and decision-making process. Here are some examples:

- It can take longer to make decisions (versus the amount of time it takes for one person to decide).

- Group-think can occur in teams (team members may feel obliged to go along with the rest of the group).

- One member or subgroup may take charge or dominate the team.

- Reduced accountability and responsibility among team members can result, if care is not used to avoid this problem.

Use of Teams in the Development of Creative Alternatives

Teams are very effective in the development of **creative alternatives** in the problem-solving and decision-making process. The key word in creative alternatives is *creative.* **Stages of the creative process** are listed below:

Team Creative Alternative Development Process

Stage 1: Preparation: After becoming completely familiar with the problem, the team should gather facts, opinions, feels, and ideas from various sources. Team members should try to get outside of the box, or do a paradigm shift while considering the problem. The should be imaginative and inventive while looking at the problem from different angles and points of view.

Stage 2: Solution generation: The team should come up with as many possible solutions as members can. The team should be non-judgmental and not limit itself.

Stage 3: Incubation: The team should take some time away from problem consideration; during this period, thoughts and insights will often come to team members.

Stage 4: Alternative evaluation: Alternatives should be carefully evaluated by team members before a solution is selected.

The following are **creative alternative development techniques** used by teams:

- **Brainstorming**
- **Synetics**
- **Nominal grouping**
- **Consensus mapping**
- **Delphi technique**

Let's now take some time to review each of these creative alternative techniques.

Brainstorming: In this process, many alternatives to solve the problem are brought up. No evaluation or judgment is used. Brainstorming is often used to come up with new product ideas, create advertising campaigns and slogans, and generally provide creative solutions for organizations. One person working on his or her own in the idea-generation process is engaged in brainwriting.

We'll review both verbal and electronic brainstorming guidelines, rules, and procedures.

Brainstorming Guidelines and Rules

The main technique of brainstorming is to encourage team members to be both spontaneous and unrestrained in their discussion. Members are welcome to hitch-hike or build on ideas made by others. A list of the ideas presented should be recorded and edited by one of the team members.

Here are some rules that help keep brainstorming effective for groups and teams:

- Criticism in any form of suggestions made is not allowed.

- The brainstorming process must be kept unstructured and spontaneous.

- Freewheeling and the sharing of outlandish ideas is encouraged.

- The ideal team size is five to seven members (this allows for the generation of a number of suggestions without having the input be too small or too out of control).

- All team members are encouraged to provide input (this is sometimes encouraged by going around the table for every member to provide his or her suggestions).

- Team members are invited to contribute a number of varied ideas; this helps increase the chance of coming up with a novel or especially productive consideration.

- Piggy backing and hitchhiking are encouraged; improvements on suggestions and the combining of ideas are important in team brainstorming.

- A careful record of suggestions and ideas must be kept.

Verbal Brainstorming Limitations

When verbal brainstorming is used in teams, there are limitations to consider, such as:

- Apprehension that ideas may be critically looked at by other team members.

- Some team members (free riders) may not try as hard to contribute in a group process as they would if they worked alone.

- Procedures used may actually inhibit the creation of some ideas (since only one person speaks at a time, the number of ideas may be limited; also, some ideas may be forgotten by potential contributors who are listening to others present their suggestion--or they may be rehearsing what they are going to say so they aren't listening to what is being said).

Electronic Brainstorming

Electronic brainstorming has been developed to help overcome some of the obstacles that are involved in traditional team brainstorming processes.

In electronic brainstorming, team members work as a group around a U-shaped table, face-to-face. Each member has a monitor and computer terminal interconnected with all of the other brainstorming terminals; all participants must be able to keyboard in order to participate.

Team members make their suggestions simultaneously via computer. No verbal feedback is generated in electronic brainstorming. Ideas contributed are displayed on team member monitors for their viewing and consideration. Members can then build on ideas contributed and make additional suggestions.

Because ideas are anonymous and electronic, there is:

- A great reduction in concern about suggestions being critically evaluated
- An eliminated need to wait for other team members while they make their suggestions

In the electronic brainstorming process, each participant is able to view a random listing of group suggestions as they are made. Throughout the process team members generate both new ideas and build on their ideas and others' contributions.

Although electronic brainstorming can generate more ideas in the same amount of time than traditional brainstorming, in comparison, electronic brainstorming is relatively expensive to implement.

Synetics

Fantasizing and role playing are used to generate creative ideas in the synetics process. The process begins without any specification as to the exact nature of what is to be considered. In synetics, creative ideas are emphasized, in comparison with the development of a large number of ideas.

Nominal Grouping

The **nominal grouping technique** has some of the benefits of electronic brainstorming without the technological expense. Nominal grouping is a process of creating and evaluating various alternatives in a procedure involving voting of team members.

Here are the steps involved in nominal grouping:

- Team members are notified of the meeting in advance and provided with an agenda.

- The meeting is held (with an administrative professional involved who takes care of and follows up on meeting details).

- The team leader presents a specific situation or question to be addressed by the team.

- Each team member records his or her ideas without speaking with other team members.

- Each team member shares one idea with the group (the ideas are not discussed by the team; they are recorded by the team leader or designated administrative professional in a place where they can be seen by the entire team).

- After the presentation of each idea, the team is allowed to obtain clarifications with regard to the concept, and suggestions are evaluated by the team (additional ideas are also recorded).

- At the meeting's end, the team members silently and independently rate the various alternatives. The final team decision is based on the cumulative number of votes received for each suggestion.

- An initial vote eliminates ideas; after this vote, team members may present the logic involved with their suggestions and their rationale for supporting various alternatives.

- A final vote is taken for the selection of the most favored alternative(s).

- The team's recommendations are either acted upon or submitted for consideration to management.

Consensus Mapping

Consensus mapping is an extension of the nominal grouping technique. Team members cluster or categorize suggestions and ideas and then arrive at a consensus that is acceptable to all team members based on overall team assessment.   Because the entire team can accept the solution, team members are inclined to be committed to it and its implementation.

Delphi Technique

The **Delphi Technique** is mainly used to forecast technologies. Team members never meet face-to-face in this process, but a group is polled through a series of anonymous questionnaires. The process may involve five or more questionnaires before the team consensus becomes evident. With each round of questioning, the team members are given the last round's results. Team members can then provide their feedback and suggestions. Once consensus is reached, the process is completed.

Work Teams and Decision Making

Work teams, also called self-managed teams, are placed in organizations to help them become more efficient and productive in the production of goods and services. They are responsible for entire work processes.

Work teams solve their problems mostly as a group, and they are trained in team problem-solving techniques. They set their own goals and are responsible for the various factors involving their specific responsibilities, including compensation, budgeting, hiring, training, quality, materials and supplies ordering, scheduling, etc.

E-Mail Use in Team Problem Solving and Decision Making

Use of **e-mail** can help facilitate team communications and interaction and reduce the number of meetings needed by the group. E-mail is used to communicate brief messages, send memos via distribution lists, and distribute electronic documents created in word processors and spreadsheets. E-mail is not meant to take the place of face-to-face, interpersonal communications between team members.

Group Problem-Solving Modes and Behaviors

Supervisors use various leadership styles when solving problems and making decisions. After the situation has been diagnosed by the team leader, he or she then chooses an appropriate supervisory style:

- **Consultative** (after consulting with the group, the team leader makes a decision; he or she then explains the reasons behind the decision and how it will benefit the group)

- **Participative** (after group participation in an evaluation process, the supervisor makes a decision and provides an explanation to the group)

- **Laissez-faire** (the group is allowed to make the decision after the situation is reviewed with the group by the supervisor)

- **Autocratic** (the supervisor makes the decision and lets the group know what will take place; an explanation may be provided by the supervisor)

Group Problem-Solving Modes

Just as team leaders utilize various approaches to solving problems, groups approach problem solving in different ways. They have their own personality based on traditions and customs.

The following **problem-solving modes** are used in groups:

- **Interpersonal** (provides for much dialog and discussion without the need to cover a lot of specific tasks and issues)

- **Organizational** (involves strong relationship interactivity with a high emphasis on task behaviors)

- **Routine** (does not involve strong relationship activities or task behavior emphasis)

- **Crisis** (places high emphasis on tasks to be done and low emphasis on relationship behaviors)

Depending on the situation, any one of these group problem-solving modes may be appropriate. However, it is important that groups do not get into the habit of using the same behavioral mode for inappropriate situations. For example, if the situation being faced by the group is not a crisis, the crisis problem-solving mode would not likely be appropriate.

Effective groups are able to adapt and move quickly from one type of problem-solving mode to another. Team members are alert and receptive to changing situations and circumstances that require specific behavioral modes.

Group Member Roles

Team members play roles that can either assist in or deter the group problem-solving process. Let's now look at some of these key roles and the impacts they have on group problem-solving.

Group member roles are not necessarily positive or negative. It depends on the situation and if the role being played is proper at the time.

Paul Hersey, Kenneth Blanchard, and Dewey Johnson refer to people playing problem-solving roles. They are categorized as helper roles and hindering roles.

Team member helping roles include:

- **Establishing** (people who help get things started, define goals and objectives, and keep things moving in a positive direction)

- **Persuading** (team members who like to look for alternatives, ask relevant questions, evoke responses from others, and advocate points and causes)

- **Committing** (persons who summarize, synthesize, look for solutions to problems, help bring about team involvement, and enjoy building team commitment)

- **Attending** (individuals who show attentiveness to team communications; they listen, observe, and show interest in what's being said or going on; they may take notes or record information for the team)

Team member hindering roles include:

● **Aggressive** (individuals who are dominating, criticizing, and name-callers; aggressive people create an uproar and like to point fingers)

● **Manipulative** (team members who like to change the subject, split hairs, interpret things the way they want to see them, and control conversations toward their point of view; manipulators are nitpickers, and they like to set traps and corner others)

● **Dependent** (persons who avoid making decisions, like to agree with others all of the time, and appear helpless and resigned; dependent people like to engage in forms of self-pity and show a false concern for team goals while they are trying to undermine them)

● **Avoidance** (people who want to escape from the group, appear bored or psychologically withdrawn; they like to seem too busy to get everything done and keep their commitments; sometimes they invite criticism by not being prepared for meetings or coming late into the office)

As team members fill roles that productively add to team work, they help bring about long-term team success. As Jon Katzenbach and Douglas Smith so aptly pointed out in their book*, The Wisdom of Teams*:

In the end, the wisdom of teams is within the team itself. It is not in creating the high-performance organization, managing transformational change, enforcing corporate performance ethics, or inspiring new dimensions of leadership. It is in a small group of people so committed to something larger than themselves that they will not be denied.

The Change Process and Its Impact on Group Problem Solving

When change takes place, it can affect one or more of the following three organizational components:

● Human resource (behaviors, expectations, attitudes, perceptions, etc.)

● Structural (chain of command, centralization, span of control, departmentalization, etc.)

● Technological (equipment, job processes, work methods, etc.)

Change is constant and always present. Change is usually brought about to make things better or to solve problems. When an accurate diagnosis of a problem is made, an organization or team can identify changes that may be made to effectively deal with the problem.

Team members, rather than coming to rushed or premature conclusions about causes of problems, should consider the following:

● Get information from a wide range of sources, if possible (i.e., customer surveys and competitor practices).

● Compare information obtained to find trends or patterns.

● Isolate, where possible, the most likely problem causes.

The Change Process

The change process involves the following components:

1. Planning for change
2. Preparing for change
3. Implementing the change
4. Evaluating results that come about from the change

Throughout the process, resistance to change must be dealt with.

Change planning involves:

● Careful timing to ensure the success of the change (consider when the change must be made)

● Support building among all who will be affected by the change

● Effective communication with all persons who will be affected by the change

● Participation of those most affected by the change

● Provision of incentives for problem solvers and those affected by the change

Change planners must be aware of:

● The way they want to approach the change
● The amount of change that needs to take place
● How quickly the change must be implemented

Resistance to Change

People resist change for a number of reasons. Here are a few:

● Insufficient information or communication
● Expected consequences
● Lack of trust
● Loss of status quo and individual comfort zones

Managing Resistance to Change

People will resist change because they don't understand why it is needed, nor do they see it as an opportunity instead of a threat.

Change agents may be engaged to assist in the change process. Such individuals usually take the form of managers in organizations. No matter who is acting as a change agent, however, he or she has a unique opportunity to assist in the successful implementation of change in teams and organizations.

Change agents help facilitate the change process by doing the following:

Change agents must first analyze and assess the climate for change. The following issues, among others, must be addressed:

- Senior management support

- Team or organizational understanding of the need for change

- Objective systems set up to measure change evaluation

- The sense of urgency among management and organizational members

- Team member understanding of how the change will affect the team or organization as compared with the keeping things as they are

- The level of resistance to change in the organization

In connection with the analysis of potential resistance to change, the change agent can use a tool developed by psychologist Kurt Lewin called force field analysis.

Force field analysis involves the giving of orders and the enforcement of orders. It is based on the assumption that change must have an increase in driving forces (i.e., leadership, technology, and management pressure) and a decrease in restraining forces (i.e., group norms opposed to taking risks, persons against change, and costs involved in making change) that result in a state of equilibrium. The process is relatively quick to implement, but it is accompanied by both low commitment and a high level of resistance from those who are receiving the orders.

Lewin found that weakening restraints is probably more effective than increasing driving forces in the change process. For example, it is better to convince those involved of the benefits of change than it is to try to force those affected to make the change.

After the change agent has analyzed and assessed the climate for change, he or she must select a proper approach for change management. Some **change management techniques** used include:

- **Negotiation** (used when management sees the need for change is great)

- **Communication** (used to clearly educate affected parties regarding all change-related issues and overcome the lack of data or inaccurate information; the education process takes time, but it generally results in a higher level of commitment and less resistance from team members)

- **Participation** (used to provide information to those involved and when individuals have the power to resist the change)

- **Facilitation** (used to help team members with adjustment problems)

- **Manipulation** and co-optation (used when there is too much expense to do otherwise or when management has not succeeded with any other approach)

- **Coercion** (used by powerful change agents who perceive quick change action is imperative)

- Self-interest or **rational change strategy** (this approach is utilized to help team members look at change as something that is an advantage to them)

Jack Duncan outlined four steps that should be taken using the rational change strategy:

1. Team members are extended an invitation to be involved in the change process and are provided details regarding the transition efforts needed. They are allowed to participate by sharing their opinions and feelings. They also have a chance to point out the things that are important to them relative to the planned change.

2. An incentive to change must be used. Normally the self-interests of team members are the most motivating factors involved.

3. Communication is essential in order to help team members understand the need for change.

4. Feedback between management and individual team members needs to be ongoing in order to keep everyone updated relative to progress that is being made.

As a final point with regard to the efforts of change agents, during the change implementation process and after the change has been made, the change agent must do the following:

- Communicate.
- Let personnel know that support is there to help them in the change process.
- Follow through by providing needed assistance.

In order to successfully foster organizational change, a team leader must possess the following abilities:

- Tolerance

- Patience

- A willingness to listen to others

- An ability to effectively communicate the need for change and the benefits that will come from putting the change into place

Organizational Development and Its Role in the Change Process

Organizational development (**OD**) focuses on programs and techniques designed to change people and their working relationships. Skill training groups who were brought together by researchers to meet in sessions away from the office in the organizational development process are referred to as t-groups (basic skill training groups).
OD uses the following techniques in this process:

- **Sensitivity training** (behavioral change brought about through unstructured group interaction)

- **Team building** (team members learn how other team members work and think)

- **Survey feedback** (attitudinal and perceptional feedback provided through the administration and interpretation of team member surveys)

- **Intergroup development** (the process of helping teams or groups understand one another and work together better through the independent development of team self perceptions, perceptions of other teams involved, and analysis of how they believe they are perceived by other teams; team differences are identified, then the teams work on ways to solve their differences)

- **Process consultation** (an outside coach or consultant is brought in to help team leaders identify interpersonal processes needing alteration or improvement)

- **Organizational learning** (a learning organization is good at all learning-based processes, including the creation, acquisition, and transfer of knowledge--its members are also able to apply what they have learned; such entities have developed a culture that fosters continuous learning and improvement)

Evaluation of Change Outcomes

After change has taken place in groups and teams, it is important to analyze the outcomes of the change. This is done by:

- Gathering data (by obtaining both quantitative and subjective--attitude--data)

- Comparing the end result of change implementation with original goals set

- Providing feedback of the change outcome results with those affected by the change

Chapter 13: Resolving Conflict

Objectives: In this chapter, the student will review the following concepts:

1. Conflict levels and classifications
2. Root causes of conflict
3. Conflict development stages
4. Conflict management approaches and styles
5. Conflict resolution guidelines and strategies
6. Methods used in the handling of difficult people
7. Conflict mediation

Introduction

Generally speaking, when two or more interdependent individuals or groups have conflicting goals, conflict arises. As persons and teams learn how to successfully manage conflict, they are able to maximize their progress toward goal attainment.

Organizational Conflict

Conflict Defined

Conflict takes place when one or more parties block or frustrate the goals or plans of another party. It may also be seen as a situation involving incompatible values, goals, or events.

Levels of Conflict

Conflict can occur at different levels, with each level involving a different number of persons or groups. Conflict can be seen as:

- **Intrapersonal conflict** (within one individual)

- **Interpersonal conflict** (between two persons)

- **Intergroup conflict** (between members of a group, generally involving disagreements involving goals or the sharing of resources)

- **Interorganizational conflict** (between two companies)

Types of Conflict

The following are **conflict types**:

- **Goal conflict** (when one party desires a different outcome than another party)

- **Cognitive/substantive conflict** (when one party has different opinions and ideas than another)

- **Behavioral conflict** (when a party behaves in an unacceptable way to another party)

- **Affective/relationship conflict** (when attitudes or feelings of one party differ from those of another)

Conflict Classifications

The following are ways to classify conflict:

- **Functional (constructive) Conflict**

- **Dysfunctional (destructive) Conflict**

Functional Conflict

Functional conflict takes place when two parties or groups confront one another in such a way that organizational performance is benefitted.

Functional conflict can result in:

- Innovation
- New ideas
- Solutions to problems and challenges confronted by organizations
- Positive change
- Team member motivation and growth

Dysfunctional Conflict

Dysfunctional conflict occurs when parties or teams interact in a way that will harm or hinder the accomplishment of an organization's goals and objectives.

