Leadership

- Leadership is not gender specific
- Leadership is nurtured with age and experience
- Leadership can be developed through mentoring and training.

Several community-initiated projects have come to a grinding halt owing to lack of leadership and other management skills. Many local leaders, with best of intentions for solving environmental problems in their community, initiate a project only to see it fail through poor leadership. Sometimes they have an out-dated philosophy of management which does not fit comfortably with volunteer members of government and non-government agencies. As people become better educated they become more articulate and no longer respond to authoritative styles of leadership in every situation.

Understanding Leadership

Leaders perform various roles such as planning and implementing, evaluating, monitoring, controlling, motivating, managing conflicts, organizing task groups, mobilizing human and financial resources, and above all, setting an example to the group.

We recognize that leadership is necessary for efficiency, but because of our egalitarian tradition, we are uncomfortable with any suggestion of superiority.

There are a number of major theories about leadership. Each theory focuses on a different aspect of human behaviour, and provides useful insights into what makes a good leader.

Leadership is sometimes viewed as headship, as in a formal position such as that of chairperson, director, or politician. A person who lacks leadership skills
may still be appointed to such a position. In due course, this person may be replaced by new leaders if he/she does not learn to exercise the functions of leadership in such a way as to satisfy the needs of the group or the community. While government officers or corporation staff are usually termed “managers”, and people elected from the community are labeled “leaders”, both positions involve leadership and management functions.

Leadership has been defined as “the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts towards the achievement of goals in a given situation” (2). The source of influence may be formal, or informal. Leaders can emerge from within a group as well as being formally appointed.

Although we all start with different amounts of natural talent, leadership is a learned behaviour. The skills involved can be acquired. Leaders are not born, they are made. Each person is a potential leader. As in any other field of endeavour, such as cricket, medicine or farming, natural abilities can be developed through study and practice. Many of today’s prominent leaders in the rural community began as inexperienced members of community groups.

**Spheres of Influence**

In our society, different leaders influence different spheres of activity. Some will be opinion-leaders on only one topic (monomorphic leaders); others will be opinion-leaders on a variety of topics (polymorphic leaders). It is important to understand in which area (s) of knowledge an individual commands trust, respect and credibility. (An effective operational leader uses different kinds of opinion-leaders for their various specialized skills).

Another facet of influence is that of its geographical extent. A leader may be influential at a district, shire, region, state, national or even international level. In other words, the influence of a leader can be specific to a topic or to a
geographic region. The group can benefit from an understanding of the spheres of influence of various leaders and by networking with them.

**Why Leadership?**

During the 1970s and for much of the early 1980s and '90s, developing people for top jobs was seen to be a process of management or executive development, and the process of face-to-face interaction with groups of workers at shop-floor level was referred to as supervision or foremanship.

Today, it is quite different. Leadership is on the agenda in a big way. Books on the subject are streaming on to the market, top industrialists are hailed as great leaders alongside the great military and political leaders of the age, and leadership 'gurus' have emerged from academic obscurity.

Management is perfectly adequate when things are routine and predictable; but when the organization hits turbulence and uncertainty, leadership is called for. This idea has been confirmed in our minds as we have observed dramatic transformations in British industry in recent times which appear to be more due to inspirational leadership than to good management as traditionally conceived. British Airways under Colin Marshall, and ICI under John Harvey-Jones are often-quoted examples.

Case studies of firms which were very successful in a sustained way over many years, such as the study of lasting success in US industry Built to Last (Collins and Porras, 1994), have produced convincing evidence to show that success has been associated with effective leadership from the top.
Defining Leadership

There are many definitions of leadership. Here are just a few:

The process of persuasion or example by which an individual (or a leadership team) induces a group to pursue objectives held by the leader or shared by the leader and his or her followers. (John Gardner)

The reciprocal process of mobilizing, by persons with certain motives and values, various economic, political and other resources, in a context of competition and conflict, in order to realize goals independently or mutually held by both leaders and followers. (James McGregor Burns)

Leadership involves influencing task objectives and strategies, influencing commitment and compliance in task behaviour to achieve these objectives, influencing group maintenance and identification and influencing the culture of an organization. (Gary Yuke)

Leadership is the ability to get men to do what they don't like to do and like it. (Harry S Truman)

Process or personal attribute?

Bavelas (1969) draws a distinction between leadership as a process (the meaning conveyed in the above definitions) and leadership as a personal quality. But there are other meanings; leadership is also a role in groups and organizations and when used as a collective noun can refer to those responsible for the destiny of a country or a company.

Leadership as a process

- First, the processes involved are such things as influence, exemplary behaviour and persuasion.
- Secondly, it involves interaction between actors who are both leaders and followers.
Thirdly, the nature of interaction is affected by the situation in which it takes place. For example, the interaction between a commander and troops on the battlefield is different in important respects from the interaction between a team leader and a group of scientists in a laboratory.

Finally, the process has various outcomes - most obviously the achievement of goals, but also intermediate outcomes such as the commitment of individuals to such goals, the enhancement of group cohesion and the reinforcement or change of organizational culture.

From this it follows that the study of leadership cannot be validly carried on from a purely psychological perspective. It must be set within the context of the study of the decision-making processes and functioning of organizations.

According to Bennis (1999), research points to seven attributes essential to leadership:

- **technical competence**: business literacy and grasp of one's field;
- **conceptual skill**: a facility for abstract or strategic thinking;
- **track record**: a history of achieving results;
- **people skills**: an ability to communicate, motivate, and delegate;
- **taste**: an ability to identify and cultivate talent;
- **judgment**: making difficult decisions in a short time frame with imperfect data;
- **character**: the qualities that define who we are.

Bennis and Nanus (1985) have also identified, through their extensive research, five commonly believed myths surrounding leadership

1. **Leadership is a rare skill.** Untrue. While great leaders may be rare, everyone has leadership potential. More important, people may be leaders
in one organization and have quite ordinary roles in another. Leadership opportunities are plentiful and within the reach of most people.

2. **Leaders are born, not made. Not so.** The truth is that major capacities and competencies of leadership can be learned, and we are all capable of learning given the will to learn.

3. **Leaders are charismatic.** Some are, but most are not.

4. **Leadership exists only at the top of the organization.** In fact, the larger the organization, the more leadership roles it is likely to have.

5. **The leader controls and directs. Again, not so.** Leadership is not so much the exercise of power as the empowerment of others. Leaders lead by inspiring rather than ordering - by enabling people to use their own initiative.

Once these myths are cleared away, the question becomes not one of how to become a leader, but rather how to improve one's effectiveness at leadership.

**The ten commitments of Leadership**

Ten commitments of leadership, as shown on the following page, serve as the guide for our discussion of how leaders get extraordinary things done in organizations and as the structure for what’s to follow.

**Ten commitments of Leadership**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PRACTICES</th>
<th>COMMITMENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Challenging the Process</strong></td>
<td>* Search out challenging opportunities to change, grow, innovate and improve.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>* Experiment, take risks and learn from the accompanying mistakes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Inspiring a Shared Vision</strong></td>
<td>* Envision uplifting and ennobling activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>* Enlist others in a common vision by appealing to their values, interests, hopes and dreams.</td>
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Enabling Others to Act
- Foster collaboration by promoting cooperative goals and building trust.
- Strengthen others by giving power away, providing choice, developing competence, assigning critical tasks, and offering visible support.

Modeling the Way
- Set the example by behaving in ways that are consistent with shared values.
- Achieve small wins that promote consistent progress and build commitment.

Encouraging the Heart
- Recognize individual contributions to success of every project.
- Celebrate the team accomplishments regularly.


Leadership qualities
In 1988, Management Centre Europe surveyed some 1500 top and middle managers across Europe (Syrett and Hogg, 1992). Respondents' replies to the question, 'What qualities does the ideal CEO need?' resulted in five key leadership attributes being identified:

- The ability to build effective teams.
- The ability to listen.
- The capability to make decisions on his own.
- The ability to retain good people.
- The ability to surround himself with good people.

Asked to list the top five attributes of their own CEOs, respondents' replies resulted in the following list:

- Capable of making decisions on his own
- Strong-willed
- Ambitious
- Energetic
Motivated by power.

Wess Roberts (1992), Vice-President, Human Resources, American Express, gives 17 qualities of a leader from his own experience.