Conflict can place either positive or negative pressures on organizational activity. Therefore, management of conflict in organizations is more important than the fact that conflict exists. All entities have an optimal conflict level that can generate positive organizational achievement.

Often, however, managers try to eliminate conflict of all kinds because:

- Rewards are provided for conflict-free environments.
- The traditional approach to conflict stresses the need for its elimination.

Dysfunctional Conflict Consequences

Dysfunctional conflict can have the following consequences:

- Decline in psychological well-being of team members
- Increase in controlling leadership behavior
- Perception distortion between teams
- Detrimental stereotyping
- Decrease in intergroup communications
- Emphasis on team loyalty
- Shift to an activity-based focus
- Increase in team cohesiveness

Causes of Conflict

Causes of conflict include the following:

- Varied objectives and incompatible goals between individuals or teams

- Individual or group differences in values, needs, expectations, and perceptions

- Poor communication skills or facilitation

- Information or data conflicts that cause disagreement and interpretation differences

- Employment practices and policies

- Status inconsistencies (i.e., individuals using status to justify doing personal errands during company time)

- Competition for scarce organizational resources

- Structural and environmental factors that cause disputes over territories and areas of authority in an organization

- Disagreements and conflict caused between individuals due to clashes in personality

- Verbal or physical behavior performed with or around others by people with aggressive personalities

- Role conflict that brings about competition between expectations or demands

Role Conflict Types

Types of role conflict include:

- **Intrasender conflict** (when one person must fulfill two conflicting roles; i.e., you are asked to type faster but make fewer mistakes)

- **Intersender conflict** (when two or more sources provide conflicting instructions; i.e., your supervisor asks you to work overtime to finish a project, but the company doesn't allow overtime)

- **Person-role conflict** (when your company asks you to fill a role contradicting your personal values; i.e., your religious beliefs cause you to feel a certain way, yet you are asked to perform job functions contrary to these beliefs)

- **Interrole conflict** (when an individual must fill conflicting roles; i.e., you are asked to work extra hours or go on extended work travel, but your spouse wants you to be home more often)

Here are some other causes of conflict:

- Difficult people

- Managers who lack trust in subordinates

- Employees who neglect their jobs or share of the work

- Personnel refusing to abide by organizational rules or norms

- Lack of performance standards in a team or organization

Group Conflict

Group conflict is fairly common in organizations. It can involve disagreement and friction in groups; and as has been mentioned, it is not something that can or should always be avoided, as some forms of conflict can bring about positive results.

Possibly the most common intergroup conflict occurs between managers and specialists, as managers tend to become somewhat dependent on specialists to help them in the management of their departments or areas of responsibility.

Group Conflict Causes

Group conflict has many of the same causes we've already noted about conflict in general. Here are some additional considerations:

● Sometimes teams have a **diverse membership make-up** that can contribute to relationship conflicts.

● Team members have **different relationship styles** that can also add to potential conflict.

● If **tasks to be performed are ambiguous**, cognitive (or substantive) conflict can occur.

● **Reward systems** based on individual team performance versus total organizational performance can cause conflict between groups and teams.

● When one team relies on another group to get its work done (or the two teams are **interdependent**), conflict potential is high.

Here are some **types of group interdependence**:

- ● **Sequential interdependence** (one team or group must complete its work before another team can accomplish its task)

- ● **Pooled interdependence** (the performance of all groups and teams in an organization pooled together creates a pooled interdependence situation; teams don't necessarily interact)

- ● **Reciprocal interdependence** (individuals or teams provide input to other groups or teams in order for overall tasks or goals to be accomplished)

Stages of Conflict

Conflict develops in steps or stages; for example:

Stages of Conflict Development
1. **Conflict is first perceived** (by at least one party involved). 2. **Conflict may progress or escalate** (it may or may not lead to the point of being felt). 3. **Conflict is felt** (by at least one party involved). 4. **Conflict is manifest**, with conflicting individuals or groups engaging in conflict behavior.

Kenneth Thomas has developed a conflict process model. Here is a summary of what he has shared in his text, *Conflict and Conflict Management*:

Stage 1: **Frustration**.

Stage 2: **Conceptualization**. Those involved in the conflict try to gain an understanding of the problem and how it can be solved.

Stage 3: **Behavior**. The parties involved do one of the following: (1) Work on solving the problem through accommodation, (2) compete with one another, or (3) attempt to resolve the problem via their problem-solving strategies.

Stage 4: **Outcome**. The conflicting individuals or groups assess to what degree they have achieved their desired outcomes or if problem has been solved.

Conflict Management

Different approaches to managing conflict may be taken by parties involved. Here are a few examples:

- **Collaborating (win/win) conflict**: Parties involved in collaborative conflict attempt to find a solution that will be beneficial for all concerned.

- **Problem-solving conflict** (sometimes also referred to as collaborating style): Those who take the problem-solving approach to conflict management work to minimize differences and stress common interests in a problem-solving approach to the conflict.

- **Compromising (sharing) conflict**: Parties who work to compromise or diffuse conflict may do one of several things to resolve the conflict in an expeditious manner; here are some examples: (1) They may compromise their positions, (2) a decision may be made based on majority consensus, (3) the matter may be arbitrated or decided by someone in an authority position, and (4) the parties may re-evaluate their positions and make changes to help end the conflict.

- **Confronting conflict**: Those who confront conflict are able to talk to one another about their problems so they can understand one another. Often this takes place in a formal or informal meeting where views are presented and a discussion is held to work out differences between the parties.

- **Avoiding conflict**: Individuals or teams engaging in avoidance activities will ignore the situation hoping that it will go away or take care of itself. They may also look for ways to end the relationship or connection with the other party.

- **Forcing conflict**: Parties using the forcing style use aggressive behavior to resolve the conflict. This approach is used when conflict resolution is of some urgency and it is not critical that interpersonal relationships be preserved.

- **Competing (win/lose) conflict**: Those involved in competitive conflict want to dominate and come out ahead at the expense of the other party.

Conflict Management Styles

Different styles are used by leaders and teams in the management of conflict. Constructive conflict skills are one of the most critical tools a team leader or member can develop.

While performing any of the management functions (planning, organizing, staffing, leading, and controlling), one may encounter conflict. We'll now examine basic conflict management styles and how they can be applied to different situations to accomplish the desired results.

Basic conflict management styles are:

- **Collaboration**
- **Accommodation**
- **Compromise**
- **Avoidance**
- **Force**

Use of Collaboration Style

When parties use the **collaboration style**, they are looking for a win-win solution to problems facing all individuals and entities involved. Those participating in this style communicate in an adult ego state. Those involved must confront the problem in an assertive manner. They are both assertive and cooperative in their approach.

The collaboration style is used when it is important to maintain relationships. The conflict involved is a peer conflict, and there must be ample time to work through issues and provide the attention that is needed to resolve conflict using this style.

Generally the collaboration style will provide the best solution for all parties involved in the conflict; however, all parties must be willing to put in the time and effort required to make this type of conflict resolution work.

Use of Accommodation Style

Parties involved in the **accommodation style** of conflict management use a passive approach wherein one party's needs may be neglected to satisfy the needs of the other party. The parties communicate using a sympathetic parent or obedient child ego state, and the problem is confronted in a passive way. They are cooperative and unassertive in their approach.

The accommodation style is used when relationship maintenance is of utmost importance. There is generally little time to work through the conflict when this style of conflict management is used. Issues of importance to one party, but not to the other party, are accommodated.

The accommodation style creates win-lose situations. Relationships are maintained in the short-run, but someone loses out so the other party can gain. In the long-run, if this sort of style continues to be used, all parties will lose out and the relationships are often lost.

Use of Compromise Style

Assertiveness and cooperation are used between parties involved in the **compromise style** of conflict management. Each party works in a give-and-take manner to work things out. Those involved use the adult ego state. The need for harmony between parties is emphasized.

The compromise style is used when there is no simple solution available to parties and when the issues involved are important and complicated. Usually time is of the essence and the individuals or teams involved have a strong interest in various potential settlements or solutions.

The compromise style is effective when relationships need to be perpetuated and time is short. Use of this style, however, often results in less-than-optimum results to the parties; and overuse of this style can bring about game playing among parties.

Use of Avoidance Style

Parties involved in the **avoidance style** of conflict management are passive and avoid or ignore the problem rather than trying to solve it. The sympathetic parent or obedient child ego state is used. Confrontation is put off, and those involved try to escape or leave the conflict either physically or mentally, or in cases where parties feel they'll make a situation worse by handling it poorly.

The avoidance style is used when confrontation is seen as damaging to an important relationship, when the issues involved are not significant in size, and when time issues require that the conflict be avoided.

The avoidance style is used to maintain relationships that may otherwise be damaged by the conflict resolution process. Unfortunately, when this style of conflict management is used, conflicts are not resolved. The problems do not go away, and a lose-lose situation is created for all individuals and entities involved.

Use of Force Style

Those who use the **force style** of conflict management use aggressive behavior and try to resolve the conflict by force. The participants use an adapted child or critical parent ego state. Authority, intimidation, and other forceful techniques are used.

The force style is used when the conflict must be resolved right away, when it is not important for the individuals involved to have close relationships, and when personal differences cannot be compromised or worked out.

Use of the force style, from the vantage point of the party using force, will result in better decisions. Those on the force-receiving end of things end up resentful; and a win-lose situation is created.

Managing Group Conflict

An open culture should be cultivated in order to encourage intragroup communication so that team conflict can be more readily resolved. It also encourages the avoidance of group-think by fostering a climate where people feel free to submit novel and creative ideas and approaches that will help the team be more effective and productive.

Effective teams need to get to the point where they can focus on overall goals and get beyond individual member interests so that common team interests are emphasized.

Intergroup Conflict Management Techniques

The following techniques or approaches can be utilized in managing intergroup conflict:

- Set common goals.

- Use the appropriate conflict-management resolution style (i.e., confrontation, avoidance, competitive, forcing, etc.).

- Utilize a structural approach that will help resolve the conflict (i.e., find a way to obtain resources or reduce the need for scarce resources, refer to a common superior, etc.).

Resolving Intergroup Conflict

Intergroup conflict resolution uses similar principles as the management of interpersonal conflict; however, because of the various dynamics involved with groups, teams, and organizations, the process becomes more complex.

Looking at conflict resolution from a perspective of the group's focus (either on domestic issues of greatest concern within the group or regarding problems external to the group), we find that groups use essentially the same approaches as individuals utilize in conflict management.

Guidelines for Resolving Conflicts

After considering the various styles, their approaches, uses, and advantages, we can next ask what steps one should take and the guidelines one should use relative to conflict resolution.

Steps to take in conflict resolution are similar to the scientific decision-making process:

Conflict Resolution Steps

- ***Problem definition***
- ***Data collection (facts and opinions)***
- ***Consideration of solutions to the problem and expected results***
- ***Choice of alternatives or solutions***
- ***Alternative or solution implementation***

Conflict Avoidance Strategies

Here are strategies to avoid conflict altogether (similar to the Japanese management style):

- Facilitate intergroup communication.
- Avoid win-lose situations.
- Underscore the importance of organization-wide goals and objectives.
- Furnish tasks that are consistent and well structured.

Conflict Reduction Approaches

Some approaches used to reduce conflict include the following:

- Implement regulations and rules.
- Physically separate individuals or issues involved in the conflict.
- Implement or utilize intergroup training.
- Use intergroup integrators.
- Involve third-party consultants.

Conflict Resolution Techniques and Guidelines

The following general techniques and guidelines can be considered in the resolution of conflicts:

- Confront the problem and work to solve it in a productive way.

- Handle criticism in a constructive way. Here are some suggestions: (1) Agree with the person making the criticism, if he or she has a legitimate complaint; (2) ask for specifics and clarifications; (3) hold the criticism at arm's length--see yourself at a distance from the criticism and try to look at it from the other person's point of view; (4) determine your reply to the criticism (agree where you can and make apologies, as desired).

- Learn to view the elements of the conflict in a more positive manner (by using cognitive restructuring).

● Empathically come to an understanding of the other party's point of view--this is called image exchanging (it's best if all parties can do this).

● Negotiate and bargain to resolve conflict. For example: (1) Make room for negotiation; (2) start out with a realistic offer or demand; (3) make compromises, where possible; (4) make minor concessions in a gradual manner (5) focus on interests instead of positions, and (6) be aware of the best alternative available to you should a negotiated agreement not be made--and accept no less from the agreement than the best alternative.

● Instigate a **peer review program**. For example, some organizations have peer review panels to handle employee conflicts such as discipline, promotions, discharges, etc.

● Stimulate conflict (or **programmed conflict**), in certain circumstances, for improved performance and productivity. This is especially important in groups and teams where complacency has set in or there is lack of disagreement leading to less-than-optimum performance.

Suggestions for Stimulating Functional Conflict

Here are some ways to stimulate, or create, functional (or constructive) conflict in teams and groups:

● Have someone on the team be the devil's advocate to bring up points of view contrary to those expressed by other team members.

● Bring someone with different values and attitudes from the outside into the group to enhance group diversity of ideas and viewpoints.

● Get healthy competition going among group members via incentives, awards, and bonuses.

● Change the organization's structure to help resolve intergroup conflict and to create conflict.

The following strategies are seldom effective:

● Being secretive
● Taking no action
● Labeling individuals as troublemakers (or using character assassination)

Other Conflict Management Strategies

We'll now consider other conflict management strategy issues, including:

● The Attitude Factor
● Personal Assertiveness

The Attitude Factor

As individuals and groups develop a culture that fosters positive attitudes, they'll find the conflict resolution process to be much more productive. Here is a sampling of some great attitudes to cultivate:

● Develop patience and understanding.

● Look at differences in opinion as productive and beneficial.

● Keep in mind that each person is entitled to an opinion.

● Believe in win-win solutions to problems.

● Focus on and work to obtain positive solutions to problems.

● Understand that conflict and anger are human behaviors that can lead to the sharing of ideas and working together to make things better.

Personal Assertiveness

When one stands up for his or her rights and directly expresses thoughts and feelings, he or she is acting assertively. **Assertiveness** is a personal conflict resolution strategy that can be utilized in a number of ways. One can be assertive when she or he:

● Wants to express a point of view
● Feels his needs are being ignored
● Senses her point of view is being disregarded
● Detects someone is taking advantage of him

The Confrontation Meeting

In organizational development (OD), the **confrontation meeting** and team building are utilized in conflict management. Team building is covered in another part of this review material.

In the confrontation meeting that is most useful to clarify misunderstandings, parties holding different points of view get together with a third party to review their various perceptions and issues. This meeting may last a partial or full day.

General issues such as the need for communication, understanding, and team work are covered, followed by a discussion of conflict causes. The team meets until both sides understand one another's points of view.

Dr. Stephen R. Covey has had the following to say about confrontation:

Integrity in an interdependent reality is simply this: you treat everyone by the same set of principles. As you do, people will come to trust you. They may not at first appreciate the honest confrontational experiences such integrity might generate. Confrontation takes considerable courage, and many people would prefer to take the course of least resistance, belittling and criticizing, betraying confidences, or participating in gossip about others behind their back. But in the long run, people will trust and respect you if you are honest and open and kind with them. You care enough to confront. And to be trusted, it is said, is greater than to be loved. In the long run, I am convinced, to be trusted will be also to be loved.

Combating Sexual Harassment

Sexual harassment is a form of conflict that involves legal implications. It has two forms:

- Creation of a hostile environment
- Demand of sex in exchange for special favors

When such behavior begins, the person being approached should confront the harasser. Formal complaints can also be filed.

Effective Conflict Resolution

When conflict is resolved effectively, the following takes place:

- Effective and wise commitments and agreements are consummated.
- Interests are clarified.
- Good or better working relationships are developed.
- Legitimacy of the situation is enhanced.
- Positive options are generated.
- Communication is improved.

Handling Difficult People

Sometimes people seem set on creating problems for others in the workplace. **Difficult people** who create these problems have the ability and intelligence to act otherwise.

There are various types of difficult people, including the following examples:

- **Yes-persons** (those who will say anything to get what they want, yet they rarely follow up on their promises)

- **No-persons** (individuals who are always dissing things; they are pessimists who always look for reasons why things won't work out)

- **Blamers** (persons who blame everything on someone else; they are people who do not seem to be able to solve their own problems)

● **Know-it-alls** (people who are experts about everything and have an opinion on every issue; they are often incorrect, however, and they become defensive when others find out)

● **Dictators** (persons who intimidate and boss others around; they seek to have power and authority over others)

● **Gossipers** (these personality types enjoy spreading negative rumors about others; they pit people against one another)

● **People with split personalities** (people who can be nice one minute and rude the next; they are often selective about who receives what behavior from them)

● **Those who are simply disgusting** (individuals who don't appear overly concerned with personal appearance or hygiene; these people often use bad language and are upsetting to others around them)

Suggestions For Dealing With Difficult People

The following suggestions are provided for dealing with difficult people:

● Sufficient **feedback** and information should be provided to the difficult person in a way that separates the individual from his or her behavior (for example, rather than calling someone rude when he or she does something inappropriate near your work area, you could say that it is difficult to focus on your work when the specific behavior is being performed or displayed).

● **Constructive criticism** based on a common goal can be expressed with the difficult person in a private setting. For example, if the difficult person did not finish his or her part of a shared job, and the result is that you cannot complete your work, point out that timely work completion on the part of the difficult person is helpful in the completion of the entire job, for which you are both responsible.

● Use of a **diplomatic and tactful approach** can help in communicating with difficult people without having to directly confront the problem. As an example, if you are trying to get work done and a noisy group has gathered in your work area, try to do something tactful to communicate the fact that you'd appreciate less confusion and noise. If this does not work, then use a more confrontive approach.

● When appropriate, try using **humor**, without being hostile or belittling the difficult person, to help communicate the person's undesirable behavior. Use of humor involving personal self-effacing behavior can be effective (for example, if the difficult person is loudly complaining about the horrible food at the company luncheon, you can point out that you may not be the best cook in the world, but you appreciate the food that someone has gone to the trouble to provide, and that you appreciate it).

● **Negotiate a solution** or strike a deal with the difficult person. Indicate that you'll do something agreeable for the difficult person if they, in turn, will change or discontinue their undesirable behavior.

Mediating Conflict Resolution

We have briefly touched on the subject of conflict resolution mediation. We'll now spend time discussing this issue in greater detail. We will also suggest some specific ways to handle negotiated and mediated situations.

Negotiation Behavior

Negotiation involves the realization of individual or group goals through the process of bargaining with another party who has some leverage or control over the attainment of desired goals.

The Negotiation Process

In the **negotiation process**:

● First, a party's goals must be identified.

● Second, a strategy or approach for the reaching of these goals should be determined.

● Third, a doable plan of action should be made.

While the overall plan is being developed, and prior to the actual negotiation process, the following factors are important to consider:

- One must determine how he or she will manage the negotiation process.
- Goals and objectives must be identified and prioritized.
- An agenda should be put together.
- Obtain an understanding of the party with whom negotiation will take place.
- Evaluate the needs and resources of the target party.
- Try to determine how the target party has behaved in past negotiations.

Negotiation Stages

The following are stages of the negotiation process:

● Time is taken for parties to become acquainted.

● Background and basic information is shared.

● Effort is made by one party to persuade another toward the first party's point of view.

● Negotiation is concluded through finalization of an agreement or contract.

Mediating Conflict Resolution

Sometimes individuals in organizations cannot solve their conflict without help from a third party. Often a supervisor or manager fills the mediation role. The typical process goes as follows:

● The mediator will bring the parties together for a joint meeting; or, if individual perceptions are so far apart or if tempers are too hot, the mediator will meet with the individuals in separate meetings.

● The mediator will try to get the parties to see one another's points and resolve the conflict. Impartiality on the part of the mediator is important; however, if rules or policies have been violated, the consequences attached to their violation will need to be applied.

The mediator should have the parties write their complaints first, then he or she should explain how the conflicting parties should express themselves orally when they state their disagreements using the following the **Gordon XYZ model**.

Gordon's XYZ Model
The XYZ model is designed to allow individuals to express themselves in terms of how they feel. It involves the verbalization by the affected party that when a specific behavior is performed by the other party in the conflict, something happens, and they feel a certain way, as a result. For example: ***When you talk to me while I'm inputting data on the computer (the behavior), I cannot focus on what I'm trying to do (the consequence), and I become confused and irritated (the feelings involved).***

● The mediator should use the following conflict resolution model during the interview:

1. Verbalize the disagreement or complaint using the XYZ model.

2. Come to agreement with regard to the problems involved. The focus should be on how the conflict affects work, versus placing blame on one another. Behavioral consequences should also be discussed.

3. Develop ways to solve the problems. Looking for a win-win solution, those involved should look for solutions to the problems that will end their negative emotions and consequences.

4. Agree to a change process and follow-up procedure. The parties should state what they will and will not do so that problems are resolved. The mediator should summarize what is stated to be sure everyone agrees. A follow-up meeting should then be set to see if there is an end to the conflict.

Collective Bargaining

In **collective bargaining**, a labor-management approach to negotiations, the following conflict settlement procedures are utilized:

- Dispute settlements directly with management
- Dispute settlements through voluntary arbitration involving a neutral third party.
- Dispute settlements using compulsory arbitration (usually involving the government).
- Use mediation involving a third party (with decisions being non-binding on the parties).

When a party has a grievance in connection with a contract, a specific grievance procedure is in place that specifies the steps needed to be taken by both labor union members or workers and company management.

Mediation: The Conflict Resolution Initiation Process

Let's now examine how conflict initiators wanting to end up with successful results approach the conflict resolution initiation process.

When an initiator confronts an appropriate authority about the conflict, his or her attitude will strongly affect the outcome of the confrontation. An appointment should be set for the meeting, and the focus should remain on a single important issue, versus trying to cover a number of problems at one time.

When an initiator confronts a responder to the conflict in a timely manner and in a state of emotional self-control, the chances of conflict resolution are greatly improved, particularly if a collaborating style of conflict resolution is used.

- The initiator should approach the responder with the problem and ask for the responder's help in solving the problem. Using the XYZ model, the problem should be stated in a way that will not put the responder on the defensive, but will open a problem-solving dialog. The problem should be stated in a descriptive way, without placing blame on any parties. The opening statement should be brief.

● The responder should be allowed to reply to the problem statement. After the reply, if needed because the responder does not admit that the problem exists or does not have a clear picture of the problem, the initiator should restate the problem in different ways until the responder understands or indicates that there is no hope in discussing the issue.

● If the responder sees that there is a problem but does not appear interested in its resolution, the initiator should appeal to common interests or goals and benefits that are derived from the problem's solution.

● An agreement for change should be made that would involve any specific action needed to solve the problem.

Now we'll look at conflict resolution from the responder's point of view. The following approach should be taken by responders who wish to be successful in conflict resolution:

● The responder should listen to what the initiator has to say. In many cases, initiators are not using the XYZ model in their description of the conflict. The responder will avoid being brought into a disagreeable discussion over who is to blame.

If the initiator is too emotional, the responder should indicate that the problem should be discussed at another time when everyone has calmed down.

● Next, the responder should restate the problem, using the XYZ model. The responder should ask for specific examples of behaviors that cause the problem. Once he or she has a clear understanding of these behaviors, the responder can ask for the results of the behavior.

Once the problem is understood based on specific behaviors and their consequences, the responder should repeat his or her understanding of these issues and how they make the initiator feel until there is agreement between the parties on the initiator's points of view.

● The responder will then point out areas of agreement between the parties, following which alternative solutions to the problem will be addressed. The responder should take a collaborative approach to solving the conflict versus using a forcing, avoiding, accommodating, or other style.

The solution or solutions arrived at should be agreeable and satisfactory to everyone involved, using a win-win approach.

● Finally, the responder will work with the conflict initiator toward an agreement for change that will resolve the problem. Each party's responsibilities should be specified in the plan and agreement, and all involved should restate what they have agreed to do.

The Role of Constructive Discipline in Management

Shifting gears, we'll now take a look at resolving conflict through **constructive discipline** of personnel in organizations.

When individuals become burned out, bored, or have other problems, they may be approached by their manager to help them get back on track. This type of situation involves constructive discipline.

Effective constructive discipline:

- Is a positive learning process
- Should be done in a private and timely manner
- Utilizes an appropriate emotional level
- Is accompanied by the mention of specific cases and situations cited by the manager
- Focuses on employee performance

In constructive discipline, the employee behavior is identified and a new behavior is established. If the behavior for which the employee is being disciplined is strong or serious enough, some form of punishment may be applied. A strategy for the positive reinforcement of the new behavior should be put into place by the supervisor.

Positive Discipline

The following are **positive discipline approaches** that may be used by supervisors in organizations:

- The employee may receive on oral warning.
- A written warning may be given to the individual.
- The employee may be given a compensated day off work.

Advanced Organizational Management:
Team Skills
Chapter 14: Conducting Meetings

Objectives: In this chapter, the student will review the following concepts:

1. Meeting planning and time management
2. Responsibilities relative to the conducting of meetings
3. Meeting follow-through

Introduction

Because meetings play such a large part in an organization's success as well as an administrative professional's work life, it is important to understand how to make them as productive as possible.

We'll now discuss various competencies and strategies involved in the effective conducting of meetings.

Planning Meetings

Research indicates that at least 50 percent of executive time is spent in meetings. And since all administrative professionals devote so much of their time and effort in activities preparing for, carrying out, attending, and following up on meetings, the need for team effort and meeting management skills are growing.

Meeting leaders carry the burden of carrying out successful meetings. Office professionals who do their homework and effectively manage and conduct meetings can minimize the following **common complaints about meetings**:

- There are too many meetings.
- Many meetings last too long.
- Too many meetings are unproductive and a waste of time.

Here are some overall **pointers for effective meetings**:

- Look at meetings as productive and integral activities that contribute to individual, team, and organizational effectiveness.

- Provide an effective agenda (used a timed agenda, if possible).

- Keep the meeting length and number of items on the agenda reasonable.

- Be sure all arrangements are made and that everything is in order before the meeting begins (i.e., materials, equipment, etc.).

● Appoint a secretary or meeting recorder for each meeting.

● Provide necessary materials and notifications to meeting attendees to be sure they are prepared.

● Use various communication approaches and techniques in the meeting (e.g., active listening, brainstorming, etc.).

● Be aware of and understand group dynamics and interactions.

● When appropriate, use a meeting facilitator.

● Understand and fulfill the role you have in the meeting; if conducting the meeting, understanding the leadership role involved.

● For meeting follow-up, clearly identify what needs to be done and who will follow through.

● Be sure all meetings end on time.

Planning Meetings

The leaders' and members' preparation for a meeting have a direct effect on the meeting's outcome. Unprepared leaders tend to conduct unproductive meetings. **Meeting planning** and involvement are needed in the following areas:

- **Setting of meeting objectives**
- **Participant selection**
- **Development of the agenda**
- **Setting of meeting time and location**
- **Making of assignments**
- **Assignment follow-through**
- **Leadership and followership**

The Meeting Plan

A written copy of the following meeting plan should be sent to members prior to the meeting. This plan should include the following items:

● Meeting time (location, specific date and time, meeting length, or beginning and ending times)

● Meeting objectives (purpose or objectives of the meeting)

● Those involved and their assignments (including meeting attendees' names and specific assignments and due dates, if any)

- Meeting agenda (numeric or priority order listing of items to discuss; include time limits, if applicable)

Meetings and Time Management

The management of time is critical when it comes to all aspects of meetings.

Time: A Critical Resource

We must not make the following assumptions about time:

- We can catch up tomorrow.
- We can do it later when we have more time
- Time is not lost, but postponed

We must remember the realities that time is:

- Our scarcest resource
- Unique because it is not replaceable or elastic

We need to analyze how we use our time in order to improve our use of time and to avoid wasting time.

Goals and Their Relationship to Time

Unless each of us recognizes our individual and business goals, we will have difficulty in determining how to spend our time and energy; indeed, we may feel a lack of motivation in meeting all of the tasks and activities that face us each day.

There are two **types of goals** (both long-term and short-term):

- **Self-selected goals**
- **Externally-imposed goals**

Barriers to Effective Time Management

In order to better control our time in a way that adds to our flexibility, we need to understand that time problems are created by:

- Our own work patterns
- The attitudes we hold
- Our individual behavior
- Others' expectations

For better **time control**, you should do the following:

- Isolate the real causes of wasted time.
- Analyze problems associated with time demands to improve time use.

Consider the following **time savers**:

- Make planning a high priority.
- Periodically review your job and how you do your work.
- Set specific daily and weekly goals.
- Create priorities based on importance instead of urgency.
- Do not allow others to set your priorities, whenever possible.
- Set priorities daily in a systematic way for yourself and others.
- Do the most important task during prime time.
- Take action and avoid procrastination
- Delegate work, whenever appropriate.
- Disallow others from delegating decisions or work to you, except as required.
- Use waiting time constructively.
- Make small decisions quickly.
- Review information selectively, if possible.
- Take a speed reading course.
- Reduce the number of drop-in visitors during working hours.
- Keep phone calls brief.
- Take calls during specific times, if possible.
- Return phone calls during self-scheduled call-back times.
- Insist on agendas for meetings.
- Stick to agendas and/or help keep meetings on task.
- Establish or suggest a method for problem-solving in meetings.
- Discourage unnecessary meetings.
- Be proactive in taking steps to avoid recurring crisis.
- Work to limit or control paperwork (handle each piece of paper only once).

The Importance of Effective Meetings

Meetings are utilized in organizations as a way of accomplishing work and reaching decisions on a range of issues. The **cost of meetings** can be direct (the cost of human resource compensation for those attending a meeting) and indirect (the cost of staff morale due to the holding of non-productive meetings).

In order to help you better understand the **role meetings play** in your business life, consider the following:

- All meetings you conduct or attend on a regular basis

- Specific reasons why these meetings are either productive or non-productive (take into account meeting structure and dynamics-related issues such as length, physical arrangements, size, etc.)

- Changes you can suggest to increase meeting productivity

Also, consider the following items in relation to meeting effectiveness:

- Identify techniques for effective meetings and how to implement and evaluate these techniques.

● Identify the most common and frustrating problems related to meetings.

● Recognize the importance of setting priorities and establishing team meeting goals.

● Achieve an understanding of the effect of group dynamics and communication behavior in meetings.

Conducting Meetings

We'll now consider issues related to the conducting of meetings.

The person conducting effective meetings and discussions has a responsibility to do the following:

Meeting Conductor's Guidelines
● **Be sure everyone participates** so that all points of view are brought out in the discussion. This will also help all group members buy into meeting outcomes and decisions.
● **Share meeting discussion time**--do not dominate the meeting.
● **Do not respond to each meeting participant**.
● **Utilize brainstorming rules in discussions** (i.e., do not allow criticism of ideas presented).
● **Focus on solving problems that can be fixed** versus holding lengthy discussions regarding things that cannot be changed by the group or team.
● **Assign small teams or task forces to research and evaluate topics and present recommendations** for the full group's consideration rather than taking significant meeting time to discuss issues that are not appropriate for the entire meeting group.

The Team's First Meeting

When a group or team is newly formed, it is in the orientation stage of its development. Members should have some time to get acquainted; however, the leader will utilize a high task role at this point.

Subsequent meetings will focus on agenda items and team priorities.

Providing Leadership in Conducting Meetings

Leadership needed in conducting and participating in meetings depends on the team's level of development.

Feelings can be caused by the meeting content, the members' perception of the group structure, and group dynamics. Consider the following team leadership approaches:

- Positive emotions should be promoted in the team.
- Negative emotions should be refocused in a positive direction.
- As either the leader or a member of a team, you need to concentrate on both verbal and nonverbal communications to help the team understand how its group dynamics are affected by the way it acts, relates, and performs.
- Watch team members as they listen to the person speaking. When team members show signs of being concerned or upset about a comment that was made, bring it to the team's attention and discuss it using active listening and conflict resolution skills used in conflict management. These skills are covered in the Resolving Conflict portion of this program.

Verbal and Non-Verbal Communication in Meetings

Communication is basic to all of our activities and is essential to a productive meeting. Good communication requires that we be aware of both verbal and non-verbal communication.

Interpersonal communication characteristics that help ensure successful relationships (and that should be kept in mind during team meetings) include the following:

- Be supportive and withhold judgment.
- Be open and willing to react honestly and communicate information about yourself.
- Demonstrate empathy--try to see things from the other person's point of view; understand instead of judge.
- Be positive in your expression of feelings and communication with others.
- Foster an environment of equality among team members--view others as worthwhile and able to make contributions to the team or group.

Other aspects of communication to consider in meetings include the following:

- **Feedback** (communication is an active and interactive process)

- **Active listening** (listen for meaning and intent--one should listen as effectively as he or she speaks)

- **Individual credibility** (individual credibility affects how people are viewed in communications)

- **Intrapersonal awareness** (one should be aware of his or her own internal thoughts, emotions, goals, etc.)

- The **Johari Window** (this includes the open self, blind self, hidden self, and unknown self)

Learning to use communication techniques in meetings is important to improving meeting quality.

Meetings and Team Problem Members

The following **meeting problem participant types** are important to consider when conducting or participating in meetings:

- **Silent team members**: All team members should participate in team discussion and feedback. If a person is quiet, the team leader or other members should encourage participation through one of the following methods:

    - **Simple rotation method** (each member takes a turn providing input and suggestions in team discussion)

    - **Nominal group method** (a process of creating an evaluating various alternatives through a structured voting method including the generating of ideas in writing, discussion of ideas presented along with their alternatives, team members voting on and eliminating ideas, and having a final team vote)

- **Those who talk a lot**: Some people like to dominate discussions. This can cause problems. The same methods used to help silent team members become more involved in team meetings can also help slow down talkers. Also, if someone is dominating the discussion, a comment can be made by a team member like, *Let's give some other team members a chance to discuss this issue.*

- **Bored team members**: Individuals who are bored and don't seem to be paying attention to what's being discussed in the meeting can be motivated by the person conducting the meeting. These individuals can be assigned to take minutes for the meeting or do other things that will help them become more involved.

● **Wanderers** and **distracters**: Some team members take the discussion topic away from the agenda, while others like to spend time complaining about problems. The person conducting the meeting can kindly get the group back on track. If a team member complains about something over which the team has no control, the person conducting the meeting can verbally remind the team that they cannot do anything about the problem and bring the meeting back to the agenda.

● **Argumentative team members**: There are team members who like to argue or be the center of attention. If they are not playing the devil's advocate, which can be productive, they may detract from the meeting's progress. The individual conducting the meeting should use non-argumentative conflict resolution techniques and try to keep the discussion moving in a positive direction.

Meeting Follow-Through

After the meeting is over, it is important to consider the following:

● Minutes or notes and follow-through assignments should be distributed to team members as soon as possible, especially when there are rush deadlines involved.

● Team members should complete their assignments by set due dates or times; a system should be set in place to hold team members individually accountable to accomplish their tasks.

In order to help improve team meetings, a meeting rating system may be established to provide team member feedback. Here are specific items that may be listed and rated on such a feedback instrument:

● A written agenda was provided (and the number of items provided was sufficient for the time allocated to the meeting).

● All necessary preparation was completed prior to meeting.

● The meeting began and ended on time.

● Discussion was encouraged by the person conducting the meeting.

● Sufficient discussion took place to arrive at a solution to problems reviewed.

● The team stayed focused on the agenda.

● The person conducting the meeting and all team members were respectful to one another.

● Action to be taken by the team was summarized at the end of the meeting.

- Team members considered the meeting as time well spent.

After feedback is received regarding meeting effectiveness, the team leader may consider finding and implementing ways to improve on future meetings.

Objectives: In this chapter, the student will review the following concepts:

1. Managing in a global environment
2. Global business management guidelines
3. Cultural issues impacting interpersonal business relations
4. Valuing and managing workforce diversity

Introduction

We live in a world comprised of many nations and cultures that are becoming increasingly economically interdependent upon one another. As we discover more about each other--and more importantly, as we learn to understand and value differences as well as commonalities between cultures, societies, and individuals--we can experience more productive and rewarding dealings and relationships.

Managing In a Global Environment

Organizations are extending all types of operations across national boundaries in business today creating global and multinational firms.