- Courage.
- Desire, i.e. the strong wish to lead.
- Emotional stamina - the ability to persist in the face of disappointment
- Physical stamina.
- Empathy-including sensitivity to other people's values, cultures, beliefs etc.
- Decisiveness
- Anticipation.
- Timing
- Competitiveness
- Self-confidence
- Accountability -
- Responsibility
- Credibility
- Tenacity
- Dependability
- Stewardship - leaders are custodians of the interests and well being of those they serve as leaders
- Loyalty
Theories of Leadership

A brief summary of the important theories on leadership is given below, to provide an understanding of leadership behaviour.

Trait Theory (Great Man Theory)

According to this school of thought, leadership is rooted in biology. Some of those who support the trait theory believe that leaders are born, not made, while others take the view that everyone can lead, but he or she will lead differently.

The trait approach basically states that you either have it or you don’t, and the “right” person will be selected to fill formal positions. Some behavioural scientists however, have focused more on the behaviour of effective leaders. May be there is something unique about leadership behaviour, e.g. is it more democratic than autocratic? This approach has been seen as more useful than the trait theory as it may provide more definitive answers on effective leadership, and suggests that people can be trained as leaders.

Contingency Theories

(Leadership dependent or contingent on many factors)

Two major approaches stem from contingency theory — that of styles and roles, and that of situational leadership.

The Styles and Roles Approach: This approach analyses the leadership roles and behavioural styles of successful leaders. It acknowledges that group situations are often different, and emphasizes the need for flexibility in styles and roles. A person must play many roles and employ different styles in order to be an effective leader.
The leadership function moves around in a group depending upon who is doing what. For example, one person might lead in the initiation of a group task. Another may assume leadership by offering information. Yet another member may move into the lead by including everyone in the discussion. Leadership is dynamic and situational, requiring different skills and knowledge as a group progresses towards its goals.

Some researchers have identified five major leadership roles: the Activator, the Controller, the Martyr, the Cavalier and the Abdicator. These roles can be described with regard to the degree of flexibility and of activity they exhibit.

**The Activator:** When a person plays the part of an activator, the chosen behaviour style is active and flexible. He/she is interested in involving other members of the group in a problem or situation and shares the decision-making process, operating on the principle that “People support what they help create”. The activator style also incorporates initiating, assimilating, reinforcing and solidifying functions.

**The Controller:** When a leader plays this role, the source of power comes from rewards and punishments. He/she attempts to frighten the group into action and the leadership behaviour is rigid but active. This rigidity comes from his/her role expectations. The controller style incorporates regimentation, judgmental behaviour, and giving rewards and punishments.

**The Martyr:** In this role, the leader attempts to induce guilt feelings in the followers. Martyrs try to impose their own values and policies on everyone. Rules may become an end in themselves, rather than a means to an end. Martyrs have a behaviour style which is primarily passive, but they can become very active in enforcing their own norms. Over-working themselves and seeking pity are other aspects of the martyr role.
**The Cavalier:** In this role, the leader wins group support through fun and games. The behavioural style varies between active and passive and has too much flexibility. The leader tries to entertain, avoids judgment, and seeks approval. There is an element of larrikanism in his/her behaviour.

**The Abdicator:** The abdicator avoids responsibility, postpones action, takes no risks, and often withdraws from the group. The style is passive and usually rigid, but it can be flexible on occasions. He/she manipulates every situation so that others take on responsibilities and get the blame when things go wrong.

While the activator role is usually the appropriate one in participative action groups, each of the other roles can be usefully adopted in certain situations.

Leadership can be exercised in a variety of social styles. Four such styles - Analytical, Amiable, Expressive and Driver - can be represented by using two dimensions of behaviour, assertiveness and responsiveness (5). You should bear in mind that these styles are neither good nor bad, just different. People of each type have achieved impressive successes in both leadership and supportive roles.

**Analytical style:** People with an analytical social style combine a high level of emotional self-control with a low level of assertiveness. They tend to take a precise, deliberate and systematic approach to their work. They gather and evaluate much data before acting. People with this style are generally hardworking, objective and well-organized. When their strengths are over-extended, however, they can be inflexible and given to "nit-picking". Their preferred fall-back behaviour is avoidance.

**Amiable style:** Persons who have an amiable social style combine higher-than-average responsiveness with a comparatively low level of assertiveness. They tend to be highly sensitive and sympathetic to the needs of
others. Their trust in other people may bring out the best in the people with whom they mix. Extremes of this style give rise to conformist and permissive behaviour. Amiable people fall back to an acquiescing position.

**Expressive style:** Persons with an expressive social style are the most flamboyant, having a high level of assertiveness integrated with much emotional expression. They tend to look at the broad picture and take a fresh and novel approach to problems. They are willing to take risks in order to realize their goals. Their love of fun, use of humour and spontaneous ways often lift the morale of their co-workers. Their ability to charm, persuade, excite and inspire people with a vision of the future can be a strong motivating force. When unrestrained, people with this style can be over-bearing and pursue unrealistic goals. Their back-up strategy is to attack.

**Driver style:** Persons with driver social style blend a high level of emotional self-control with a high degree of assertiveness. They are task-oriented, know exactly what they want, and express themselves clearly. They are competitive, willing to take calculated risks and are valued for their ability to get things done. Drivers, when over-extended, can become domineering and unfeeling. Their back-up strategy is autocratic.

The group should capitalize on the strengths of each social style exercised by various members, and develop strategies to minimize the damage caused by any weaknesses.

**Situational Leadership Theory:** This is based on the idea that leadership style should vary with the maturity of the group (2). It means that task behaviour and relationship behaviour, two critical dimensions of leadership, should change with the level of group development. For example, in a group of competent and experienced professionals, the leader will need to give very little direction.
In structuring the group task, the members will probably be skilled in maintaining good working relationships. On the other hand, if most people in the group are new to the task and to the group, the leader must give a lot of direction on how the task is to be done, and spend time fostering relationships.

In situational leadership theory, maturity is defined as: the capacity of an individual or group to set high, but attainable, goals (achievement-motivation); a willingness and ability to take responsibility; and a degree of education and/or experience. Groups and individuals tend to have varying degrees of maturity, depending on the specific task they are attempting to accomplish. A group member may, for example, be highly competent in carrying out on-ground work, but require considerable help in formulating written proposals for projects.

In any group, the leader must help achieve the common goal (task) and at the same time maintain appropriate relationships with fellow members. His/her style changes according to the level of maturity in the group. If the level is low, “telling” is the major style. As maturity increases, it changes first to “selling”, then to “participating” and finally, when maturity attains a high level, to “delegating”. **Effective group leaders know their members well and adapt their own style to the ever-changing abilities of the members, and to the demands of the leadership role.**

**Organisational Theory**

According to this theory, leadership is a function of position and role in a hierarchical organization. Some writers make a distinction between Managing and Leading. To manage means “to bring about, to accomplish, to have charge of or responsibility for, to conduct”. Leading is “influencing, guiding in direction, course, action, opinion” (6). The distinction is crucial. Managers are people who do things right, whereas leaders are people who do the right things. Leadership in this view refers to the head of some group or organization.
Fig.1: How Leadership style changes with the level of maturity of the group

Any organization can usually be identified as having three distinct levels of management in terms of their roles and authorities. Corporate managers are concerned with the total operation of an entire organization or a division. Executive management is concerned with only part of the management function. Operating management is concerned with carrying out specific functional tasks in accordance with prior schedules developed by superiors. Managing involves delegating while operating means doing. As one moves up in the organization, the managing function increases and the operating function decreases.

Power Theory

Leadership as power involves the ability to make something happen to satisfy individual, group or task needs. It means being able to make a difference, e.g. getting something done or influencing the direction the group takes.
According to one view, this power emanates from positional power (a symbolic position such as President, Director etc.) or operational power (by people who get things done without any formal position). We all know people who passively occupy positions of authority while others without any formal position are able to achieve impressive results. In other words, **operational leaders using non-positional power bases can exert more impact than passive symbolic leaders.**

A second type of power theory focuses more on empowerment of followers or fellow members than on accomplishing the will of the leader. This process enables them to take charge rather than search for a magical leader to solve their own or community problem.