Companies typically go abroad when:

- They desire to have their markets and sales expanded.
- They are looking for lower labor rates.

Multinational Firm Strategies

The following strategies are commonly used by global organizations:

Multinational Organization Strategies
● **Exporting** (the first approach used to expand international sales)
● **Franchising**
● **Licensing** (a way to being international operations)
● **Joint ventures** (two or more companies investing in a business and jointly sharing risks)
● **Direct foreign investment** (when a business or entity invests in and controls an international company located in another nation)
● **Wholly-owned subsidiaries** (entities completely owned by a firm in a foreign country)
● **Strategic alliances** (actual or potential competitors establishing agreements to work together in one or more ventures)

Business and Trade Optimization

Business entities can optimize trade opportunities when the following factors are in place:

- When there is **free trade** (all trade barriers are removed between countries involved in free trade)

- When **economic integration** exists (two or more countries minimize trade restrictions and create the advantages of free trade; examples of economic integration include [1] a customs union, [2] common markets, and [3] a free trade area)

Globalization's Impact on Business

Because of **globalization**, the nature of work and jobs is constantly changing. The world is shrinking because of the increased use of electronic communications such as e-mail, faxes, and other computer-based and electronic media forms.

Global Management Issues

The following issues are encountered in management of global organizations:

- **Ethnocentrism** (one viewing the home country as having the best work practices and ways of doing business)

- **Parochialism** (individuals seeing the world in one way; not recognizing differences between people or cultures)

- **Geocentrism** (persons looking to advance their business or cause by use of the best practices and individuals in the world)

- **Polycentrism** (people believing that management from the country in which business is being done have the best ways of getting the job done in their organizations)

Each of these ways of seeing things has its advantages and disadvantages. However, once organizations learn the following concepts, they are on track to increased effectiveness and success in doing global business:

- It is critical to understand global issues.

- The best individuals and work approaches should be used, no matter what their origin.

- Management must have background in both domestic and global issues.

- Both domestic and global objectives should be taken into account in decision-making processes.

Successful Global Business Management

In order for organizations to compete successfully in international markets, a better understanding of the various societal cultures, national histories, and other forces involved should be obtained by individuals involved in the process.

The following issues must be considered and addressed by global enterprise management:

- Culture
- Language(s)
- History
- Economy and money issues
- Politics
- Control
- Transportation
- Communication
- Government involvement, obstructions, or interventions
- Labor and labor relations
- Contracts
- Finance-related issues

- Market research and advertising
- Trade barriers

Competitive Advantage Issues

In order for management of organizations to develop a competitive advantage, it must also successfully address the following issues:

- Cost of integrating the global effort

- Acquisition of the best personnel

- Utilization of problem solving designed for culturally diverse organizations

- Organization of a fluid system that allows for organizational flexibility

- Development of creativity by the fostering of an atmosphere and organizational culture that nurtures diverse viewpoints and reduces the need for conformity to organizational norms

Guidelines for Success as a Multinational Competitor

The following guidelines for success as a global competitor were developed by Robert Allo:

- **Be the first** to get to global markets.

- **Counterattack** in home markets.

- **Invest in new technologies**.

- Consider **alternative sourcing**.

- **Take early losses**, if needed.

- Understand **language and cultural nuances** of host countries.

- Use the right management personnel.

- **Collaborate** with international competitors who have expertise in other parts of the value chain.

Jeremy Main made the following recommendations with regard to organizations becoming globalized:

- Products that can be sold worldwide should be developed.

- Organizations should be particularly at home with and comfortable in North America, Asia, and European markets.

- Businesses should expand their thinking beyond national boundaries and think internationally.

- Profit centers should be based on nations and regions versus product lines.

- International strategic decisions should be made globally (i.e., research, products, capital, etc.); and local units should make tactical decisions (i.e. advertising, marketing, packaging, etc.). People in Japan say, Glocalize.

- Find allies and partners in markets you cannot penetrate.

- Open senior management to foreign personnel.

- Make the best decisions for the global organization, even if some domestic (home) losses are taken.

Understanding Cultures

We'll now review issues regarding international cultures and contexts that are important to understand when one conducts global business.

When we say contexts, we mean the degree to which situations influence individual perceptions or behaviors and the degree to which they are seen as appropriate in the culture.

The term **culture** refers to a set of behaviors, values, and assumptions that have gained value in a population and have been passed on in the group from one generation to the next.

Some cultures are termed high context, and others are referred to as low context. **High context cultures** cultivate the need for individuals to be closely attentive to situations and the variables involved. Appropriate behaviors are based on situational variables. **Low context cultures** place less importance on context variables.

Some low context cultures include those of:

- Canada
- United States of America
- Great Britain
- Germany
- Switzerland

High context cultures include those of:

- Japan
- China
- Korea
- Saudi Arabia
- Greece

Individuals from high-context cultures use body language and gesturing extensively in their communications.

It's important to understand cultural differences such as:

- Manners
- Gestures
- Attire
- Cultural customs and practices

Cultural Differences

Those who are culturally sensitive look for reasons why people of other cultures behave as they do. When individuals value differences and respect other cultures, they will be understanding of differences in habit, behavior, attire, and other cultural nuances. It is also important to note that there are differences in the various generations within cultures, and that an awareness of these generational differences can assist in the communication process and enhancement of relations between those involved.

Here are cultural values that differ and vary between cultures:

- Use of a high context versus low context approach to situations

- Perception of authority or levels of power by members of organizations

- Belief that individuals take priority over the society or group, or vice versa

- Emphasis on the concern for others versus assertive behavior and the desire to acquire things

- Ability for individuals to tolerate risk and behavior different from their cultural norm

- Stress placed on long-term relationships and outcomes versus the need for immediate results

- Need to get things done quickly versus a more casual approach to time

- Value attached to tradition and formality versus an informal way of approaching social norms, rank, and customs

Avoiding Cultural Mistakes

If you make a cultural mistake, you can be forgiven, depending on the size or frequency of the mistake behavior.

Here are some examples of specific **cultural differences**:

- French persons should be greeted in a polite versus informal manner: When addressing a man, saying *Very nice to make your acquaintance, Sir* is more appropriate than *Nice to meet you*.

- Persons from Great Britain appreciate having their royalty referred to with respect.

- Asians do not appreciate public hugging or hand shaking.

- Asians do not appreciate having personal accomplishments lauded.

- People from most countries enjoy developing business relationships versus immediately getting down to business.

- Small gifts should not be given to Japanese when conducting business.

- When an individual from Japan says he or she will consider an offer, he or she is really saying *No* to the offer maker.

- Japanese enjoy accepting business cards by taking the card in both hands and studying it.

- Japanese do not appreciate direct eye contact.

- Small gifts should be given to Chinese when conducting business.

- In China and other countries, last names are written first.

- In China, if you are asked if you've eaten yet, say *Yes*, as this means that you are being treated well (your belly is full).

- Leaving food on your plate in China shows the host that he or she was so generous that you are unable to finish.

- Eating with your left hand in some countries can be offensive.

- A person's rank should not be overly-stressed in Norway or Sweden; little attention is paid to hierarchy in Scandinavia.

- Be aware that waving is considered an insult in some countries.

- A goodbye wave can mean *come here* in some cultures.

- In Latin America, individuals have two surnames (fraternal and maternal). The first surname is how a person should be addressed (i.e., Juan Robledo Ramirez would be referred to as Senor Robledo. In Brazil, however, the same individual would be called Senor Ramirez.

- Outside of the United States, do not act upset if someone arrives late for a meeting (for example, in Latin America, individuals can arrive late by 20 minutes or more).

- Individuals from Saudi Arabia who arrived late for a meeting and sign an agreement may not intend to fulfill the contract, as they probably signed it to be polite because they were late for the meeting.

- In most countries outside North America, it's not civilized to hold breakfast meetings.

- Do not cross your legs or show the sole of your shoe in Middle Eastern or Asian countries.

- Do not use the American thumbs up gesture in the Middle East.

- The American OK sign is obscene in some countries.

- Do not snap your fingers in some European countries.

- Do not step away from people in some countries when conversing, unless you want to be seen as untrustworthy or cold (in Latin cultures, there is close physical proximity in conversations held among friends).

- In some countries, if flowers are being presented, give an odd number, as even numbers are considered bad luck (keep in mind, also, that red flowers also show romantic interest).

- Folding your arms across your chest means you are bothered or irritated in some Scandinavian countries.

- Nodding or tossing of the head can mean different things in different cultures.

Cultural Differences in Decision Making

Decision-making processes are handled differently by organizations in various countries. In some nations, many entities have top management who make decisions in a centralized, hierarchical, and autocratic way; in other countries, decentralized and participative approaches are emphasized.

Here are a couple specific examples:

● In Japan, decision making is generally done by consensus (they call the process *ringisei*).

● In Great Britain, instead of top level management doing all the decision making, mid-level managers make many decisions because they hold knowledge of the day-to-day business workings.

Overcoming Cross-Cultural Barriers

Here are some behaviors that will help overcome cross-cultural barriers:

Ways of Overcoming Cross-Cultural Barriers
● Speak slowly, clearly, and in a straightforward manner.
● Explain custom differences to prevent any misunderstandings.
● Be sensitive to nonverbal communication issues.
● Do not let accent, language usage, individual appearance, or other factors get in the way of communication.

Valuing and Managing Workforce Diversity

Organizations that are **diverse** are comprised of individuals of different races, genders, ethnicity, ages, and backgrounds. Tolerance for differences between individuals is high.

The workforce comprised of persons from many countries is becoming more common with each passing year. More women are entering the work place, in addition to an increase in the percentage of non-white persons and individuals of various international classifications and backgrounds.

Employees are also getting older in many Western countries. The baby boom generation is aging, and many individuals are also choosing to re-enter the work force.

Barriers in Dealing With Diversity

In the management of diversity, organizations are making and implementing their plans to maximize the advantages that diversity brings. The following barriers create opportunities for change in organizations:

● **Discrimination** (taking action against persons or groups of people)

● **Prejudice** and **stereotyping** (bias involved in the ascribing of behavioral traits to individuals because they are seen as members of a certain group)

- **Ethnocentrism** (extreme prejudice)

- **Gender roles** (associating a single gender with specific jobs or work roles)

- **Tokenism** (placing of a small number of persons of one gender into positions normally held by individuals of the other sex)

Efforts must be made to be sure that entities do not discriminate in their hiring practices. Diverse individuals are hired for their unique strengths. Many organizations provide special training to raise the awareness of diversity and its advantages among personnel. In strong cultures, diverse behaviors are likely to diminish when diverse individuals strive to fit into the organization, and businesses desire to have work forces that can bring about organizational missions.

Also, effective organizations strive to minimize and overcome negative gender and ageist stereotypes that affect women and older workers and create a handicap for these organizations.

Practices in Dealing With Diversity

In dealing with diversity, the following interpersonal characteristics and practices should be underscored:

- Rather than treating everyone alike, persons should recognize differences in individuals. Do not assume that everyone is alike or feels the same way about things.

- Practices that may be seen as racist, sexist, or otherwise offensive should be strongly avoided.

- Persons should respond to differences in a way that will emphasize and encourage desired behaviors.

- Tolerance and understanding for personal differences should be extended.

- In the communication process, descriptions should be made versus the making of evaluations or interpretations.

- Empathy should be practiced.

Celebrating Diversity

In the past, people who were different were expected to conform and blend in. Today, management is realizing more and more that diversity should be encouraged and celebrated. Consider the following:

- A wide range of perspectives adds to creative and successful organizational decision making and problem solving.

- Innovative ideas and unique strengths are contributed by people of varied ethnic and cultural backgrounds.

Coordinating Efforts to Encourage Diversity

In organizational planning, efforts of an entity are coordinated. Planning can provide the foundation for developing policies, practices, and training that encourage diversity through:

- Employee recruitment of diverse individuals

- Purchase of materials from diverse sources

- Development of products that take on diverse perspectives and meet varied needs

Management can do the following to maximize diversity in organizations:

- Value diversity.

- Demonstrate that diversity is an important organizational resource by what is said and done.

- Create an organizational culture that strongly encourages diversity.

- Minimize uncertainty associated with changing workforce demographics.

- Develop reinforcement systems that will encourage and embrace diversity within the organization.

In his book, The Seven Habits of Highly Effective People, Dr. Stephen Covey made the following observations:

The essence of synergy is to value the differences...

The person who is truly effective has the humility and reverence to recognize his own perceptual limitations and to appreciate the rich resources available through interaction with the hearts and minds of other human beings. That person values the differences because those differences add to his knowledge, to his understanding of reality. When we're left to our own experiences, we constantly suffer from a shortage of data...

Is it logical that two people can disagree and that both can be right? It's not logical: it's psychological. And it's very real...

You can value the difference in other people. When someone disagrees with you, you can say, Good! You see it differently. You don't have to agree with them; you can simply affirm them.

And you can seek to understand...

When you see only two alternatives--yours and the wrong one--you can look for a synergistic third alternative. There's almost always a third alternative, and if you work with a Win/Win philosophy and really seek to understand, you usually can find a solution that will be better for everyone concerned.

Advanced Organizational Management:
Advanced Communication
Chapter 16: Nonverbal Communication

Objectives: In this chapter, the student will review the following concepts:

1. Nonvocal communication issues
2. Paralanguage
3. Other nonverbal communications concepts

NOTE: Material in the chapter is also found in the Management For Administrative Professionals™ program.

Nonverbal communication involves the following:

- Nonvocal communication
- Paralanguage

Nonvocal Communication

Nonvocal communication includes:

Body movements, gestures, facial expressions, eye contact, touch, personal space, weight distribution, vocal expression, use of space and time, and dress.

Paralanguage is comprised of the following:

Vocal messages, or subtext, such as vocal tone, speed, pitch, volume, emphasis, and use of fillers and pauses.

Facial expressions are perhaps the strongest forms of nonvocal communication used by individuals. Eye contact and eye movement say a lot and make a big difference in the communication process. In some cultures, eye contact is not desirable when persons first meet. Prolonged eye contact between individuals can communicate threatening emotions or sexual interest. Eye contact between a public speaker and members of an audience can enhance involvement between the speaker and listeners involved.

Facial movements communicate feelings, emotions, and attitudes such as anger, surprise, fear, disgust, sadness, and happiness. Examples of facial expressions include upturned eyebrows, wrinkled foreheads, and squinting eyes. Persons sometimes try to mask their true feelings; and expressions can sometimes be misinterpreted.

People use **gestures** such as hand and upper-body movements to enhance verbal communications. If a person makes a gesture that is consistent with what he says, it tends to reinforce the communication. If the gesture does not match what is being said, the result may be confusion. For example, if an office visitor asks for instructions to locate the human resources department and she is told to go through the door and turn left, while the speaker points to the right, the visitor may become confused.

Gestures such as the crossing of arms over the chest may show disagreement or defensiveness. One may place his hands on his hips to show defiance or unwillingness to change his point of view; a reluctance to speak may be shown by one who covers her mouth.

Touch is a form of nonverbal communication that can be used appropriately in business to convey feelings extending from acceptance to appreciation. Lack of touch can communicate emotions of standoffishness and coldness.

Personal space and territory are important factors in nonverbal communications. Varying types of communications take place at different distances. In addition, cultural factors must be taken into account. Zones of interpersonal interaction include the following:

- **The intimate zone**: In this zone, close friends and family are welcome. Activities such as whispering, touch, and comforting take place here.

- **The personal zone**: In this territory, extending to about four feet from an individual, friends and associates are generally welcome. Some touching takes place in this zone; and persons will speak more loudly and use eye contact.

- **The social zone**: This zone extends out to about twelve feet from an individual. Little touching takes place, verbalization is louder, and nonverbal cues become more important. Most general conversations take place in the social zone.

- **The public zone**: At twelve feet and beyond, individuals communicate more formally in business. Speaking is louder and more formal, and visual cues may be difficult to see.

Space arrangement in the office can be used to make control of communication stronger or to make communication easier. For example, a desk placed between one person or another can formalize communication; whereas, when two persons are casually seated without any barriers between themselves, communication may be made less formal.

Posture can communicate clues nonverbally. Relationships between individuals and status can affect personal posture. For example, boredom may be shown when a person tips or leans her head and holds it with one hand. Typically, a supervisor may be more willing to show boredom than a subordinate. When one stands comfortably erect with free hand movement, feelings of self-confidence and goal orientation are communicated.

Weight distribution or body stance can communicate feelings. For example, when one leans slightly toward another, she can show involvement or interest in what is being communicated.

Physical appearance and dress strongly affect the nonverbal communication process. For example, a person's appearance strongly impacts the first impression he makes when meeting others. In addition, personal values and lifestyles are communicated by appearance and dress.

Personal attractiveness also impacts the way others see individuals. If others consider a person attractive, that individual will likely be perceived as intelligent or capable of leading others.

Time is also a factor in nonverbal communications. Status, culture, and situation are important factors to take into account. As an example, punctuality is more critical in North American cultures than in South American or Middle Eastern societies. In addition, your role in a meeting or activity will affect your promptness. If you are conducting a weekly staff meeting, you are more likely to be on time or early than if you are nominally involved.

Paralanguage

Specific **examples of paralanguage** or voice qualities are as follow:

1. Vocal tone impacts the way individuals are perceived.

2. When speaking quickly, and with a high-pitched voice, one may be considered nervous by others.

3. If one speaks too loudly, one may be thought of as insecure or overbearing. Persons who speak too softly may be seen as insecure.

4. When an emphasis is placed on certain words in a sentence or phrase, a para lingual meaning is conveyed. For example, "YOU were early to the meeting" indicates who arrived before the meeting began. "You WERE early" states that the individual involved did make it before the meeting began. "You were EARLY" places emphasis on the fact that the person was there before he or she was expected or needed.

5. The use of fillers and pauses can affect communication. As an example, pausing to look at someone while making a presentation can be interpreted in different ways, depending on the situation and what is said and done after the pause takes place: if the person was distracting the meeting, the pause and look may be communicated to ask that individual to draw his attention back to the activity.

When one uses the filler “um” frequently in a conversation, it may convey a lack of preparation or general sense of nervousness on the part of the presenter or conversation maker.

Other Nonverbal Communications Issues

Reading and listening may also be considered “nonverbal” communication activities.

The ability to read, take in, and analyze material is critical in business communications. Reading may need to take place in distracting circumstances; hence, making it important for persons to be able to read and consider issues when other activities are happening around them. The ability to read and understand large numbers of letters, memos, reports, and other materials becomes more important to the success of individuals who must review and evaluate written material as part of their daily work.

Listening skills are critical to the success of individuals in business, as well. Listening involves the ability to sense or receive information, interpret or assign meaning to the message being sent, make judgments about the message, and then react or respond to the message.

Types of listening include:

- Content listening (listening for a message)
- Empathic listening (listening to understand feelings)
- Critical listening (listening to understand a message’s meaning from various levels)

One can choose to be a polite listener or an active listener. Polite listeners appear to be focusing on what another is telling them, when in fact they are determining what their response will be while another is talking.

Active listeners concentrate on what the other person is saying, while trying to have an understanding of, and empathy for, the other individual.

An important tool to assist in the active listening process is the ability to ask questions and verify that the message was understood correctly.

Other keys to effective listening include the following:

- Be slow to judge (wait to hear the entire message).
- Feel and show an avid interest in what is being said.
- Focus on what is most important; don’t obsess over proper grammar use.
- Set aside personal biases.
- Learn to be quiet and allow the other person to fully express herself.

- Be willing to put forth an effort to listen carefully.
- Find areas of mutual interest.
- Maintain an open mind.
- Listen for concepts and taking only brief notes, if needed.
- Discipline the urge to constantly be thinking of what your reply will be.
- Rephrase ideas being shared by the other individual.

Here are a few suggestions for making the most of nonverbal communication:

- Smile in an authentic way at appropriate times.
- Keep an appropriate distance from others and use touch in ways that are viewed acceptable by the culture.
- Use eye contact in appropriate ways.
- Shake hands in a way that fits your intent and personality.
- Keep in mind that others are aware of the use of nonverbal cues in communication.

Advanced Organizational Management:
Advanced Communication
Chapter 17: Presentation Techniques

Objectives: In this chapter, the student will review the following concepts:

1. Public speaking
2. Oral presentations issues
3. Business presentations
4. Work team presentations

Note: Much of this information is also covered in the Office Administration For Administrative Professionals™ and Management For Administrative Professionals™ programs.

Speeches

Speeches are structured addresses generally delivered to groups of individuals. They are often given to provide information, to persuade, or to motivate others. Whether the address is given for a special occasion or for a pre-scheduled training activity, it must be organized for a specific purpose and based around a central idea.

In the speech preparation stages, the speaker must pre-assess his audience and obtain a feel for their opinions, motivations, and needs, particularly in relation to the topic to be discussed. Questionnaires and interviews are the most commonly-used tools for audience analysis.

Speeches are typically divided into parts:

1. The introduction, when the presenter obtains audience members' attention and establishes credibility

2. The body of the speech, when the speaker conveys main points and provides supporting data

3. The conclusion, when the speech-giver drives home the main points and hopefully leaves the audience with a positive, lasting impression with regard to the topic being discussed.

Speeches may be delivered from notes, memorized, read, or given impromptu without any prior formal preparation.

Here are some suggestions to overcome stress related to public speaking (or stage fright):

● Be prepared for the presentation. This will involve practicing your presentation and knowing your audience. You may wish to practice the presentation in front of a mirror.

● Think *success* and visualize yourself as doing well with the speech.

● Take deep breaths and have water handy during the presentation. A small drink of water periodically can overcome the dry mouth syndrome.

● The use of visual aids and tools will add to your success and confidence.

● If you make a mistake, keep moving along with the presentation. Chances are the audience will not even be aware of the problem.

Oral Presentations

Business Meetings

Business meetings may for the following purposes:

● To brainstorm ideas

● For briefings and the delivery of general information

● To assign and delegate tasks to members of a group

● To help obtain group consensus through persuasion

● To build morale or esprit de corps

● For the development of projects and for the collaboration of activities by a group

Guidelines to writing effective **collaborative communications**:

When a group of individuals develop a sales presentation or create a mission statement, they work together to come up with an effective communication. Someone needs to manage the project, and there need to be researchers, typists, writers, and editors involved to make it all come together in a productive way. Here are some guidelines to help in this process:

1. Choose effective team members and a group leader to facilitate communication and action.

2. Work for commitment and cooperation.

3. Establish clear project goals.

4. Assign responsibilities, lines of reporting, and deadlines.

5. Make sure everyone is technologically “in sinc” (i.e., use the same software types and versions, etc.)

6. Use technology to the benefit of the group for communicating progress and getting the work done.
Leaders or conductors of formal business meetings, involving company personnel and external parties, and informal business meetings, involving only company associates, should keep the following points in mind for an effective meeting:

- Set the time, place, and meeting length.

- Determine who will be involved in and invited to the meeting.

- Be prepared to define for the group the specific objectives that should be accomplished during the meeting.

- Set an effective tone for the meeting.

- Be able to place a limit on the tasks to be completed by the group.

The **meeting agenda** will be used to keep the meeting focus sharpened for group members. The meeting conductor should refer to an agenda throughout a meeting to keep it on track.

Meeting leaders can encourage group participation by asking questions of individuals whose feedback is desired or relevant to the topic of discussion.

Sometimes difficult people can make meetings a challenge. Difficult people who create these problems have the ability and intelligence to act otherwise.

The following suggestions are provided for dealing with difficult people in meetings:

1. Set a policy of equal speaking time among meeting participants to help curb individuals who want to monopolize the discussion.

2. Use of a diplomatic and tactful approach can help in communicating with difficult people without having to directly confront the problem. As an example, rather than having a confrontation with an individual who us ranting, raving, and carrying on in a meeting, ask the individual what can be done to overcome the problem, or set a time and place where the matter can be discussed later (after a cooling-down process has taken place).

3. When appropriate, try using humor, without being hostile or belittling the difficult person, to help communicate the person's undesirable behavior. Use of humor involving personal self-effacing behavior can be effective (for example, if the difficult person is loudly complaining in the meeting about the horrible food at the company luncheon, you can point out that you may not be the best cook in the world, but you appreciate the food that someone has gone to the trouble to provide, and that you appreciate it).

The meeting conductor is responsible to end the meeting in a timely manner. At the meeting's end, the meeting conductor should summarize what has been discussed and overview items that require future action and follow-through. Each individual meeting participant should clearly understand what he or she is to do and pertinent deadlines established during the meeting's discussion.

Those who attend meetings have responsibilities to add to the meeting's effectiveness by doing the following:

- Participate actively.

- Be prepared to discuss issues and report on items in an organized and concise manner.

- Listen carefully to what is being discussed by others and provide relevant suggestions and feedback.

- Avoid any discussion domination or control.

- Be supportive and avoid attacking individuals.

- Take stands on issues, but be willing to compromise and change.

Business and Work-Team Presentations

Business presentations are one of the most common forms of formal verbal business communications. Successful presentations involve effective use or development of the following:

- Advance planning
- Knowledge of material to be presented
- Respect for the audience listeners
- Presentation delivery
- Use of relevant illustrations or audio-visual aids
- Ability to respond to questions

Here are some specific ways individuals can enhance the success of their business presentations:

- Select an interesting and descriptive presentation title, if the presentation will be publicized in advance.

- Develop and rehearse the presentation thoroughly; and if possible, deliver a dress rehearsal for a friend or business associate. Ask for feedback with regard to improvements that can be made.

- Arrive early, start in a timely manner, and stick to time guidelines for the presentation.

- Dress appropriately and in a manner that is not distracting to the audience.

- Be organized with all materials.

- Be prepared for the unexpected, such as power outages or equipment not functioning properly--test all equipment and have it set in place in advance, ready to go on queue.

- Be able to present from an outline rather than having to read extensively during the presentation.

In addition, here are a few **suggestions for an effective presentation**:

- Communicate clearly by avoiding jargon, explaining abbreviations used in materials or visual aids, and by being coherent in the presentation.

- Use proper grammar.

- Be able to briefly summarize material covered.

- Learn how to correctly pronounce words used.

- Use relevant stories, examples, and illustrations that will involve and captivate the listeners.

- Stick to the central theme of the presentation.

- Develop concepts and ideas in a logical sequence.

Ideas are developed in a logical sequence when the following occurs:

- A foundation is developed
- The value and significance of ideas are explained
- Needed information is provided
- Speculation is distinguished from hard facts and evidence

- Specifics such as quotes and statistics are provided
- Questions are asked that lead the audience in the desired direction
- Sources are given credit

As mentioned, illustrations can significantly enhance an effective presentation. Here are some suggestions with regard to the use of illustrations:

- Use illustrations that are readable in size and legibility. They should be relevant to the points being made and appropriately labeled.

- Work with handouts, if they are used; and try to utilize them in a way that will minimize distractions from the presentation (for example, have them passed out when they will be discussed).

- Manual and electronic black boards and white boards can be effective tools in presentations (in addition to the use of computer-generated visual aids shown on screens or white walls).

The way material is delivered to the audience can have a major impact on the success of a business presentation. Keep the following in mind:

- Style or attitude
- Voice use and quality
- The use of body language and mannerisms

Here are a few specific ideas to keep in mind with regard to presentation delivery:

- Be yourself--be authentic.

- Be enthusiastic and dramatic at the appropriate times.

- Smile!

- Involve the audience in the presentation, whenever possible or appropriate (ask for a show of hands or other feedback; and if the presentation is lengthy, get audience members to stand or do some physical activity to perk them up).

- Relax—do not hurry the presentation (practicing the presentation in advance with this in mind should help).

- Use language that is vivid and conveys a personal touch.

- Speak with sufficient voice volume.

- Say words clearly and articulately (avoid using passive or negative language, unnecessary words, or clichés).

● Avoid a monotone voice by changing vocal speed, rhythm, and volume.

● Maintain one-on-one eye contact with audience members.

● Involve appropriate motion through facial and body gestures.

● Depending on the setting and space available, move around during the presentation.

At the end of the presentation, one should

● Summarize what has been presented.

● Underline the take-home value of the message by trying to leave a lasting impression.

● Express appreciation.

● Volunteer to answer audience questions presentation attendees may have (questions can also be taken during the presentation, as it progresses, if desired).

When answering questions

● Repeat the question, especially if it was not heard by the entire audience, and to verify that you understand what is being asked.

● Keep responses brief, to the point, and focused.

● If you don't have an answer, say so; or consider the following two options: (1) if appropriate, ask if someone else in the group would like to respond to the question, or (2) indicate that you'll do some research and provide the answer to the individual or group at a specific time in the future.

The Use of Visuals in Presentations

Let's now take some time to give more in-depth consideration to the use of audio-visual aids in presentations.

Here are some suggestions:

● First, plan your presentation visuals (don't just do them as an afterthought).

● Include only elements that support the primary message to be delivered.

● Keep the visuals clean, appealing, and attractive.

- Prepare visuals when

    - one or more concepts need to be simplified
    - clarification is needed
    - something needs to be emphasized or reinforced
    - a strong positive impression can be made through the visual
    - something needs to be made more appealing or attractive
    - material needs to be unified or summarized

When preparing visuals, consider the following:

- Decide the message for the visual.
- Keep a balance between words and pictures or graphics.
- Determine the best type of visuals or graphics to use.
- Understand how to implement graphic design principles.
- Use computer software programs to develop effective visuals.

Here are some types of graphics or illustrations to consider using in presentations:

- Bar charts
- Pictograms (symbols are used instead of words to portray information)
- Pie charts
- Surface and line charts
- Tables
- Maps
- Organization charts
- Flow charts
- Diagrams
- Photographs

Here are some things to consider when overhead transparencies and electronic slide shows are developed for presentations:

Consider using overhead transparencies when

- your visual is simple
- you want to write on the transparency like a blackboard or whiteboard
- economy is an issue

Drawbacks of using overhead transparencies include the following:

- They are awkward to use
- They can be difficult to change
- Transparencies are somewhat fragile

Slide presentations can be very effective. Here are some key considerations:

- Slides should be kept simple in nature.

- They should be focused on the presentation and the audience.

- Slides should be readable; the main point of each slide should be readily perceived.

- The design components included should be consistent (use of color and other graphic elements).

- Too much text should be avoided when using slides (attention is drawn from the presenter).

- The number of slides should be limited.

- Slides should be introduced by the presenter (an advance introduction is generally helpful).

- They can add to the overall effectiveness of the presentation.

- Special effects and animation can be used, especially when developing a free-running electronic presentation that does not require a presenter. PowerPoint® software is used to develop effective audio-visual tools used for presentations. A good place to check for help and pointers regarding use of PowerPoint is: http://www.microsoft.com/office/powerpoint

  Another Internet-based location to get help with presentations is: http://www.presentersuniversity.com

In electronic presentations, consider the following:

- Transitions: This is the action of one slide replacing another on the display monitor or screen. Here are slide transitions to consider:

  - Fade: One slide fades to black before the next slide is presented.

  - Split: A new slide grows vertically or horizontally from the screen's center point.

  - Wipe: One slide is replaced by a new slide moving over the old slide diagonally or from top to bottom.

  - Paintbrush: A new slide is painted in strokes over an old slide.

- Box: A new slide replaces an old slide by beginning at the middle and moving outward or by moving from the outside of the old screen and moving into the center of the previous slide.

- Blind: A new slide is presented like a series of window blinds in a series of vertical or horizontal rows.

- Checkerboard: A new slide replaces the previous slide by appearing in a series of boxes over the previous slide.

- Dissolve: Similar to the checkerboard technique, the new slide appears in boxes or other graphic elements over the previous slide.

- **Builds**: This is the action of graphics or material being added from one slide to the next while retaining material from the previous slide. For example, when listing a number of bulleted items, the first slide may show the main point, and the next slide will show that point followed by the first bulleted item in a list supporting that point. Additional slides are used to build the list.

- **Hyperlinks** (for computer-based presentations): The use of hyperlinks in a computer-based presentation enables the presenter to add interactivity to the slide show.

When presentations are made to large groups and in seminar settings, a presenter evaluation can provide feedback and help the presenter focus on the improvement of future presentation skills. Here is a sample presentation evaluation form:

Presenter Evaluation Sample

Name of Presenter ● Presentation Title ● Presentation Date

Name of evaluator (optional): ___________________________________

Please rate today's presentation by circling your rating of each delivery issue listed below and providing additional comments and feedback, as desired. Your time and feedback are very much appreciated!

Delivery Issues	Poor			Satisfactory				Outstanding	
Maintaining attention	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Delivery - timing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Presenter Approach									
• voice	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
• eye contact	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
• gestures used	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
• breathing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Audio-visual aids									
• text amount	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
• simplicity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
• key point clarity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
• fonts used	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
• exactness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
• use of aids	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

Additional comments and feedback:

Strengths	
Weaknesses	

Work-Team Presentations

Work-team presentations are held when information about complex projects needs to be communicated. Oral presentations delivered by work teams need to be carefully coordinated and planned in order for them to be successful. Team members with specialized expertise in each area of discussion should be asked to cover that specific portion of the presentation.

The business **presentation development process** is as follows:

- The purpose of the presentation is clearly identified.
- Individuals to be involved and their specific roles are determined.
- The audience is defined.
- Presentation type is set based on what is considered most appropriate (for example, decide the presentation approach to use based on the audience size, persons involved, length of time, facilities available, importance of the presentation, amount of material to cover, the handling of audience feedback, etc.).
- Data and information relevant to the presentation are defined and organized.
- A presentation outline is developed, including an introduction, purpose, and organization of the presentation.
- Effective visual aid and handout tools are identified and developed.
- Determination is made with regard to the handling of negative information that may need to be discussed.
- The business presentation is practiced by team members.
- Just prior to the presentation, be sure everything is set up and working properly.
- The presentation is delivered.

After delivery of the presentation, the team should assess how it went and determine follow-through that needs to take place from that point.

Small Group Meetings

Meetings between individuals and small groups are often held in organizations. For example, meetings with supervisors, with those supervised, and with peers. When these meetings are informal in nature, the following issues should still be kept in mind:

- The meeting needs to have a specific purpose
- Pre-set objectives and meeting outcomes need to be established and understood
- A pre-determined meeting time length must be set by the supervisor or individuals involved

Advanced Organizational Management:
Advanced Communication
Chapter 18: Legal Issues

Objectives: In this chapter, the student will review the following concepts:

1. Intellectual property issues
2. Computer denial of service attacks
3. Confidentiality
4. E-mail
5. Privacy rights

NOTE: Some material found in this chapter is also featured in the Management For Administrative Professionals™ program.

Legal issues examined in this chapter include:

- **Intellectual property**
- **Fraud and scams**
- **Computer Denial of Service Attacks**
- **Confidentiality**
- **E-mail**
- **Privacy rights**

Intellectual Property

Intellectual property owned by industry includes:

- **Patents (inventions)**
- **Trademarks**
- **Trade secrets**
- **Industrial designs**
- **Geographic indications of source**

Technological intellectual property areas to consider include:

- Computer programs and software, with related patents and copyrights

- Reprography, especially as it impacts audio and video recordings

- Biotechnology, with issues such as genetic engineering and patents

- Communication technologies, including cable distribution, satellites, digital distribution systems, electronic commerce, and the Internet

Cable distribution: Distribution of copyrighted information via cable distribution is covered internationally under the Berne Convention affecting copyrighted data. Technological improvements impacting cable television delivery have impacted how and by whom copyrighted data is received and paid for.

Satellites: Satellite broadcasting has raised a number of issues and questions with regard to intellectual property and copyrights. Access to data sent is sometimes limited to those who pay a fee to enable decoding of the data being transmitted.

The Internet: New challenges have been posed to intellectual property holders by the Internet, which is a relatively inexpensive medium through which digital data can be readily and easily transmitted.

Digital distribution systems: These systems, including the Internet, have brought about fundamental changes in the way data is disseminated, used, and shared. Audiovisual works can be disseminated in real time, and eventually video cassettes or DVDs may be replaced as a principal distribution method for these types of copyrighted works.