Leadership, according to this view, empowers people to do their own work. The leaders create structures and follow policies. The focus is on the marshalling of resources so that people can get things done. Empowering leadership uses skills such as organizing, team building, problem solving and conflict resolution (“people skills”). Empowerment also involves raising awareness and increasing the knowledge and skills of followers and fellow group members. As people become empowered, a leader can first delegate some tasks to them, and may finally give over the entire project, including the leadership, to them. Empowerment is seen both as an end (democratic right) and a means (participative processes) for human action.

**Vision Theory**

According to this theory, the critical ingredient in leadership is vision. Leaders scan current trends and future threats and opportunities, and then engage in strategic redirection of people/groups.

Towards a desired future vision is clearly communicated by the leaders, who from time to time are able to inspire their fellow citizens to strive for new
national goals. Strategic management methods are designed to attain skills in this type of leadership.

**Ethical Assessment Theory**

Leadership, in this view, is inherently ethical. The view is that ethics is at the centre of every human action, and hence, at the centre of leadership. Some argue that leadership must be ethical on two counts: in the character of leader-follower relationships and in the leadership’s vision of human needs.

This means that a leader must engage in dialogue and conflict with followers, recognizing that they too have the right to influence events. The person who simply imposes his/her will on followers is a tyrant, not a leader. A leader also takes followers up the hierarchy of human needs, while a tyrant drags them further down the hierarchy.

Thus, the ethical leader must not only be able to exert leadership in a moral way, but be visionary and able to focus followers’ concerns on fair and just solutions, which promote the good of the community.

**Developing a Leadership Framework Using All these Theories**

Leadership is ethical, yet always tempered by an awareness of existence, ambiguities and unforeseen consequences. Leadership empowers human beings to claim ultimate fulfillment. This view holds that the six significant features of leadership that the various theories emphasize can be combined to form a framing tool to shape leadership action. According to this approach, every leader must have a mission and inspire others to strive towards a commonly-owned vision of a desired future. He/she must develop/work through structures (organizations) relevant to existing resources, and use the various types of power to achieve goals. The degree of fulfillment of goals in each situation is limited by the leader’s abilities (natural talents and acquired leadership skills) and by the degree to which she/he can convince others of the ethical value and higher meaning of their efforts.
Leadership and Management

There are at least seven distinct roles concerned with the exercise of power and influence in organizations.

1. **Political office holder, e.g. Government minister or town mayor.**
   The legitimacy of the authority vested in this role in a democratic society derives from the ballot box. Acceptance of such authority is for the most part willingly given but in the last resort is enforced by the courts. In a democratic society there are safeguards to prevent arbitrary exercise of power associated with holding a political office or using that power in a self-interested way.

2. **Commander:** A role confined to military or paramilitary organizations, its legitimacy stems from the nature of the threats to society, which the organization exists to deal with, such as the exigencies of war. The commander's orders are backed by the sanctions of stern discipline. Command is not necessarily perfectly correlated with rank. For example, the captain of a ship or an aircraft is in command although he may be junior in rank to another officer who may be acting as a member of the crew or in an advisory role.

3. **Administrator or bureaucrat (in the positive, Weberian sense).**
   This is the traditional public service role which derives the legitimacy of its authority from a rational/legal set of rules and regulations and from holding of an office with defined powers within a structure of authority and control. Challenges to the rules are rare but when they occur the response is procedural and measured. Administrators are judged by their ability to maintain order, stability, uniformity of treatment and impartiality.
4. **Manager.** The greatest challenge to managerial authority in the past has come from labour unions. The traditional sanction has been ‘the sack’. Increasingly, however, managerial authority is being challenged by consumer groups and by groups in the community representing various viewpoints such as animal rights or environmental conservation. In the face of such pressures from outside managerial authority often evaporates rapidly.

5. **The expert, specialist or professional.** This is the role which supplies the expertise essential to decision-making process. The authority which comes from the possession of superior knowledge or professional competence is, perhaps, the least likely to be challenged, although in an industrial and commercial culture such as that in the UK, which places relatively low value on technical expertise, it is in danger of being ignored.

6. **The entrepreneur.** The one who conceives the organization and brings it into being and whose authority is based on ownership of both the idea and the assets of the business.

**Transactional and Transformational Leadership**

The distinction between management and leadership is very close to the well-known distinction between transactional and transformational leadership. This distinction was first made by James McGregor Burns in 1978. Although he was writing about political leadership, the distinction has been applied in the sphere of business leadership where it is seen as equally relevant.

Transactional leadership occurs when managers take the initiative in offering some form of need satisfaction in return for something valued by employees, such as pay, promotion, improved job satisfaction or recognition. The manager/leader sets clear goals, is adept at understanding the needs of the employees and selects appropriate and motivating rewards.
Transformational leadership, however, is the process of engaging the commitment of employees in the context of shared values and a shared vision. It is particularly relevant in the context of managing change. It involves relationships of mutual trust between leaders and led. Bass and Avolio (1990) suggest that transformational leadership has four components:

1. **Idealised influence.** Having a clear vision and sense of purpose, such leaders are able to win the trust and respect of followers. By showing them that they can accomplish more than they believed possible, they build a base for future missions which enables them to obtain extra efforts from them.

2. **Individual consideration.** Paying attention to the needs and potential for development of their individual followers. Delegating, coaching and giving constructive feedback.

3. **Intellectual stimulation.** Actively soliciting new ideas and new ways of doing things.

4. **Inspiration.** Motivating people, generating enthusiasm, setting an example and being seen to share the load.
Team Building and Group Dynamics

Interactions in Groups

All interactions within a group either help the group to accomplish its task, or help the group to maintain itself, or do not serve any group function. The group needs the participation of members in both task and group-building/maintenance areas if it is to grow and become fully productive. As stated by Dimock (1987), all group participation can be classified in terms of functions or roles as follows:

Task Roles

1. Defining problems
2. Seeking information
3. Giving information
4. Seeking opinions
5. Giving opinions
6. Testing feasibility

Group-Building/Maintenance Roles

7. Coordinating
8. Mediating-harmonizing
9. Orienting-facilitating
10. Supporting-encouraging
11. Following

Individual Roles (non-functional)

12. Blocking
13. Out of
14. Digressing

Stages of Group Development

In 1965, Bruce W. Tuckman hypothesized that groups go through four stages of development during their formation, existence and dispersal.

- Forming
- Storming
- Norming and
Emotional Styles in Work-Group Relations

Weschler says that the manner in which a person reacts to emotional content of group interaction is an effective way to determine that individual’s style. Some people work most effectively with “tender” emotions (e.g., Affection, love, endearment, compassion) and others work most effectively with “strong” emotions (e.g., hostility, animosity, aggression). Three typical behavioural patterns are associated with an individual group member’s reaction to emotions. Friendly helpers are people who reject strong emotions yet are very comfortable with tender emotions.

- Strong achievers reject tender emotions yet are very comfortable with strong emotions.
- Logical thinkers are uncomfortable with all emotions and tend to displace emotions with logic, precision, data, facts and knowledge.

In the illustration, emotional styles appear as mutually exclusive extremes. In reality, people are most often some combination of the three styles.

Group Member Roles

According to Benne and Sheats (1948), group training frequently assumes that leaders are responsible for the success of a group. Consequently, training often focuses excessively on the role of group leader. Benne and Sheats reason that if groups are composed of both leaders and members, then an over-emphasis on group leadership neglects the relative importance of the roles enacted by group members. Members and leaders jointly share responsibility for group success.
Berne and Sheats classify group member roles under three major headings; task roles, building and maintenance roles, and individual roles.

Task roles center around getting the job done, the content of the group's activities and what the group accomplishes. Task roles enacted by group members include:

- Coordinator
- Orientor
- Evaluator – Critic
- Energizer
- Procedural technician
- Recorder
- Information seeker
- Initiator contributor
- Opinion seeker
- Information giver
- Opinion giver
- Elaborator

Building and Maintenance Roles

Building and maintenance roles evidence concern about group process and how tasks are due. Building and maintenance roles include

- Standard setter or ego ideal
- Group observer and commentator
- Follower
- Encourager
- Harmoniser
- Compromiser
- Gatekeeper and expeditor

Individual roles

Individual roles have to do with the ways in which group members satisfy their individual, personal needs; they do not necessarily relate to group accomplishment. Individual roles include:
- Play boy
- Dominator
- Help seeker
- Special-interest pleader
- Aggressor
- Blocker
- Recognition seeker
- Self-confidence

**Supportive Team practices**

**Listening**
- Pay attention; respond positively
- Don't interrupt; look interested
- Build on proposals; ask 'clarifying' questions
- Summarize to check your comprehension

**Cooperating**
- Avoid coercion and acrimony.
- Encourage others to give their views; compliment good ideas.
- Give careful consideration to proposals different from yours.
- Offer new ideas openly.

**Challenging**
- Continually refer back to the problem-solving process and aims.
- Question assumptions in a reasonable manner.
- Review progress of objective, team relationships and time.

**Building blocks of Effective Team work**

Team building requires a framework for systematic assessment. The building blocks approach highlights nine distinct aspects of performance and separately evaluates a team on each factor. These nine building blocks are briefly described below:

- **Clear objectives and agreed goals** - every team member is clear about the aims of the team and committed to their achievement.
o **Openness and confrontation** - people have honest relationships, identify problems and work them through to a constructive conclusion.

o **Support and trust** - team members go out of their way to help each other and are able to rely on the integrity and good intent of other members.

o **Co-operation and conflict** - effort is devoted to working together to resolve problems, and differences of view are valued as useful aids to progress.

o **Sound procedures** - work methods and problem solving are effective, with clear communication between participants.

o **Appropriate leadership** - the team manager adopts a progressive leadership.

o **Leadership style** - which meets the need of individuals and helps the team to develop.

o **Regular review** - the team takes time to evaluate its performance and learn from mistakes.

o **Individual development** - team members are stretched and increase their skills and stature through membership.

o **Sound inter-group relations** - relationships with other groups are friendly, open, co-operative and free from destructive competition.

**Developed teams have the following characteristics:**

- They are more energetic and resourceful.
- The team style of management is positive and consistent with many of today's values.
- They encourage their members to grow and change as individuals. Complex problems are often solved more competently by them.
- A greater degree of commitment to change is achieved.
**Danger signs**

Trouble can be spotted in a number of ways:

- A team suddenly appearing to split not cliques.
- One member tartly refusing to join in with general activity.
- Tendency for a team member to criticize the person, not the problem, and to be unduly hostile to unexceptionable ideas.
- At its worst, it may be seen in abduction - unresolved conflict will make people abandon their responsibilities, or demand help with their own work from others as if by right.

**Eroding Factors in Team Effectiveness and Their Handling**

Teams always encounter problems. As individuals change - say, by becoming more experienced and being promoted - so their aims and behaviour alter. This may work in the team's favour; sometimes it alters the equilibrium and reduces effectiveness. The team's health is the leader's responsibility; it is his/her task to observe, diagnose and treat disaffection, disunity or demotivation. Be on the alert for signs of trouble; in general, when your team cannot heal its own problems, you can be sure something is wrong.

If a person's bad behaviour or performance threatens morale, act quickly to keep your team's respect and confidence. Look for causes, enlisting help from other team members. Then talk to the dissident in private. After all, if you have been working happily together for some time you will probably want to help. Be direct about what impact the employee’s attitude is having on the rest of the team. Try to identify the problem, which may be due to:

- Personal problems or illness
- Insecurity about new structures or technology
- Disappointment at not receiving recognition/reward
- Significant disagreement with you or another team member
- Failure to relate to a new team member
Staleness due to, say, repetitive work
Apparent loss of status.

**Active Listening: Team work is an effort of Listening and Building on Ideas**

Listening demands effort. It is all too easy to follow our own line of thought while someone else is talking. Often we are just waiting for the chance to speak our own piece, without regard for what the other person is trying to say.

Active listening involves 'switching on' and staying 'tuned in' to others, giving thought to several questions, such as:

- What are they saying?
- What does it really mean? How does it fit in?
- How can I support it?
- What shall I say in response?

We think fast, but it still takes time. So effective listening can be difficult during animated discussions. A pause, when a speaker has finished, helps, and serious conversations are often notable for the periods of silence, rather than for volume of talk. Quality takes precedence over quantity.

Speaking and listening are interactive processes, each one influencing the other. If the listener shows clear signs of attention, the speaker is less inclined to repeat things. Equally, if the speaker is concise, the listener finds it easier to maintain concentration.
Art of Giving Feedback

Feedback and Learning from Experience

Learning from experience and feedback is a great quality for anyone to have. Enterprising managers possess this quality. They are continuously modifying their goal-setting behaviour on the basis of the feedback they receive from their environment. For example, in a toy assembling game, if a manager undertakes to assemble a certain number of toys and cannot do it, he modifies his goal in the next trial using the results of his previous experience. He has an orientation and flexibility of mind to test out his capabilities whenever an opportunity arises and is open to feedback.

Art of giving feedback

Feedback of Observations

- Feedback, intended to help a person or a group to develop, has to be acceptable and has to be useable. Otherwise, despite the best of intentions, it is wasted.

- Given in the right manner, feedback wins support and reinforces the desire to improve. Badly done, it will provoke resentment and rejection.

- Identifiable details help the recipient to recognise the precise circumstances being referred to, whereas sweeping generalisations present a confused picture and open the way to misunderstanding.

- Facts provide the basis for reasoned interpretations of events, with constructive dialogue where appropriate. Opinions about performance,
divorced from facts, offer little on which to build, and naturally invite counter arguments.

- Straight factual reporting often makes the most acceptable feedback, leaving it to the recipient to form whatever judgements are to be made. When this is the intention, tone of voice and facial expression must be taken into account, since both can communicate the views of the speaker in a very powerful way.

- Speculation, eg: "What would have happened if...", might prompt ideas worth pondering for the future, but must be differentiated from fact. If not, rigid pronouncements are made, often with increasing vigour, forgetting that these are solely matters of opinion.

- It is so easy to spot failures and dwell on them that reviews become known as "post mortems". Annual appraisals are viewed with disquiet where such negative bias has been the rule. Clearly, a balance needs to be struck between the attention given to success and that given to failure.

- Care and effort are required to analyse successes. But feedback of the details that emerge brings great rewards. It indicates positive and practical things to do in the future. It produces legitimate feelings of satisfaction and confidence.

As a basis for self-improvement, we can also observe and give feedback to ourselves. We benefit from being sensitive not only to what we do, but also to how we do it and the effect our behaviour has on others.
Developing Creativity

In this chapter, an attempt has been made to explore some training interventions for the development of creative potential in individuals. Creativity was described by Shakespeare as divine spark, which makes man paragon of all animals. It covers inter-alia.

1. Concepts of creativity
2. Blocks to creativity.
3. Training interventions.

Concepts of creativity

The world of imagination is boundless and human mind is regarded as a parachute, which works only when it is opened. Shackles of evaluative and judgmental thinking normally do not allow this parachute to open.

Michelangelo was once asked, “How do you produce statues that are so full of life? He replied, “The rough marble already contains the statues. It is just a matter of extracting them”. Thus, creativity requires extraordinary perception skills. As indicated earlier, Creativity is the produce of right brain functioning. It requires three processes for ripening.

Imagination, Intuition and Manipulation.

Intellectual love for events, places and people is necessary for fostering creativity. But emotional attachment, limited vision, distorted and extremely limited perception, critically and judgemental nature are some of the blocks on the golden path of creative efforts.

In the session on creativity, the trainees are provided two very simple problems.
The following **attitudes** are poisons for creative thinking.

i. **Problem cannot be solved.** Remedy: Every problem has solution.

ii. **It is not important or is childlike.** Remedy: treat each problem as important and be childlike in proposing solutions.

iii. **Fast attack on problems and thus forcing solutions.** Remedy: Define problem effectively and attempt slowly.

The following factors are **blocks** to creative thinking

**One correct answer thinking.** Remedy: there must be other ways: there must be better ways.

**Negative or ‘yes-but’ thinking.** Remedy: ‘Yes and’ thinking.

**Over-regard for logical thinking.** Remedy: Accept the need for intuition as well as logic.

**Over/reliance on experience.** Remedy: let’s find a better way.

Promoting a work-place environment that nurtures creativity, and incorporating creative thinking techniques in regular training Programmes to enhance group and individual creativity in thinking and problem solving, are some unstructured training interventions.