Electronic commerce: E-commerce provides near instantaneous access to entertainment, software, travel, news, financial, and e-mail products and services over the Internet (in addition to commercial access to tangible products and services). It has dramatically affected and changed the way persons, organizations, and governments organize themselves, interact together, and conduct their business; buying, selling, trading, and advertising are all strongly impacted by e-commerce; and e-commerce has provided an excellent way for organizations to reduce procurement, production, inventory, sales, and distribution costs involved in doing business. In addition, information access is readily available worldwide to clients, customers, and other parties 24 hours a day.

The implications of electronic commerce are enormous. When intangible property is provided over the Internet, they are delivered directly and instantaneously--often times over international borders, without restriction. This brings into play many intellectual property questions and issues such as the determination of how law applies, which jurisdictions are involved or impacted, contract validity and enforcement, etc.

Some key concepts involved in the area of intellectual property include:

- Intellectual property rights
- Fair use
- File sharing and peer-to-peer issues
- Piracy
- Digital asset management and rights

Copyrighted intellectual property includes:

- Artistic works (such as drawings, photographs, paintings, sculptures, and architectural designs)
- Literary works (such as novels, poems, films, plays, and musical works)

Parties most concerned with copyrights include:

- Performing artists
- Producers of recordings
- Radio and television broadcasters

Patents, copyrights, and trademarks are intangible assets to an individual or company. They are designated to protect rights to works created by the inventiveness or ingenuity of an individual.

Patents: Patents are exclusive rights given one by the government to use specific processes or to make a particular product or invention. The process or product, in order to be patented, will provide a new way of doing something or give a new technical solution to a problem. Generally speaking, the life of a patent is 20 years in the United States and Canada.

Copyrights: Copyrights protect the owner of literary and artistic works against unauthorized reproduction of art work as well as written and recorded works.

A copyright is active during the life of the author(s) and for 70 years after the death of the last surviving author in the United States. In Canada, the duration of copyrights is the same, except that it is good for 50 years beyond the death of the last surviving author.

Trademarks: Trademarks are distinctive designs. Trademarks give one the right to use identifying symbols, terms, and names. In Canada, trademarks and trade names have a 15-year registration term. Further 15-year terms may be attained indefinitely.

In the United States, trademarks registered with the U.S. Patent and Trademark Office before November 16, 1989, are given a 20-year term; and they are renewable every 10 years thereafter. Trademarks filed after November 16, 1989, have 10 year terms, with the option to renew every 10 years thereafter.

The Trademark Revision Act of 1988 created modifications in U.S. trademark law. Registration of a trademark with state or federal agencies is no longer required under the new law; however, registration does provide proof of the date of mark use inception. Registration may also prolong the life of the trademark.

Other countries may have varying trademark term lengths and conditions.

When patents, copyrights, and trademarks are used by unauthorized parties, they may be subject to potential penalties.

For example, many records and tapes include printed wording expressly forbidding illegal copying of the recording, warning of penalty by law if unauthorized duplication takes place.

When registered terms become so commonly used that they are mistaken as the actual name of the good or service, such as the words *aspirin* and *cellophane*, these terms become generic, or commonly used, and they then lose their ability to be registered by one party for their exclusive use.

Fair Use

Copyrights provide protection to authors or creators of written, artistic, and recorded works. There are times, however, when it is fair for individuals to use or copy a limited amount of a copyrighted work for one of the following purposes:

- To make a comment or criticism of the copyrighted work
- In the form of a parody of the original work (to ridicule the work or imitate it in a comical way)
- To transpose or juxtapose the original work to take on new meaning or new insights
- For news reporting

The fair use defense also takes into account the following considerations:

- Use (whether personal or commercial in nature)
- Purpose (education, entertainment, information, etc.)

Fair use of copyrighted material is also a consideration in the field of education. The fair use of copyrighted material must take into account the following four factors:

- The nature of the work
- The character and purpose of the work's use
- The amount of material used from the work
- The effect of the use of the work on the market sales potential of the copyright holder

It is never a fair use of copyrighted material for an individual or party to copy or use an entire work without receiving permission of the copyright holder or without purchasing or otherwise using the entire work according to the requirements of the copyright holder. Any part of the work, however, that is part of the public domain (or free for anyone's use at any time because of the length of time that has elapsed since the last date of copyright) may be used by anyone without permission.

Limited portions of educational works can be used for educational purposes under the "fair use" defense used in copyright law cases in most countries.

Here are some more examples of fair and non-fair use of copyrighted materials:

- Home video taping of television programs is considered legal in the United States because it involves "time-shifting," instead of "library-building." The U.S. Supreme Court indicated that the copyright owners were not deprived of revenue because persons delayed watching broadcast programs.

- Without receiving permission from the copyright holder, in a news program, a television broadcast company used a climactic film clip from a full-length motion picture to spotlight the life of the film's star. Such use was determined "not fair" by a U.S. court of law because a substantial part of the "heart" of the film was used.

- A small portion of a song was used in a television program. Because only a portion of the song was used, and it was incidental to the main message being broadcast, this case was considered "fair use."

Trade secrets held by companies include the following:

- Patterns
- Formulas
- Physical devices
- Processes
- Unique ideas and concepts

Trade secrets give businesses a competitive advantage in the market place. For example, Coca Cola has a secret formula for its drink Coke®; and KFC (Kentucky Fried Chicken) has the Colonel's secret recipe.

Companies will often go to great lengths to protect their trade secrets, by keeping them locked up in secure locations, by limiting the number of individuals who have access to knowledge about them, and by securing agreements with individuals who have knowledge of these secrets.

Among other things, the **protection of trade secrets** enables companies to

- Protect special formulas, as noted above

- Keep other business information secret (such as customer lists, marketing plans, and new product lines)

- Protect new product ideas

- Prevent competitors from learning about special technical or functional attributes of products (such as new software operational secrets)

- Protect research and development information about the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of items or processes

Trade secrets are protected when the owner prevents others from copying, using, or benefitting from the trade secrets; in addition, trade secrets should not be disclosed to other parties without the permission of the trade secret owner.

The following are bound to keep trade secrets:

- People who sign nondisclosure (confidentiality) agreements

- Individuals who come into contact with a trade secret as part of their job

- Persons who learn about a trade secret by accident or mistake and have reason to understand that they have obtained a protected trade secret

Intentional theft of trade secrets is a crime punishable by laws at various governmental levels in most countries. In the United States, most states have adopted some version of the Uniform Trade Secrets Act.

It is not a violation of trade secret law to learn of a trade secret independently or by using legal means. For example, when a product is legally obtained, an individual may analyze it to determine any trade secrets involved. One way of analyzing something is through a process called reverse engineering. Many software developers include a statement in user license agreements indicating that the product end-user, as a condition of using the software, will not engage in reverse engineering of the program.

Companies may enforce trade secret rights by

- Requesting a court to issue an injunction (or court order) against an individual or parties prohibiting them from further disclosure of the secret

- Obtaining economic damages, through due process of law, for losses incurred by the incorrect obtaining and use of trade secrets

In order for a trade secret to be enforced in a court of law, the trade secret owner must prove that the

- Trade secret provides the company with a competitive advantage in business
- Information is maintained as a secret by the company

Emerging Issues

Emerging issues with regard to intellectual property involve the following areas:

- There is the challenge of striking a balance between pharmaceuticals patent rights and persons' access to drugs.

- Internet domain name disputes are increasing.

- Intellectual property rights with regard to traditional knowledge and folklore have yet to be well defined.

Industrial Designs

Industrial designs involve the aesthetic appearance or ornamental aspect of an item. The design may consist of two-dimensional lines, patterns, or colors used on an article; or, it may involve the shape or surface of the item.

Industrial designs are used in housewares items such as electrical appliances, vehicles of various types, textile designs, jewelry, medical instruments, and architectural structures.

Protection of industrial designs is provided based on aesthetics and eye appeal. It does not cover technical features of an item or article.

Geographic Indications

A **geographical indication** is a sign used on goods or products that come from a specific geographical location. The reputation of the product is often based on the fact that it has come from a certain place. For example, "Roquefort" cheese is made in this location in France. Under both European Union and United States law, this geographic indication has regulation or registration mark protection.

Digital Asset Management

Digital asset management involves the centralized management of all digital content materials, including print, images, audio, and video material or data.

Media asset management and digital asset warehousing are other ways of describing digital asset management. Originally-popular systems designed to organize and store digital data include Imation's Media Manager, Bitstream's MediaBank, and the Quark Digital Media System. In addition, third party firms organize and store data for individuals and organizations.

In digital asset management, parties who have rights in the intellectual properties involved are concerned with the protection of their rights. The following concepts are technological innovations in this area:

- Digital **water marking** and data-hiding technologies to help ensure the integrity, privacy, and confidentiality of multimedia content
- Registries for intellectual properties
- Technologies to recognize signatures on digital images and detecting watermarks
- Technologies to help protect materials against copyright abuse

File Sharing and Peer-to-Peer Issues

Those who are involved with peer to peer file sharing need to be aware of copyright laws affecting data being shared. Those who contribute to the copyright infringement of an end-user may be liable for contributory or vicarious copyright infringement (for example, Napster, which provided a means for individuals to freely obtain copyright-protected music over the Internet).

Parties who knowingly contribute to another's infringement of a copyright may be found infringers of copyright law. Here are elements that must be present for a party to be a contributory infringer:

- An act of direct copyright infringement must take place.

- The contributing party involved should have been aware that the infringement was occurring.

- The contributing party "materially contributed" to the infringement.

Piracy

Piracy involves the theft of intellectual property for economic gain. Piracy negatively impacts creativity, investment, and healthy e-commerce. The most commonly pirated intellectual property forms are:

- Music
- Motion pictures
- Computer software

Music piracy's most common source is the Internet. Napster and Scour are examples of tool makers who have contributed to the copyright infringement of end-users.

Digital piracy is the unauthorized copying, access, or transmission of works in digital form. Much of this takes place over the Internet. Research reveals that a vast majority of software sold via Internet auctions is counterfeit.

Security features being used to help protect original software include:

- A Certificate of Authenticity (COA), included by the software reseller with the software sold

- Holographic images imprinted on the actual software CD

Software end-users need to use care to purchase original software to avoid viruses that are found more frequently in pirated software. In addition, consumers should make a special note of the following suggestions with regard to digital piracy:

- Know with whom you are dealing.

- Be sure and get a street address and telephone number when transacting with on-line vendors.

● Deal only with on-line providers who provide an adequate description of warranties and return policies.

● When purchasing software, be sure you obtain all documentation, original CDs, and Certificates of Authenticity (where applicable or available).

● Beware of prices that seem extremely below market prices for the same or similar items.

● Beware of products being sold that appear different in offering and appearance than items available through legitimate channels.

● Beware of sellers who are making special deals based on inventory reductions and bankruptcies.

Computer Denial of Service Attacks

Denial of service attacks involve the use of software to cause networked computers to crash or disconnect from the network. They are also referred to as nukes, hacking, and cyber-attacks.

The best way to avoid such attacks is to patch computer software against all known weaknesses (for example, Microsoft software patches are available on-line at one of their Internet web sites). In addition, "firewall" software may be purchased to provide protection against denial of service attacks.

Attacks on operating systems exploit inherent bugs in the operating systems (for example, Microsoft Windows 2000).

Attacks on networks exploit inherent networking limitations to cause disconnections from your network or Internet Service Provider (ISP). Attacks generally include (1) large floods of data to overwhelm a computer connection capacity and (2) spoofed redirects that create a "disconnect mode" cutting off the network connection.

The areas of privacy, confidentiality, and fraud will be reviewed next.

Confidentiality, E-mail, and Privacy Rights

The areas of confidentiality, e-mail, and privacy are both independent and interdependent in nature. We'll now discuss key issues relating to these areas and determine how they impact individuals and organizations.

Non-Disclosure Agreements

Confidentiality agreements are established to impose obligations to keep information restricted and private.

In a confidentiality agreement

- Confidential issues are first delineated.

- Parties involved are identified.

- Roles of the parties are outlined (i.e., Party A is the owner of the confidential information, and Party B is the individual who promises to keep the information confidential).

- The duration of time for the keeping of confidences is established.

- When relevant, confidential information is also identified as a trade secret.

The following **types of confidentiality agreements** are used:

- Disclosing party confidentiality (the rights of the disclosing party are emphasized in this agreement, and strict confidentiality obligations are placed upon the person receiving the confidential information)

- Receiving party confidentiality (less strict confidentiality obligations are placed upon the party promising to keep the information confidential)

- Reciprocal confidentiality (this agreement takes into account the following: confidential information received by Party B from Party A, and confidential information receiving Party B may also give to Party A under the agreement)

Electronic Mail

In most cases, when an electronic mail system is used at a company, the employer can monitor and review electronic mail, including web-based e-mail accounts and instant messages. If a company provides for a private e-mail message option, such messages may still be excepted and not allowed to be kept confidential to the message sender.

E-mail messages that are deleted from a computer are still in the system (as they are often permanently backed up on magnetic tape).

In United States, the State of New York has ruled that all privileged information retains its privileged nature, whether or not it is transmitted electronically. This impacts the following types of communication:

- Attorney-client privileged information (confidential messages transmitted between a client and his attorney)

- Physician-patient privileged data (confidential messages sent between a patient and physician)

- Spousal privileged messages (confidential data sent between spouses)

The United States Electronic Communications Privacy Act also disallows the interception, disclosure, or use of electronic mail messages by communications service providers.

In many places, e-mail is given the same privacy expectation as other forms of communication (via mail, fax, and land-based telephone calls).

For security purposes, organizations may consider the following factors with regard to electronic communications:

- Means to prevent hackers from obtaining electronic information
- The amount of time data resides on a network-based computer
- Appropriation of data (where or to whom it is sent)
- Data encryption and decryption to provide added security for sent data
- Confidentiality and retention of data
- Amount of electronic data saved (i.e., it should not be more than what an organization saves in hard-copy form)

Organizations may establish policies with regard to electronic communications and then communicate those policies to the individuals allowed to have use of and access to the electronic communications process provided by the organization. Generally, when a policy is set in place, it is legally binding. Here are considerations with regard to this area:

- An organization may obtain the consent or authorization of a communicator prior to inspection, monitoring, or disclosure of his electronic communications.
- Emergency circumstances, as defined by the organization, may apply to access of electronic communications. Authorization of the communicator may or may not be required.
- Organizations should provide for compliance with the law (and policies it has established).
- Recourse should be allowed for communicators who feel actions were taken in violation of law or the set organizational policies.
- Organizations may monitor or observe communications involved with organizational resources to determine that its resources and services are being utilized appropriately.
- Privacy of electronic mail communication may not be affected if wrong-doing is suspected.

Telephone Conversation Privacy

With regard to **telephone privacy**, many areas provide for the protection of private information transmitted in telephone calls unless a court of law has approved the monitoring or recording of conversations. Emergency services 911 telephone calls are recorded in accordance with federal and other law regulations.

Telephone conversations may be monitored by organizations for various purposes when notice has been given to all parties by the monitoring party. Often the notice comes in the form of a recorded notice at the beginning of the call or a beep tone sounding during the conversation. Generally telephone monitoring is done for training or quality assurances purposes.

Generally, voice mail received from a company can be reviewed or monitored by businesses.

Employers may use pen registers to obtain a record of employee phone calls, the number dialed, and the length of time spent on each call. Often employers use this record to monitor employees with jobs in which a telephone is frequently used.

Computer Monitoring

Several types of computer monitoring may be done on organizational computers without an employee's knowledge during the time of monitoring:

- Keystroke monitoring may be used in connection with data-entry and word processing work done on the job.

- On-screen and stored data entry, including Internet web surfing and electronic mail, may be monitored by the use of software owned by the organization.

- Terminal idle time (and the time an employee spends away from the computer) can also be tracked by organizations.

Privacy Rights and Other Related Issues

With the advance of electronic communications technologies, many issues have arisen with regard to personal privacy and its associated rights and privileges. Privacy with regard to legal activities is protected in many areas. The following are relevant issues with regard to privacy:

- Wireless communications (when communications use any form of broadcast medium, such as non-digital cordless or cellular telephones or pagers, the conversations or data may be heard by others).

- Your medical information or related records may be retained in a medical insurance database.

● Parties may have access to your credit report or credit record if they have certain personal information about you (such as your social security number).

● Employment background checks may be done on individuals.

● Financial privacy can be enhanced by opting out of having information made available to various parties by financial institutions with whom you do business or have applied for credit.

Employment Testing

As with many areas in employment, there are legal implications involved in the area of employment testing. Employers must not use tests or other tools to unfairly discriminate against groups that are protected by law. In addition, tests must be valid (measure what they are designed to measure) and reliable (consistent in scores rendered).

Employers use various types of tests for job applicants and current personnel:

● **Skill assessment tests**: Exams designed to indicate individual performance in specific competency areas (i.e., the Office Proficiency Assessment and Certification™ entry-level office assessment exam for potential and current employees).

● **Drug testing**: Tests performed on individuals to indicate the presence of certain drugs that may adversely impact work performance; such tests include pupillary-reaction tests, eye-hand coordination tests (with use of video), hair analysis tests, and body fluid testing.

● **Interest tests**: Exams designed to learn more about the job candidate's personal interest and motivations.

● **Personality tests**: Tests indicating personality traits and qualities.

● **Honesty tests**: Tests designed to reveal information about a potential employee's honesty; polygraphs are the most expensive and least used form of honesty test (a less expensive approach is a "paper and pencil" honesty test).

● **Graphology assessments**: Handwriting analysis is done to help assess certain characteristics of potential employees; this is not the most reliable testing type, however.

● **Cognitive tests**: Tests that measure the intelligence quotient (IQ) or other specific abilities (such as numeric aptitude or understanding of mechanical concepts) are sometimes used by employers.

● **Achievement tests**: These exams measure what an individual has learned in addition to abilities the candidate has in a specific area or field of study.

● **Physical examinations**: Exams used to help determine one's fitness and ability to perform specific job-related tasks.

A Note on Drug Testing

Drug testing has become commonplace among employers in the screening of potential employees. Employers can require individuals to be tested for illegal drugs; and they can deny employment to persons who test positive to certain drugs. Some firms, however, are beginning to have second thoughts about drug testing for three primary reasons: (1) the cost involved, (2) tight job market for certain positions, and (3) the time it takes to receive test results.

A high percentage of persons who receive positive drug test results will not be hired by most organizations performing drug testing.