The training efforts should generally aim at inculcation of attitudes viz.,

a) “Similar to physical skill, creative skills can be taught and are enhanced with practice” – Osborn – Accepting this attitude.

b) “The brain has the ability to sprout of countless mutations, it can connect and reconnnect like a kaleidoscope forming pattern” (Sidney J Parnes) – accepting the attitude is necessary in C.P.S.

c) “A childlike man is not a man whose development has been arrested; on the contrary, he is a man who has given himself a chance of continuing to develop long after most adults have muffled for becoming childlike in creative problem solving.
d) “Truth is what stand the test of experience” (Einstein)- This attitude is necessary for creative problem solving.

e) Almost every problem has a solution and if we stretch our brains we will have number of solutions to the problem.

f) “Fast thinkers are witted and slow thinkers are dull witted”-treating it as a fallacy is necessary because for idea generation slow attack on problem is necessary.

g) Intuition, imagination and manipulations are also essential for Creative Problem Solving.

h) “Yes – and” attitude is superior to “Yes-but” attitude for deep exploration of problem for solutions.

i) ‘Fear of failure’ is to be replaced by ‘Hope for success’

j) ‘Wishful thinking’ and ‘stereo typing’ are poisonous for creative problem solving, the dawn of progress will be seen if these barriers are removed from the path of creative problem solving.

k) In problem solving ‘Risk taking’ and ‘living with fear of criticism’ are necessary.

A ‘CREATIVE ENVIRONMENT’ naturally nurtures creativity; Researchers have found the following as the environmental stimulants to creativity:

Freedom to define problems and to determine approaches and solutions-
“Freedom involves a sense of control over one’s work and ideas”.

Sufficient resources - access to appropriate resources including money, equipment, information and people.

Encouragement - management of enthusiasm, atmosphere, and commitment, non-evaluative atmosphere, and orientation towards risk.
Various organizational characteristics – a willingness to give people the opportunity to try and fail, absence of red tape, a cooperative and collaborative atmosphere, high trust, and open communication.

Recognition and feedback

Sufficient time to think, insulation from "fire fighting’.

Challenge the change to do something in a different way, or to succeed where others have failed.
It was Daniel Goleman who first brought the term “emotional intelligence” to a wide audience in 1995 book of that name, and it was Goleman who first applied the concept to business in 1998. In his research at nearly 200 large, global companies, Goleman found that while the qualities traditionally associated with leadership - such as intelligence, toughness, determination, and vision - are required for success, they are insufficient. **Truly effective leaders are also distinguished by a high degree of emotional intelligence, which includes self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills.**

These qualities may sound “soft” and un-business like, but Goleman found direct ties between emotional intelligence and measurable business results. While emotional intelligence’s relevance to business has continued to spark debate over the past six years, Goleman’s article remains the definitive reference on the subject, with a description of each component of emotional intelligence and a detailed discussion of how to recognize it in potential leaders, how and why it connects to performance, and how it can be learned.

Such anecdotes support the widespread belief that identifying individuals with the “right stuff” to be leaders is more art than science. After all, the personal styles of superb leaders vary: Some leaders are subdued and analytical; others shout their manifestos from the mountain tops. And just as important, different situations call for different types of leadership. Most mergers need a sensitive negotiator at the helm, whereas many turnarounds require a more forceful authority.

However, the most effective leaders are alike in one crucial way: They all have a high degree of what has come to be known as emotional intelligence. It’s not that IQ and technical skills are irrelevant. They do matter, but mainly as “threshold capabilities”; that is, they are the entry-level requirements for
executive positions. But, research clearly shows that emotional intelligence is the *sine qua non* of leadership. Without it, a person can have the best training in the world, an incisive, analytical mind, and an endless supply of smart ideas, but he still won’t make a great leader.

My colleagues and I have focused on how emotional intelligence operates at work. We have examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and effective performance, especially in leaders. And we have observed how emotional intelligence shows itself on the job. How can you tell if someone has high emotional intelligence, for example, how can you recognize it in yourself? The components of emotional intelligence are self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skill.

**The Five components of Emotional Intelligence at Work**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Hallmarks</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self-Awareness</strong></td>
<td>The ability to recognize and understand your moods, emotions, and drives as well as their effects on others</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Self-Regulation</strong></td>
<td>The ability to control or redirect disruptive impulses and moods&lt;br&gt;The propensity to suspend judgment—t o think before acting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Motivation</strong></td>
<td>A passion to work for reasons that go beyond money or status&lt;br&gt;A propensity to pursue goals with energy and persistence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Empathy</strong></td>
<td>The ability to understand the emotional make up of other people&lt;br&gt;Skill in treating people according to their emotional reactions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Social Skill</strong></td>
<td>Proficiency in managing relationships and building networks&lt;br&gt;An ability to find common ground and build rapport</td>
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Achievement Motivation Theory

Criticizing economics as being an overly simplistic and rationalistic discipline, David McClelland points out that it does not really account for how humans actually behave. For example, Elton Mayo and his work at the Hawthorne Western Electric plant in the 1920s and 30s recognized the non-economic motivations of workers.

Motivation research has long considered human motives and needs. However, isolating people's motivational needs can be a difficult process because most people are not explicitly aware of what their motives are.

In the Hawthorne Studies... the importance of the peer group was recognized in determining employee motivation.

In attempting to understand employee motivation, Abraham Maslow proposed a hierarchy of needs. David McClelland furthered this idea in his learned needs theory. McClelland's experimental work identified sets of motivators present to varying degrees in different people. He proposed that these needs were socially acquired or learned. That is, the extent to which these motivators are present varies from person to person, and depends on the individual and his or her background.

McClelland's experiment- the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) - consisted of showing individuals a series of pictures and asking them to give brief descriptions of what was happening in the pictures. The responses were analyzed in terms of the presence or absence of certain themes. The themes McClelland and his associates were looking for revolved around the following motivators: achievement, affiliation and power.
According to David McClelland, regardless of culture or gender, people are driven by three motives:

*Achievement,*
*Affiliation,* and
*Influence.*

Since McClelland's first experiments, over 1,000 studies relevant to achievement motivation have been conducted. These studies strongly support the theory.

**Achievement (nAch)**

The need for achievement is characterized by the wish to take responsibility for finding solutions to problems, master complex tasks, set goals, and get feedback on level of success.

**Affiliation (nAff)**

The need for affiliation is characterized by a desire to belong, an enjoyment of teamwork, a concern about interpersonal relationships, and a need to reduce uncertainty.

**Power (nP)**

The need for power is characterized by a drive to control and influence others, a need to win arguments, a need to persuade and prevail.

According to McClelland, the presence of these motives or drives in an individual indicates a predisposition to behave in certain ways. Therefore, from a manager's perspective, recognizing which need is dominant in any particular individual affects the way in which that person can be motivated.
Understanding Motives -- What does all this mean?

*High achievement motivation*

People driven by the achievement motive like to test themselves against their environment and attain standards of excellence.

In areas of management where high levels of delegation may be required, high achievement motivated individuals may be unable to give up their personal involvement with the task.

Specifically, achievement motivation is defined as a non-conscious concern for achieving excellence through individual efforts. Such individuals set challenging goals for themselves, assume personal responsibility for goal accomplishment, are highly persistent in the pursuit of these goals, take calculated risks to achieve the goals, and actively collect and use information for purposes of feedback.

High achievement motivated managers are also strongly inclined to be personally involved in performing their organizational tasks. However, they may also be reluctant to delegate authority and responsibility. **Thus, high achievement motivation may be expected to result in poor performance of high-level executives in large organizations.**

High achievement motivation is predicted to contribute to effective entrepreneurship and effective leadership of small task-oriented groups.

Achievement motivation is positively related to the leadership of small task-oriented groups and small entrepreneurial firms and negatively related to the effectiveness of high-level managers in complex organizations or in political situations.
**High power motivation**

People motivated by power are concerned about their impact on other people—convincing some one of their point of view or empowering others around them, and finding ways to connect with and influence powerful people.

Power motivation is assumed to be predictive of leader effectiveness ...the power motive is necessary for leaders to be effective because it induces them to engage in social influence behavior.

Power motivation is defined as the concern for acquiring status and having an impact on others. McClelland used power motivation as a measure of social influence behaviours. Clearly, since most management activities require the use of social influence behaviours and since power motivation measures an individual's desire to influence, the power motive is important for leadership effectiveness.

David McClelland proposed the Leader Motive Profile Theory (LMP theory) in which he argued that a high power motivation, greater than the affiliation motive, is predictive of leader effectiveness.

Highly power-motivated individuals obtain great satisfaction from the exercise of influence. Consequently, their interest in the exercise of leadership is sustained.

High power motivation is predicted to result in effective managerial performance in middle and high-level positions. However, unless constrained in some manner, some power-motivated managers may also be predicted to exercise power in an aggressive manner for self-aggrandizing purposes, to the detriment of their organizations.
**High affiliation motivation**

People driven by the affiliation motive are concerned about the quality of their relationships. They enter into relationships for the sake of the relationships; not for gain or influence. They are concerned with how harmonious and reliable their relationships are, and are likely to be upset when disruptions to relationships occur. Affiliative motivation is defined as a non-conscious concern for establishing, maintaining, and restoring close personal relationships with others. Individuals with high affiliative motivation tend to be non-assertive, submissive, and dependent on others. Such managers are expected to manage on the basis of personal relationships with subordinates. This may result in them showing favoritism towards some.

As managers, highly affiliative individuals are predicted to be reluctant to monitor the behaviour of subordinates, give negative feedback to others, or discipline their subordinates. However, when the power motive is higher than the affiliative motive, individuals are disinclined to engage in dysfunctional management behaviours such as submissiveness, reluctance to monitor and discipline subordinates, and favoritism.

**Need for Achievement and Entrepreneurship**

Originally, the need for achievement was the greatest concern for McClelland. He was particularly interested in this need and associated behaviors because most organizations want their employees to achieve. The 'need achievement' refers to an unconscious disposition to energize and drive. High nAch individuals are constantly 'competing with standards of excellence'. Further, they are attracted to tasks of moderate difficulty.

Over four decades of research into the characteristics of entrepreneurs has established that the essential need for achievement for entrepreneurship is learned at an early age.
Problem Solving and Decision Making

Effective problem solving is a key management skill and a major factor in determining individual and organizational success. People with good problem solving skills adapt more quickly in times of rapid change and are generally high achievers, whether it is by putting things right when they go wrong, making the best use of resources, or creating and exploiting opportunities. Whatever our personal and professional ambitions, we can improve our chances of achieving what we want and exploiting opportunities. Whatever our personal and professional ambitions, we can improve our chances of achieving what we want by developing your problem solving skills. Each of us has an innate ability to solve problems. To develop this ability we need a clear understanding of the skills and techniques involved and practice in applying them in different situations.

In the broadest sense, problem solving consists of devising a course of action which will enable us to achieve a particular goal or objective. It plays a fundamental role in our day-to-day lives, both through our own actions and those of others which affect us. Solving problems effectively requires an understanding of the problem solving process and the ability to use appropriate skills and techniques at the right time. To be a successful problem solver we must go through these stages:

- Recognizing and defining the problem
- Finding possible solutions
- Choosing the best solution
- Implementing the solution.

In this lesson the following objectives have been defined:

- Define problem-solving
• Differentiate between analytical and creative problem solving
• Recall various steps in the creative problem-solving process.

**Concept of Problem-Solving**

All of us face problems of some sort or the other everyday. Shower failure, Power failure, Breakdowns etc. In fact, problems are so much part of life that one wonders what life would be like, if there were no problems. Problems, as visualised by most of us, are irritants, impediments, hassles and a headache, in general are negative things.

In organisational situations, problems are actually, something to do, something challenging, something positive, to show our worth and to improve our performance.

We see or note that there is problem, through its associated symptoms. The symptom by itself is not the problem. Through symptom we have to exercise to pin down the problem responsible for the symptoms we see. This process is known as gathering the facts to identify the specific problem.

Repeat-symptom is not the problem. Problem is the cause of symptoms we see.

You have to eliminate symptomatic causes till you are left with the essential problem. The problem solving process has three steps:

- Define what needs to be done.
- Implement it.
- Check that it has worked.

This process is more like a circle rather than a straight line. Because, at the end of the 3rd step if you find the solution has not worked, you have to go back to the 1st step and repeat the 3-step process until you solve the problem.
There is no best solution to any problem. As, in reality, permanent elimination of problem through a solution is a myth. Problems are solved temporarily. Hence find an optimal solution (i.e. Best Possible Solution)

Ask Questions and do not offer solutions, remind yourself of what Peter Drucker - the Father of Management said - "Most common source of mistakes in management decisions is that the emphasis is on finding the Right Answer rather than asking the Right Question."

1) Why the problem has arisen?
2) How the problem manifests itself?
3) Seek additional information if it would help clarify the situation.

This leads to confirmed identification of the specific problem. Now, you have to fix criteria to be met by the solution to be proposed for the problem, such as -

- Fast solution,
- Minimize cost/additional investment,
- Maximize profits.

Make a Decision tree for clarity. A decision tree is a depiction, both visually and graphically, of the different options available for solving the problem. Finally, reviewing the entire gamut of problem-solving process, remember that it involves the following steps.

1) SEE THAT THERE IS A PROBLEM
2) DEFINE IT
3) SPECIFY THE NATURE OF THE PROBLEM
4) GENERATE POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS
5) DEFINE CRITERIA FOR MAKING A DECISION
6) LOOK FOR OPTIMAL SOLUTION
7) **MAKE THE DECISION**

8) **IMPLEMENT IT AND FINALLY**

9) **CHECK THAT IT HAS WORKED.**

This, in essence, is the heart of the approaches to problem solving.

**Problem –Solving Skill**

In literature below-cited, problem solving skills are quoted:

- Recognize problems when and where they exist.
- Anticipate developing problems while they are still in an embryonic stage.
- Determine an objective or goal, that is, the results desired when the problem is solved.
- Generate several possible solutions to the problem.
- Evaluate systematically the possible solutions against a set of predetermined criteria, and thus lead to an effective, appropriate solution.
- Plan for the implementation of the solution in an organized manner.
- Evaluate the results of the solution and monitor for future problems.

**Problem Solving Vs. Decision Making**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problem Solving</th>
<th>Decision Making</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Identify and try to understand the problem</td>
<td>Identify the objectives (goals) of the decision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collect relevant information and reflect on it</td>
<td>Find alternative ways of meeting these objectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generate some ideas</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
• Develop solutions
• Determine evaluation criteria/techniques
• Select the best solution
• Select best course of action
• Implement it
• Implement it

Identifying and Analysing Problems

Dealing with Problems Effectively

The ability to deal with problems effectively is a major requirement of management. It involves a blend of knowledge, skills and judgment.

• Knowledge of people, tasks and organizational influences such as policy, objectives and procedures.
• Skills in identifying, analysing and finding solutions to problems.
• Judgment to assist in making decisions throughout the problem-solving process.

Encouraging creative thinking

Everybody has the potential to think creatively. It rarely involves inventing completely new ideas. Most creative solutions to problems incorporate existing ideas, which have been combined in a unique or imaginative way. There are four things you can do to establish the right conditions for generating more creative solutions.

• Approach the problem with an open mind: Avoid the tendency to relate the problem to a similar problem which you have experienced and apply the same solution. Treat each non-routine problem as a new problem.
- **Suspend judgment:** Avoid reacting to problems with an immediate and obvious solution. Allow time to generate as many ideas as possible around the problem before evaluating the ideas to select a feasible solution.

- **Be prepared to take risks:** Most of us try to conform by meeting the expectations and reflecting the views of those around us. We try not to appear foolish by suggesting what may appear to others as 'silly' ideas.

- **Involve others who don't own your problems:** Share problems with subordinates or others in your organization. Their non-ownership of a problem should enable them to produce ideas which are at the very least different from yours and could help you reach a better solution.
Stress and Gender–Coping Mechanism

Defining Stress

Medically, stress is defined as a perturbation of the body's homeostasis. The common indices of stress include changes in:

i. Biochemical parameters such as epinephrine and adrenal steroids,
ii. Physiological parameters such as heart rate and blood pressure and
iii. Behavioural effects such as anxiety, fear and tension. In essence, stress is an umbrella term that encompasses physical trauma, strenuous exercise, metabolic disturbances and anxiety as they produce challenges to the body's homeostasis. The wear and tear that stressors subject our body too is termed as stress.