Fraud and Scams

On the top of the fraud list is identity theft that occurs when someone steals information about another individual to use it for fraudulent purposes.

Identify theft can happen to anyone--even if personal information is closely guarded. All persons are reliant on businesses, organizations, and governmental agencies that possess personal information to handle it with care and keep it secure.

The following forms of personal information are at risk of identify theft:

● Social security (or equivalent) numbers
● Credit, debit, and ATM cards
● Checks and checking account statement information
● Date of birth information
● Financial account passwords and numbers
● Credit report data
● Bills and statements
● Calling cards
● Name and address information
● Personnel records
● Pre-approved credit card offers

There are ways to protect valuable information about yourself, such as the following:

● Keep important documents locked up in a safe place.

● Do not leave credit cards or other information out in the open--at home or work.

● Keep credit cards in a folder separate from your wallet.

● Use calling cards discreetly so others cannot obtain details.

● Do not provide vital or credit card information when a cellular phone is in use, as the data is broadcast and available to eaves-droppers.

● Use a driver's license or other number instead of your personal social security number, whenever possible.

● Do not leave wallets, pocketbooks, or purses in easily-accessible places, when you are in public.

● Remove mail from unsecure mailboxes promptly (and put a hold on your mail when you will be out of town for a period of time).

● Shred all unused credit offers you receive.

● When making on-line credit card payments, be sure you have a secure site that encrypts vital data sent. The way to tell is if the address bar at the top of the screen reads "https" or "shttp" instead of the normal "http" notation. A padlock icon should also be displayed.

● Do not provide your personal account passwords to others.

● Check on organizational privacy policies when doing business with others.

● Verify that your employer securely locks files containing personnel records; verify that access is limited to these files.

● Be aware of your rights as a credit or debit cardholder (for example, there are credit and debit card liability limits).

● Check credit reports once annually to be sure everything is in order; credit reports can be ordered from, and fraud can be reported to, the following three major credit bureaus in the United States: Equifax (in Atlanta, Georgia), Experian (in Allen, Texas), and Trans Union (in Fullerton, California); credit bureaus have locations in other countries, as well.

Companies and employees of businesses need to take special care to do the following:

- Provide a secure workplace (both in terms of the physical facilities and computer data).

- Ask personnel only for essential personal information.

- Train personnel to securely use and maintain personal information about clients and customers; for example, do not leave files containing personal information unattended or in non-secure places (this includes personal data that can be displayed or accessed via computer); and monitor personnel to ensure that the personal information of others is not being misused.

- Allow only authorized personnel to have access to clients' personal information.

- Do not allow personal information about clients to be exposed to the outside world (for example, private information that can be seen through part of a window envelope in a mail piece).

- Protect the privacy of data transmission via e-mail, fax, and other forms.

- Use great care when providing personal information about your clients.

- Ask for permission to share personal information about clients. Give clients the chance to decline to have personal information disclosed, unless required by law.

In addition to identity theft, there are other forms of fraud and scams that are common--especially connected with telephone and Internet communications. Business organizations should do the following to help avoid scams:

- Do business with parties you know and those with whom you have built a level of trust.

- Check all invoices carefully to be sure they are legitimate and accurate.

- Obtain business transaction details and promises in writing.

- Make sure personnel understand roles and responsibilities with regard to possible fraud and scam activities.

- Protect financial and other account information (for example, be sure all business checks are securely maintained and accounted for).

Just as many e-mail messages containing viruses and worms are designed to lure recipients to open them so they can do their damage to the recipient's computer, many scams and forms of fraud are perpetrated by individuals to lure others into spending their money with little or no intent for anything to be provided in return.

Common forms of Internet and telemarketing fraud include the following:

- **Advance fee loans**: When a party is out to steal your money via a promise to make you a loan or help you obtain one.

- **Charity scams**: If you question whether or not a charity claim is legitimate, check with a governmental charities regulator or the Better Business Bureau. Always learn what percentage of the funds actually goes to the charity.

- **Business opportunities**: Many such opportunities, especially sent by e-mail, are fraudulent. Do research, investigate earnings claims, and ask for a written disclosure statement before making any commitments.

- **Job scams**: Some parties promise a good paying job, but there should be no "up-front" fee.; If a legitimate agency requires a finder's fee, it should come after the job is obtained--and often this fee is paid by the employer.

- **Credit card loss protection**: Know your rights with regard to the amount of funds you are responsible for if improper charges have been made to your credit card; and extra loss protection may be free with your card issuer.

- **Merchandise sales**: Purchase only from reputable sources. Try to obtain a physical address for the business. Inquire about returns and warranties. Consider using an escrow or alternate payment service.

- **Scholarship scams**: Scholarship search services always charge and often attach rules making it impossible to obtain a refund. You should know who you are dealing with or do your own scholarship search.

- **Special money offers**: This occurs when someone, generally by e-mail, contacts you to offer you millions of dollars. These promises are never true; and if they get any of your money, you will never get it back.

- **Credit repair**: Promises to fix bad credit are not true--negative information on a credit record, if true, cannot be taken off. An explanation for bad credit, however, can be added to the record.

- **Magazine sales**: Legitimate companies will send written information and not insist that a decision to buy is made right away; just say "no" if you are not interested, and ask to be put on the company's "do not call" list.

- **Investment scams**: Do not believe claims that there is no risk to an investment. Never be pressured to make decisions on the spot. Avoid "off-shore" investments, as you are still liable for taxes–and be leery of e-mail offers.

• **Credit card offers that are non-legitimate**: Companies offering credit cards may not be what they seem--obtain cards directly from issuing banks.

• **Online auctions**: Use care when using online auctions. Learn about the seller, return policies, etc. Do not provide any personal information that can allow access to your credit information.

• **Travel fraud**: Do your own travel research, or use the services of someone you know and trust, and pay with a credit card when obtaining travel packages or making travel arrangements. Beware of offers for free trips, and know what is included and what restrictions may be involved.

• **Buyers clubs**: These clubs offer great deals on services or products; however, you may be charged membership fees even if you do not agree to join.

• **Sweepstakes and prize fraud**: Legal sweepstakes do not require individuals to purchase anything to enter or win. No taxes are paid to the party offering the prize. Many times prizes and sweepstakes turn out to be something other than what the recipient expected.

• **Internet access services**: Some businesses offer Internet connections, web site creation services, and other Internet-based services and do not fulfill their promises. Shop around, get references, know who you are dealing with, understand the offer, resist pressure, pay by credit card, and do not pay all the fees up front.

• **Multilevel marketing and pyramids**: Legitimate organizations succeed if they offer products and services wanted by others; use care before making commitments.

• **Work-at-home scams**: Beware of envelope stuffing schemes and know of any legal licensing requirements attached to work-at-home offers; for example, you may need a certificate or license to do medical billing work.

• **Pay-Per-Call Services and 900 Numbers**: Know the cost of the call before you dial. You can dispute 900 and 800 number charged calls that were not made from your telephone or if the call cost was not disclosed in advance.

• **Computer software and equipment**: As with other products and services provided on-line, some providers of computer software and equipment are not reputable. Know who you are dealing with and use caution.

• **Telephone cramming**: This occurs when you receive charges for extra telephone services on your phone bill that you did not agree to purchase.

• **Telephone slamming**: Slamming takes place when your telephone service is switched without your permission from your current company to another. In many areas you can arrange with your local telephone company to disallow changing your long-distance or other service changes to different companies without your being notified first.

Advanced Organizational Management:
Advanced Communication
Chapter 19: Professional Protocol

Objectives: In this chapter, the student will review the following concepts:

1. Protocol defined
2. Differences between protocol and etiquette
3. Etiquette in the office
4. Dress and appearance
5. Social and business entertaining (including introductions and handshakes)
6. Table manners
7. Use of business cards
8. Networking and conversing at functions
9. Picking up the tab at meals and other activities
10. Suggestions for smokers
11. Business golf and social etiquette
12. Gender relations
13. Telephone etiquette
14. Correspondence etiquette
15. Voice mail etiquette
16. Fax communications etiquette
17. E-mail and Internet netiquette
18. Meeting etiquette
19. Interview etiquette
20. Etiquette and office politics
21. Handling office gossip
22. International etiquette issues

NOTE: Material found in this chapter may also be found in the Office Administration For Administrative Professionals™ and Management For Administrative Professionals™ programs.

Protocol Defined

Protocol is a special form of etiquette that is observed at social functions attended by individuals. When protocol is observed, persons are provided with the courtesy and respect they are due, with particular attention paid to each individual's position and status in the group or organization.

Examples of the use of protocol include the place and order of seating at a dinner, banquet, or special occasion; in addition, the proper use of titles given persons is addressed by protocol.

Differences Between Protocol and Etiquette

Protocol, as mentioned previously, is a form of etiquette. Etiquette is essentially a code of behavior that affects how individuals treat one another in daily life; whereas, protocol deals with etiquette used in more formal settings.

Etiquette in the Office

It is polite to greet individuals when first entering the office. A major complaint made by secretaries is that their employer ignores them until he or she gives the secretary their first assignment of the day.

Office guests should be punctual and not make surprise office visits.

The office host should welcome office guests and help them feel comfortable.

In the office, relationships, rank, and authority are affected by office etiquette. Good relationships are formed when employees follow etiquette rules. Rules not followed can lead to job failure.

One should show courtesy and respect to everyone, regardless of rank or position. Consistent treatment of all associates will lead to increased credibility. For example, in a mid-sized marketing firm in the Western United States, the vice president of sales treated the top corporate officers with the greatest kindness and respect, but showed little regard for his secretary and other office workers. This individual was viewed by office personnel with a degree of contempt because of his inconsistent treatment of individuals in the organization.

It is important not only for individuals to treat one another with respect and kindness, but persons should also speak well of others, and, when possible, give them the benefit of the doubt if their behavior or actions are in question.

Interruptions are one of the most annoying distractions that take place in the office today. If you are working on priority items and do not wish to be disturbed and you have the luxury to do so, place your phone on “forward” mode and close your office door. Assuming the person doing the interrupting is not your supervisor or a high-ranking organization official, and you are in a public area or cannot forward calls, acknowledge the individual needing assistance, indicate how much time you need to complete your priority project or activity, and indicate when you will be able to visit.

In offices utilizing work area cubicles, keep the following issues in mind:

- When you want to see or speak with someone in her office, wait to be invited into her work area.

- Be attentive to how your voice carries, as it may distract other workers. Also keep in mind to discuss confidential matters in a private location.

- Do not use speaker phones.

Dress and Appearance

It is important to present yourself in a way that compliments yourself, your business, and those with whom you associate. Being unshaven, wearing wrinkled clothing, or otherwise showing a lack of concern about one's appearance shows a lack of concern about self, the situation, and the organization.

If in doubt, one should dress conservatively and on the more formal side. Also, one should be impeccable in her grooming habits--even in a very casual environment.

Social and Business Entertaining Settings

Business entertaining comes in different forms. It may involve a business meal such as breakfast, lunch, or dinner. It may involve a mid-day tea. Business entertaining may take the form of a casual or formal function or event; or it may involve playing a game of golf or attending an opera or theater with associates or clients.

The following are suggestions to consider involving the use of protocol in social and entertainment functions held by business organizations:

Introductions

Before a function takes place, whether or not you are the host, it may be helpful to consult a directory or database containing names and titles of individuals who you are likely to see there.

When a newcomer joins a conversation, an introduction should be made. The person making the introduction should make it based on power or hierarchy, keeping in mind that a business client or an elected official would take precedence over others in the group. For example, if a client is in the group and the company president arrives, you would say, “Ms. Donaldson (the client), I would like to introduce you to Dr. Harris, President of the XYZ Company.”

If persons in a small group are seated and a new individual joins the group, if possible, group members should stand to be introduced to the arriving individual. When in an office, individuals should stand and walk from behind their desk to greet persons coming to visit them.

Individuals who are attending functions should circulate and feel free to introduce themselves to others--particularly if the host is not available to assist with introductions. For example, a woman attending a convention of a professional association may extend her hand to another and say, “Hello, I am Alicia Renaldo. I’m a member of the Rio Rancho Chapter of the association.” The introduction should be clear and concise and include something about the individual that may stimulate further conversation.

Handshakes

Persons are often judged by the quality of their handshake. When an introduction has been made, the person being introduced should extend his hand a make a firm handshake with the others to whom he is being introduced. Keep in mind that handshakes are acceptable forms of physical contact in business. Hugs and expressions of affection are not acceptable in most Western cultures.

The handshake extended may last about two or three seconds; it should be firm (not limp or overbearing). Good eye contact should be extended between individuals.

A handshake is extended not only when meeting someone of the first time, but also when:

- Greeting guests
- Greeting a host or hostess
- You see someone you have not seen for a period of time
- You say goodbye to others
- Someone extends their hand to you

If you are at a social event and are holding a drink, it is customary to hold the drink in the left hand so that the right hand is available for shaking hands with others.

Responding to Introductions

When an individual is introduced, one may respond with a simple “Hello.” In addition, a sincere compliment or inquiry to which a response can be made would be appropriate.

When name tags are worn at functions, they should be placed high on the right shoulder so they can be easily read.

In the course of a function where no name tags are worn, if someone approaches you but seems to have forgotten your name, extend your hand, and with a smile on your face indicate your name. If you go to introduce someone, and their name slips your mind, try the following: (1) share something from your mutual experience together or something complimentary you remember about the other person, then (2) indicate that their name has temporarily slipped your mind. The individual being introduced will then step in and complete the introduction.

When meeting someone, if you repeat her name several times during the conversation, it will help you remember her in the future.

Table Manners

In the Americas and many European Union countries, the fork goes on the left, and the spoon and knife goes on the right. Drinking cups are found on the right, and the roll plate is found on the left.

Your napkin should be placed on your lap shortly after being seated at a meal. The napkin should not be used to hide activity such as the removal of food from one’s mouth. If food goes in by hand, if necessary, it should come out by hand (for example, olive pits). If food is spooned into the mouth, if needed, it should come out with a spoon (for example, hot soup).

At a banquet, if two or more individuals to your left and right have been served, you may start eating. If most of the persons at a table have been served and have not begun their meal, and you are still waiting to be served, encourage the rest to begin eating. Items not found nearby should be requested. Items are offered to the left and passed to the right; however, once the passing process begins, follow the flow.

Use of Business Cards

Professionals should carry business cards that reflect who they are in content, quality, and appearance. Key information such as one’s name should be in large enough font size as to be easily read.

Business cards are not given out like playing cards. They should be kept in a business card holder and presented so they can be read right side up. They should also be given after you've had a chance to visit with the other individual and feel you would like to have additional contact in the future.

When one offers a business card, it is proper to offer a card in return. Be aware of the appropriate way to give and receive cards if you are associating with someone of a different culture. For example, Asians give and receive cards with two hands. The exchange of business cards is a respectful and formal process.

Also when visiting foreign countries, have your business card printed on one side in the language of the country you are visiting and on the other side in your native language.

Business cards should be requested by peers or by persons of higher rank. If you make the effort to show sincere interest in others during business conversations, they will likely be willing to take time to visit with you at a future time, whether or not you have been given their business card.

If you write notes on a person's business card, be sure and do so when the card giver is not present.

Networking and Conversing at Functions

When attending activities and functions to network with and meet new people, keep the following in mind:

1. Come with a smile!

2. Be prepared to share something brief and interesting about yourself to get a conversation started.

3. If possible, learn who will be there and what companies or organizations they represent.

4. Do not monopolize conversations or spend too much time with any single individual or group. Five to ten minutes' time is sufficient to meet new individuals.

5. Set another meeting time to continue productive conversations; for example, set a up a lunch appointment.

6. Politely excuse yourself from unproductive conversations.

7. Do not give sales pitches at networking functions.

8. Take advantage of careful listening to others you meet; ask questions and allow others to express themselves. When you focus your attention on others, your chances of a successful networking function will be greatly magnified.

Picking Up the Tab at Business Meals or Other Activities

Whoever benefits as a result of the meal or activity should pay the bill, regardless of gender. For example, a female businessperson should pay for a meal if she asks a male client to a business lunch as her guest (or as the guest of her business). If no one is the obvious beneficiary, the person making the invitation should pick up the tab.

Suggestions for Smokers

For those who choose to smoke in business settings, it is important to keep the following in mind:

1. Always ask visitors if they mind you smoking.

2. If you are with guests in a restaurant that allows smoking, always ask them if they prefer a smoking or non-smoking area.

3. When indoors, only light up if you see an ashtray.

4. Be mindful of the direction smoke is going when others are present.

5. If you light up in a smoking environment, you may offer a cigarette to others.

6. If a person indicates that your smoking is bothering them, be thoughtful of their wishes and extinguish your cigarette or move to another area.

Business Golf and Social Etiquette

Whether a potential business associate or client likes golf, or the opera, it is important to know the rules of etiquette for the activity involved. For example, in golf:

- Put fun and enjoyment ahead of business.

- Be supportive and encouraging rather than a coach.

● Warm up before you go out for golf.

● Be honest.

● Be good natured.

● Stand still when people are hitting the ball or putting.

● Do not stand in the line of someone's shot or put.

● Keep your cell phone turned off.

● Send a thank you note after the game.

● Follow up with a phone call or other contact to do business later.

Gender Relations

In business, etiquette is based on power and hierarchy versus gender and chivalry. All should be treated well.

For example, consider the following:

● Doors are held for persons of higher authority, regardless of gender.

● Whoever opens the door first should hold the door for others.

● A person of lesser authority should get the process started at revolving doors, then wait on the other side for the rest of the group.

● The person nearest the elevator door should exit first.

● Only clients or individuals of greater authority should be helped with their coats.

● Persons needing assistance, male or female, should be helped with seating.

Telephone Etiquette

Before placing a telephone call, consider the following:

● Place (and answer) your own calls, if possible; going through a receptionist or other individual can waste time and annoy the call recipient.

● If you're making a personal call to someone at their workplace, is the call really urgent or important?

- Consider if you are placing the call at a time when you are likely to reach the intended person (for example, during regular working hours and at times when they are likely to be at their desk, versus at lunch).

- Monday mornings are generally not the best times to call.