Says Dr Chugh: "Stress is how people react to demands placed on them, and arises when there is worry about one's capacity to cope. Seventy-five to 90 per cent of adult visits to primary care physicians are for stress-related problems."

"Stress occurs when you are incapable of handling a given situation. For instance, for soldiers constantly at the border, the situation is no longer so stressful. But for others, it would be."

"Stress is an agitated mind, a state that's caused by unfulfilled desire. Stress has nothing to do with an external situation."

Primary Causes

Although the causes of stress are myriad, we could loosely categorize these in to common and uncommon stressors. Common stressors comprise disease,
academic stress (heightened during examinations), marital discord, separation or divorce, career stress, bereavement and unemployment.

The uncommon ones include overcrowding, commuting, sleep deprivation, shifts (home, school, career), malnutrition, drug abuse, phobias, excessive exercise, noise pollution, etc.

**Insidious Effects**

Stress can be the culprit in palpitations, heart attacks, migraine and tension headaches, eating disorders, ulcers, irritable bowel syndrome, colitis, diabetes, backache, chronic fatigue syndrome, dermatitis, allergies, colds and coughs, asthma, insomnia, stammering, phobias, depression, premature aging ... The list is endless.

**Stress can be subdivided into constructive stress and destructive stress.**

The former is positive and a good motivator. It increases productivity and efficiency, besides providing stimulation. Destructive stress is counterproductive and detrimental to both psyche and body," Dr Chugh elaborates.

Needless to say, stress affects a negative person's performance in a well-defined manner. This effect is referred to as the Yerkes-Dodson law, which states that as arousal increases, performance improves, and with further increase in arousal, performance drops. Stress also affects their behaviour by boosting the activity level. Besides, the individual attempts to engage in coping behavior.
Stress and Gender

**Does stress tend to affect the male more than the female?**

Opinions vary, since there are differentiating factors between the sexes. AU parameters being equal, however, the preponderant view is that women are more adept at handling stress, thanks to better coping mechanisms.

Females handle stressors better than men do," opines - Dr.Chugh.

Ex-journalist Anandi Iyer echoes similar sentiments: "Women tend to have more stress because they have to manage two worlds, home and career. So they are stretched and stressed a little more. But women manage to balance both worlds and have more tenacity. Men tend to flap, while women deal with stress more rationally."

Malvika Joshi, a general manager at Fibcom India, thinks otherwise: "I feel men handle stress equally well as women. Men are more composed and don't show stress. Women show it." But Janki Chopra perceives no gender benders: "Whoever has a mind that's not within control will have stress.

Coping strategies

**Understanding stress-causing attitudes** is crucial to determining the coping mechanisms to use. Perfectionism, idealism and control could be major causes of stress not only for an individual but also for people around him. It is imperative to replace a stress-building attitude with a stress-busting one.

If you constantly seek to control the situation and achieve a 'perfect ten', don't. **Delegate tasks to subordinates. Strive for excellence, not perfection.** Excellence is a positive aspiration. Except in a high-precision industry, perfectionism can be a very negative attribute that induces stress in
oneself and others.

A positive attitude can dramatically reduce stress and transform an individual's life.

Redefine priorities, reassess abilities and potential, have realistic and flexible expectations, regular exercise, a healthy lifestyle and a balanced diet."

According to Joe Rodrigues, the Director of Breakthrough Communication Services in Mumbai: "The pillars of stress management are meditation, physical exercise and proper eating habits.

In daily life, people use two kinds of coping strategies—positive or negative. **Positive coping** includes time management, proper nutrition, healthy relationships and social support, regular exercise, recreational activities, sufficient sleep, vacations, meditation, relaxation techniques, a sense of humour, auto-suggestion, self-hypnosis, creative visualization, massage and yoga, to name a few.

**Negative coping** includes smoking, drinking, drugs, food, tranquilizer and stimulants like tea and coffee.

At the fag end of this piece, we wouldn't labor the point as to which strategies a reader should use. The choice is yours. And if making choices is a stressful activity for you, learn to view things backwards.

Remember: STRESSED spelt backwards is DESSERTS! Happy distressing!
The Internal Blocks to Women’s Leadership

PUTTING WOMEN AT THE CENTRE

What it might be like when women are at the heart of our organizations.

Imagine what an organization will be like when women are included at every level and in every occupation. Of course, there would not be exactly equal number of women and men anywhere, but women would be present in the board room alongside the men as chief executives, as non-executive directors, as production managers, as marketing specialists, as the finance director, as the executive responsible for human resources. There would be plenty of women engineers, software experts, collectors etc. Whenever a big decision was being made, women would be making a key contribution, listened to and respected and bringing a different perspective to the problem because of their experience. Women would be central to the organization at every level and in every function.

The debate over whether there are inherent differences between women and men continues, but there is now general agreement that there are more commonalities than differences. It is increasingly understood that there are greater differences for any given attribute within each group than between the groups. So, in terms of physical capacity for example, the range of heights, weights or strengths from the lowest to the highest vary more among women than they do between women or men.

Similarly, in terms of ability to function intellectually, the spread of ability is wider among women than it is between the two sexes. It is certainly true that, as intelligence and psychological testing have been improved, women have been shown to perform as well as men.
There is no difference in the ability of women and men to work hard. Research by the United Nations has shown that in the world as a whole, women comprise 51 per cent of the population, do 66 per cent of the work, receive 10 per cent of the income, and own less than 1 per cent of the property.

Most people would now agree that other apparent differences in the ability of women and men to function effectively are a product of the effects of oppression. Sexism has two effects: on the one hand, through institutional discrimination, it reduces women’s actual opportunities and, on the other, through ‘internalized oppression’, it leads women to accept barriers which some are able to overcome but which many do not.

There is a continuing debate about the fairness of positive discrimination as a tool for advancing women into leadership, but most people accept the importance of developing positive action strategies which aim to give women a fair chance when the opportunity arises.

Women are located in their greatest numbers in occupations such as nursing, teaching, childcare, social work, research and administration.

Some progress has been achieved, but we are still only half way. If we are to win the battle for complete equality of opportunity for women and then move ahead to build an inclusive organization, it is essential to create the conditions in which women will want to lead and will feel supported as they do so. These conditions need to include pay equality as well as equality of opportunity at all levels.

While the attitude of many women to taking on formal and informal leadership has changed dramatically and they are increasingly keen to join men in leading our organizations, many women still find themselves blocked. On the one hand, managers in many organizations still covertly operate old prejudices
when selecting or appointing women and on the other hand, many women still limit their own aspirations because of lack of confidence or fear about their ability to lead. The challenge is to scrutinize these external and internal blocks and then plan to eliminate them systematically.

In organizations, it operates to exclude women from the centre of events and has a profound effect on how they think and feel about themselves and their leadership. This oppression is called sexism and we can define it as the one way, systematic and institutionalized mistreatment of women by men using prejudices and negative stereotypes about women as the excuse for the mistreatment. As a result, women are likely to internalize' the messages of institutional discrimination and prejudice, ending up believing that the message are true about themselves.

Women in general, and young women in particular, seem to have made great progress in combating this process. They are more confident, less prepared to tolerate mistreatment and work more effectively together than ever before.

Why do women internalize sexism? It is a consequence of being subjected to the process of 'gender conditioning.' It begins with little girls and young women and is designed to prepare them for their future role in life and to secure their agreement to live within the limits of that prescribed role. In order to achieve this it is necessary to 'invent' a set of culturally acceptable characteristics that describe a 'real woman', which are then applied to each woman in order to demonstrate that she is only acceptable if she behaves within the limits of these characteristics. They change over time and are different in different groups depending on race, class or perhaps nationality.

Take a sheet of paper and pen and write down all the stereotype behaviour you were brought up to expect from 'real women'. Here is a start - 'Real women' are kind, considerate, understanding, pretty, unambitious, ... '
Then write down how you feel when women do not behave according to the stereotype.

- 'Real women' are sensitive and soft.
- 'Real women' care for other people.
- 'Real women' are expected to be slim, beautiful and well-dressed.
- 'Real women' experience the world as a frightening place.
- 'Real women' need a man to protect them.
- 'Real women' aren't leaders.

'Real women' are sensitive and soft

In the white, North European culture that I have grown up in, little girls tend to be brought up to understand that, while it is true that feelings in general should be kept to oneself, certain kinds of feeling are acceptable and other are completely unacceptable.

There is an expectation that little girls will be more 'emotional' than little boys, although, of course, not too emotional. For example, it is more acceptable for girls to be sensitive, soft and to cry when they are hurting. They are expected to be frightened if there is aggression about and to not stand up for themselves. This aspect of gender conditioning is rooted in the belief that women's future role is still expected to be that of primary child carer.

Later in life, women find that 'being too emotional' is itself a part of a negative stereotype about how women behave at work - if one gets 'too emotional', this leads to poor judgment on their part as well as being difficult for everyone else.

Nevertheless, little girls are brought up with some expectation that being soft is acceptable and valued. However, expressing other feelings is quite unacceptable - for example, expressions of outrage and anger are considered 'unfeminine'. 'Real women' do not become hostile or demanding, turn violent, or
make trouble.

**‘REAL WOMEN’ CARE FOR OTHER PEOPLE**

Women tend to be brought up not only to believe that being sensitive and soft is acceptable while being assertive or angry is not, but also to think that their ‘role’ in life is to put that sensitivity into actively caring for others. Of course, caring is an inherent human characteristic and absolutely essential to the well-being of both givers and receivers. However, gender conditioning implies that it is primarily women who need to develop this ability, while if it were extensively developed in a man it would be thought of as ‘unmanly’.

There are very precisely defined characteristics that ‘real women’ are expected to aim for in their appearance. These characteristics change over time according to changes in fashions, but for much of the past 50 years women have been expected to meet criteria that emphasize slimness, beauty (as defined by Eurocentric definitions of beauty), and ‘dress sense’. Very few women can meet these criteria, either because of their actual body structure or because of inadequate finances.

As a result, women look at and judge themselves through the eyes of others rather than through their own eyes, thus ‘objectifying’ themselves. Most women will experience a feeling of never being satisfied with the way they appear in the world, and, in circumstances where they must appear in the ‘perfect’, will have a very high level of stress, if they are unable to achieve it.

**‘REAL WOMEN’ EXPERIENCE THE WORLD AS A FRIGHTENING PLACE**

Women have always been brought up to see themselves as being ‘at risk’ in the world. Indeed, there has been a reported increase in violence towards women, particularly as the economic situation has worsened in recent years.

Both women and men tend to think that they are incomplete without a member of the ‘opposite sex’ as a partner, and the man is intended to be the
provider and protector while the woman is the carer. This is based on the negative stereotype just described, that women are the 'weaker sex' and are unable to look after themselves.

In the workplace, this leaves many women still stepping aside when a man, particularly if he is senior, starts to take over. In so many different situations there seems to be a tacit agreement between both parties that the man will lead for example, whether on television or in real life?

‘REAL WOMEN’ AREN’T LEADERS

Women are seen as marginal to the world of affairs rather than central to them. The inevitable consequence of being conditioned to not put themselves first but to see their primary role as caring for others, is that women do not see themselves as appropriate leaders in a situation, where leadership is defined as working to understand the whole situation and deciding to see to it that absolutely everything goes well. They are encouraged to fulfill their need for achievement through the achievement of others - for example cliches such as 'women are the power behind the throne!' 'The hand that rocks the cradle rules the world!' or 'Behind every good man is a good woman' speak oceans on this situation.

In the workplace, there are still many people in managerial and leadership positions with an underlying negative prejudice towards women being at work and moving into management, and they can block a woman's progress in many subtle and unsubtle ways. Moreover, when women look at the demands placed on managers in a 'traditional leadership' culture, many decide that this is something that they do not want and could not cope with given their other responsibilities. While more and more women have been able to ignore and escape this conditioning, it must undermine their aspirations to contribute and
lead, and many agree to settle for more junior positions than their ability permits.

Figure 2 demonstrates the primary content of women's gender conditioning and its cumulative effect which appears to be that many women have lower expectations of themselves and their lives, preferring to accept less than to do battle for their just position.

**Settling for Less**

Training to settle for less than absolutely everything for themselves, for their lives, for themselves as leaders, or for their world seems to be at the core of the gender conditioning that women receive. There are many examples of this in action. A significant example, historically, has been the way that women have often given more food to their partners and children rather than taking it for themselves, particularly where food is scarce.

Settling for less is deeply rooted in the training to be a carer, to place the needs of others first, while at the same time not placing one's own needs centrally. Women find themselves still paying attention, listening and giving love when they are absolutely exhausted and ready to drop.

In terms of leadership, women tend to be 'people orientated' rather than 'achievement orientated'. Judy Marshall writes, 'The most frequently reported difference [between women and men] is that women managers sometimes scored higher on the supporting dimensions of leadership than do male colleagues and showed a greater concern for relationships.'\(^2\) In a new study that Judy undertook she found that **women were considerably stronger than men in styles that emphasized teamwork, structuring the situation and consideration for others while men were more laissez-faire in their approach.**
While in practice this is an extremely useful emphasis given the needs of the present situation, it can also discourage women from putting themselves forward for leadership. It has the effect of preventing women from thinking about their career because they are simply getting on with the job they have taken on.
Creating Women Business Leaders

Differentiating Styles of Women Executives

Organizations that aim to deliver the highest standards of leadership require a diversity of thought and talent capability. It is increasingly being recognized that women do bring substantive diversity to company boards in terms of their composition, skill sets and experiences. Their intuitiveness, negotiation skills and the collaborative and inclusive styles of leadership that they inherently display would be seen as striking a fine balance with the more process-driven leadership culture, which is the hallmark of their male business peers and counterparts.

While much research has been conducted on gender stereotypes, the "Forum for Women in Leadership" (WILL Forum) conducted a survey on "Creating Women Business Leaders: Differentiating Styles of Women Executives" --to bring to light the personality and motivational factors that serve at the core of underlying gender differences in leadership. How do women executives define their leadership context? Are specific styles of leadership truly unique to women leaders?

This study, we aim to address the foregoing questions, which revolve around how leadership styles of women would contribute to enhanced business performance through collaborative leadership, public-spiritedness, flexible mindsets and high standards of work ethics.

Specifically, research evidence reveals that

1. Women leaders are self-critical of their own strengths and weaknesses and tend to rebound gracefully from setbacks. They tend to be intuitive crisis managers enabling fair and sound judgment.
2. They drive a democratic and inclusive approach by building an ecosystem and nurturing talent. These qualities appear to be intrinsic in character to women – leading to a collaborative style of leadership -- thereby setting higher benchmarks for themselves, and their peers.

While the findings of this survey suggest that corporate India seems to be working on the traditional definition of hierarchical, conventional form of leadership – Indian women professionals are definitely on the rise and are paving the way for future generations. Their visibility is not just restricted to India-with several of them working overseas with leading multinational companies. Thus, the survey clearly indicates the emergence of a new pattern of leadership – a pattern, which women executives are at the forefront of creating, not only in India, but also globally.

**Key Takeaways from the Survey**

- Women leaders tend to be fair and transparent in their communication
- They drive an inclusive approach to build an ecosystem that nurtures talent
- Women leaders find it difficult to break into established male-dominated corporate networks at the risk of balancing work/home aspects
- Senior women executives find performance assessments based on personal characteristics, ability to put in long hours and visibility of effort rather than on delivery or output as a challenge
- Organizations need to provide an eco-system for employee well-being, diversity in workplace and responsible citizenship that will respect and appreciate the "feminine" traits that women bring to the table
- The distinctive and persuasive leadership style of women executives enables them to build long-lasting relationships as opposed to mere social networks
- Women leaders are self-critical of their own strengths and weaknesses,
and tend to rebound gracefully from their setbacks
- Women corporate leaders tend to be intuitive and calculated in their decision making - qualities that enable fair and sound judgment
- Women friendly policies required to support high impact life events like marriage, childbirth, spouse transfers, aging parent, etc.
- An enabling work environment will allow women leaders to better penetrate into the management hierarchy
- Women also need to explore opportunities and reinforce who they are and what have they accomplished

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