The following are several telephone etiquette suggestions:

1. When speaking on the telephone, always speak directly into the mouthpiece (when applicable and not using a speaker phone), and speak clearly, concisely, with sufficient volume to be heard and understood by the other party or parties to the conversation.

2. If you need to speak loudly on the telephone, do so in a place where privacy can be ensured (by closing your office door); if another person in your office is speaking loudly on the telephone, consider politely closing their door to ensure their privacy (and enhance your concentration on work you have to accomplish).

3. Telephone calls should always be returned, as a courtesy (unless they are solicitous in nature), even if you do not have the information the caller is seeking. If the data is available, you provide directions as to where the information may be obtained.

4. If there is no one available to take your calls while you are away from your desk, there should be a way individuals can leave a voice mail message for your attention.

5. When placing a phone call to another office, be sure and promptly ask for the person or department you want to reach. Be sure and identify yourself and briefly state the nature of your call.

6. If you need to leave a voice mail message, clearly state your name, phone number, the nature of your call, and other particulars, as needed. Do not speak at length unless you are invited by the voice mail message to do so.

7. When a call comes in, answer on the first or second ring, if possible.

8. When answering the telephone, it is appropriate to identify yourself and your company or department. For example, “Live Forever International, Wanda Angel speaking. May I help you?”

9. If someone calls without identifying herself or himself, when taking the call, never ask, “Who’s calling?” It is not correct etiquette. Instead, try “May I say who is calling?”

10. It is not appropriate to carry on a conversation with someone in the office while you are speaking on the telephone with someone else. If you need to talk with someone in the office while on a phone conversation, politely ask the person on the phone if she can hold the line a moment, then place them on hold (or cover the mouthpiece of the phone).

11. Never place another person on a lengthy telephone hold.

12. If you cannot promptly return to your telephone conversation, ask the person with whom you are conversing on the line when it would be best to call them back (or, if the phone call is of a more urgent matter than the office conversation, let your office associate know when you will get back with them).

13. Many executives like to return phone calls at certain times of the day so they can manage their time more efficiently; if this is the case, it is important for the administrative professional to learn which calls can be taken at what times; for example, certain callers may be put through to the executive under all circumstances, other callers may be put through when the executive is not in meetings or on the phone, etc.

14. It is not appropriate to say that a person is out of the office when, in fact, he is in the office. It is proper to indicate that an individual is not available and then ask for the caller's name and message details. It is helpful to also let the caller know why someone is not available (for example, "She is in a meeting right now," or "He is on a phone call").

15. If you receive a call that seems to be undesirable (such as a telephone solicitation), be sure you clearly identify the nature of the call before politely excusing yourself, as you may need to take the call for reasons that are not clear at first (for example, your bank may be calling to let you know that there is a problem with your account of which you are unaware).

16. Even though telephone conversations are not face to face in nature, it is important to treat such discussions as if they were in-person communications--even though it is sometimes tempting to be abrupt or rude with an individual on the other end of the line.

Companies should consider the following etiquette issues if they want to improve their customer relations via telephone:

- All individuals answering telephones should receive training in proper telephone etiquette.
- There should not be excessive automated attendants.
- Individuals should not call in and have to talk with several company associates before they reach the desired location.
- Voice mail should be an option for all incoming callers.

Cellular Telephone Etiquette

When using cellular telephones, consider the following:

- Turn off your cell phone in meetings and situations where a ringing phone would be disrespectful or seen in a negative light.

- Speak in a low voice when talking on a cell phone in public (this avoids disturbing or distracting others).

- Set your phone to "vibrate" mode if you must be notified of an incoming call in a situation where an oral ring would be inappropriate. Then quietly excuse yourself, if necessary, to take the call; or wait until the meeting is over to return the call.

- Do not discuss private issues in public situations.

Correspondence Etiquette

Here are some important issues relative to correspondence etiquette:

- Send handwritten thank you notes; be brief, but sincere.

- Do not be verbose, trite, or wordy in written communications. Follow appropriate letter-writing rules.

- When addressing someone by his first name, be sure the letter is signed using a first name (for informal communications).

Electronic Communications

The following hints may be helpful in your use of electronic communications:

- Do not use a speaker phone without the consent of the parties involved.

- If mobility is often required during telephone conversations, it may be worthwhile to obtain and use a headset, versus a traditional telephone or speaker phone

- Only use cellular or car phones to make or receive important, brief calls (such as letting a client know you are running late for an appointment). They should not be used as status symbols.

- Don't ask to use someone else's cell phone without offering to pay for the call.

- Do not use a car phone when traveling through an underpass or tunnel.

Voice Mail

Make note of the information provided in our conversation about telephone etiquette with regard to voice mail. In addition, consider the following:

- Take a moment before placing all calls to prepare a clear, detailed message in your mind in case you receive the call recipient’s voice mail.

- When placing a call, if you pick up voice mail, leave a message versus simply hanging up the phone.

- When leaving a voice mail message, state your name, telephone number, concise needs, and the best time for a call-back to be made.

- Do not send all incoming calls to voice mail to avoid receiving telephone communication on a regular basis.

- Keep your voice mail greeting current. Include your name and company or department. Indicate if you are away from your desk or out of the office (and if you are out of the office for a very long period of time, give the caller some idea when you plan to return).

- Let incoming callers know how to reach a “live person” if you are away from your desk (for example, what number to call to reach an operator or other associate who may be available to take the call immediately).

- If you receive someone’s voice mail, consider leaving specific times (and places) when you can meet or be reached by a return phone call.

Fax Communications

Make special note of the following facsimile related issues:

- Always send a cover letter or indicate at the beginning of the document all pertinent contact details (“to, from, date, regarding”), number of pages in the document, telephone and fax numbers of the sender (in case there are transmission problems), and pertinent legal statements (regarding confidentiality of the document, etc.).

- Do not tie up a fax line or send an unsolicited facsimile unless it is very important.

- Do not send confidential items by fax unless it is necessary to do so. Confirm that the message recipient will be available to pick up the material at the time it is sent (also consider placing a confidentiality or copyright notice on the fax cover page or in the facsimile document).

- If using a facsimile machine, feed the paper in the correct manner, as individuals receiving fax documents on their computers appreciate receiving fax images in a "right-side up" format (versus up-side down).

- Do not send resumes by fax unless requested to do so.

E-mail and Internet Netiquette

When sending e-mail messages, always keep the following in mind:

- Address and sign all e-mail messages (you are communicating with a human being, not a computer).

- Provide a specific subject line (don't just say "Hello" or "Thank you"); and be certain that the subject header corresponds to the content of the e-mail message.
- An e-mail should deal with one subject or item.

- E-mails are not intended for all communications--use them appropriately; and make phone calls or use other communication forms when they are better suited for the situation.

- When forwarding messages, in the body of the message, get to the content quickly (i.e., do not have pages of recipient e-mail address data listed before the content is provided; be sure to delete all extraneous material such as names and addresses of a number of other individuals--the message recipient typically does not want to see that information).

- Use the "bc" (blind copy) feature more often than the "cc" (carbon copy) command when copying an e-mail to individuals. Use of the blind copy feature is especially important when e-mailing a message to a large group of individuals. Not only does it save on the number of addresses displayed in the message header, but it also helps enhance the privacy of others' e-mail addresses.

- In message replies, there is no need to select the "reply" option automatically, and say more than "Yes" in addition, if responding to a question, paste the question from the original message into the e-mail and then provide the response.

- Be careful to send your message to the intended individual(s). A wrong mouse click or key stroke can send a message to an unintended party (for example, if you reply to all individuals involved in a message by clicking on the wrong e-mail send option, you may send a message to several people when it was only meant for one).

- Do NOT type in all caps, it is too strong and intense. Follow professional writing guidelines for messages.

● Address individuals in e-mails the same as you would in person (for example, in addressing the president of your company, refer to her as "Ms. Johnston" instead of by her first name).

● Keep in mind that HTML (Hypertext Markup Language) tags used in e-mail messages may be received as a lot of extemporaneous data by e-mail programs not utilizing web browsers. They can be confusing to some e-mail recipients.

● Place **line breaks** between paragraphs in e-mail messages to make them easier to read; for example:

E-mail Paragraphing Example A

> When speaking on the telephone, always speak directly into the mouthpiece (when applicable and not using a speaker phone), and speak clearly, concisely, with sufficient volume to be heard and understood by the other party or parties to the conversation.
> If you need to speak loudly on the telephone, do so in a place where privacy can be ensured (by closing your office door). If another person in your office is speaking loudly on the telephone, consider politely closing their door to ensure their privacy (and enhance your concentration on work you have to accomplish).
> Telephone calls should always be returned, as a courtesy (unless they are solicitous in nature), even if you do not have the information the caller is seeking. If the data is available, you provide directions as to where the information may be obtained.

E-mail Paragraphing Example B

> When speaking on the telephone, always speak directly into the mouthpiece (when applicable and not using a speaker phone), and speak clearly, concisely, with sufficient volume to be heard and understood by the other party or parties to the conversation.
>
> If you need to speak loudly on the telephone, do so in a place where privacy can be ensured (by closing your office door). If another person in your office is speaking loudly on the telephone, consider politely closing their door to ensure their privacy (and enhance your concentration on work you have to accomplish).
>
> Telephone calls should always be returned, as a courtesy (unless they are solicitous in nature), even if you do not have the information the caller is seeking. If the data is available, you provide directions as to where the information may be obtained.

● Watch the overall width of e-mail text sent in messages; keep line lengths set at 80 characters or less per line for readability; here is an example of what happens when this rule is NOT followed:

> When speaking on the telephone, always speak directly into the mouthpiece (when applicable and not using
> a speaker phone), and speak clearly, concisely, with sufficient volume to be heard and understood by the other party
> or parties to the conversation.

● When quoting others' e-mail messages, especially when they are rather lengthy, do NOT quote the entire message unless you plan on speaking to the entire message.

● **E-mail signatures** should be as brief as possible and only used when they are considered useful.

The following netiquette issues are important for consideration:

● **Chain letters** that involve people sending messages with instructions for the data contents to be redistributed to others, are generally annoying for individuals to receive. Various net hoaxes are related to them; and they are illegal in many places.

● **Flaming** is the practice of rudely attacking individuals on a personal level and should never take place. Although, unfortunately it happens all too frequently on the Internet.

● **FAQs** are documents containing "frequently asked questions" with their accompanying responses. They are developed as a resource to individuals needing information pertaining to groups, organizations, or products.

● **Internet hoaxes** come in various forms, including virus alerts and seeming acts of *Good Samaritanism*. These hoaxes should not be perpetuated through redistribution (including requests for get-well cards and announcements of non-existent computer viruses).

● **Spamming** is the practice of sending identical messages to a large number of e-mail addresses or a wide variety of news groups. Spamming is not appreciated by most individuals, and its legality is being brought into question in many areas.

● **Sliced spamming** occurs when unsolicited material that would otherwise go to a large number of e-mail addresses is sent to individual e-mail addresses. This practice is considered as distasteful as spamming.

- **Spoiler alerts** are sent to let people know that something happens to spoil a movie or television program. In the spoiler alert, they may describe what happens and voice their disappointment. The alert is made in BOLD LETTERS FOR EVERYONE TO SEE.

Meeting Etiquette

When a topic is important enough for a meeting to be held, those involved should be allowed sufficient time to prepare. The following items should be communicated in advance:

- The meeting's purpose
- Time, place, and relevant details (including the meeting length)
- Specific items to be discussed
- Individuals involved in the meeting

Written agendas and minutes should be provided for all participants.

Follow-through items should be assigned to persons in attendance, whenever possible.

Scheduling Meetings

Meetings should be scheduled and communicated with the schedules and needs of group members taken into account. Being respectful of the needs of individual group members will enhance group cooperation and meeting effectiveness.

Communicating About Meetings

Meeting communication relates to the following:

- Communication of a meeting to be held (time, location, etc.).
- Communication of items to be covered in a meeting (via agenda).
- Communication of items covered in previous meetings (via minutes).
- Communication of follow-through items involving group members.

Such communications are most effective when distributed in advance (or as soon after the meeting as possible) in a printed, hard-copy written format. E-mail messages may be effective when communicating simple information such as meeting times and locations. Use of the telephone or direct personal communication is most effective for occasions when a meeting time or location has been changed. If there is sufficient time, a new meeting announcement memo or agenda may be distributed to group members in advance.

Attendance at Meetings

Interruptions of meetings should be avoided. If an interruption cannot be avoided, it is appropriate to quickly state the reason for the interruption and express appreciation for the time allowed.

It is not appropriate to take calls during meetings. Cell and desk phones should be set up for calls to go into voice mail, and company receptionists or operators should take messages, except in the following cases: (1) a truly urgent call and (2) an important call for which you are waiting. If you expect an important phone call on your company phone line, you should notify the receptionist prior to the meeting.

It is not appropriate for more than one person to speak at a time in a meeting.

In order to encourage timeliness in meeting attendance, consider assigning late-comers to tasks such as minute-taking or bringing health snacks to the next meeting.

While a meeting is going on, if someone wants to discuss with you an issue that is unrelated to what is happening or that will take too long to cover, set a time and place to pursue the conversation. Such interruptions can be very disrupting to your attention and the attention of others in the meeting.

Showing Appreciation

Always express and show appreciation to others for their efforts and speak well of others. Appearing to take any credit for others' efforts can be especially harmful and come back to you later in less-than-positive ways.

Interview Etiquette

The following issues are relevant to interview etiquette:

- Practice interviews in advance with someone who can simulate a potential interviewer.

- Always be on time--or better yet, a bit early.

- Be prepared with materials that may be needed for the interview (i.e., an employment portfolio, references that may be requested, etc.).

- Be appropriately dressed and groomed for the interview.

- Smile!

- Be sincere, direct, and provide sufficient information in response to questions.

- Speak with clarity, volume, and enthusiasm; do not speak too quickly.

- Be sure and thank the interviewer for the opportunity to meet her or him.

- At the end of the interview, ask when a hiring decision will be made and what future contact you should make with the potential employer.

Be sure and send a thank you letter or note to each interviewer on a timely basis after the interview is held. Here are points to keep in mind with regard to these letters:

- Be brief and concise.

- Thank the potential employer, indicating your interest in the position and company/employer.

- Be sure to send a personal note to each person involved in the interview process (i.e., if there was more than one interview or if the interview involved a panel of interviewers).

- Restate your qualifications and provide any information not given at a previous time. Place emphasis on your abilities relevant to the job.

After the interview is over, follow up issues to consider are as follow:

- Be sure you are available to be contacted when the employer indicates he may call regarding the employment decision.

- Follow up with a call to the potential employer if you miss the call regarding the awaited decision.

- If you agree to contact the employer, be sure and follow through at the specific indicated time. Ask to speak with the person who performed the interview.

- When speaking with the interviewer, introduce yourself and indicate why you are calling (the interviewer may not remember who you are).

- If no arrangements have been made for a contact to be made, it is good to call the potential employer about two weeks after the interview (as many employers only call successful job seekers; others must call to learn that they were not hired).

- Do not harass a potential employer by calling daily about a job's status.

If you are not awarded the position for which you interviewed, remember to

- Consider asking in a tactful manner why you were not hired; for example, "Can you share with me what may have made me a better candidate for the position?"

- Ask if there are other positions available with the organization for which you may be considered.

- Sincerely thank the potential employer for his time and consideration.

When offered a position, remember to do the following:

- Thank the employer for the offer and indicate your acceptance or need to consider the offer (i.e., if you have another potential offer with a different organization or need to discuss the offer with another individual). Temper any need to consider an offer with your desire to work in the position versus taking another position, as many employers will have second thoughts if they feel you are less than enthusiastic about taking the job.

- Ask when your assignment begins, if you do not already know.

- Request other details such as salary (if not known). Be prepared to negotiate, if needed (and do your homework first).

- Also ask about other job-related particulars that you need clarified such as hours, benefits, the need for special uniforms, etc.

Etiquette and Office Politics

Office politics always exist where there are three or more individuals. They can be both beneficial and detrimental.

Here are some suggestions to consider with regard to office politics:

- Make critiques of concepts, not individuals.

- Be a good listener--then let the information stop with you.

- Address problems using appropriate channels. Go to the source of the problem or to a manager who can address the issue at hand.

- Never criticize your employer or any business associate unless you are prepared to deal with the consequences.

Office politics often involve messages from the grapevine. Here are some considerations for dealing with the grapevine:

- Listen to information passed along in an objective manner.

- Do not go on witch hunts when you hear alarming information that seems accurate.

- If possible, correct false rumors right away.

- Try to communicate with others on a one-to-one basis so that issues and feedback can be freely exchanged and clarified.

- Do not try to stop the grapevine; it is going to exist no matter what you do.

Handling Office Gossip

The following points will help you avoid becoming the center of gossip and gain a reputation of having integrity and being tight lipped:

- Have enough self control to stay out of the gossip loop.
- Do not give in to gossip. If you are tempted to pass along a “juicy tidbit” about someone or something, do not do it!
- Be careful to not become too personally involved with office associates. Do not share personal matters that you would not want everyone to know.
- Do not become too connected with an office clique.
- Be a team player who builds and supports others, rather than tearing people down.
- Follow the rules; going against the grain will make you a target for discussion and gossip; for example, if you take extended lunch breaks, pretty soon others in the office will notice and begin talking about you and your unacceptable behavior.

Treatment of Others

When someone comes to work in an office as a consultant, guest, or as a new employee, he should be provided with the necessary facilities and materials for the work to be done. And what is provided should be equivalent with what current personnel have for similar work (i.e. workstation, desk arrangement, etc.)

Consultants and guests may be provided with a buddy to help them become acquainted with the office and assist them in feeling comfortable; these individuals can help them with logistics and provide a pleasant and efficient experience for the visitor.

International Issues

Networking

When attending an event or function, consider the following with regard to networking:

- Determine why you are attending and what you hope to gain from being there.
- Learn who will also attend and a bit about them, if possible (such as the business they represent).
- Prepare a brief infomercial about yourself to help others remember you better.
- Smile and behave with confidence.

- Be sure and circulate.

- Provide business cards in a discriminating way (you to not want to mass distribute them like the daily newspaper).

International Protocol

International protocol issues are covered in the chapter dealing with cultural workforce diversity.

Giving Credit to Others

Give credit where credit is due and never appear to take credit for the efforts of others.

Index