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Training Program on
Managerial Skills for Convergence in Agricultural Extension

Reading Material



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Contents

Sl.No.	Particulars	Pg. No.
1.	Managerial skills	1
2.	Team Building	8
3.	Proactive Behavior	14
4.	Coordination skills	18
5.	Delegation and Empowerment	23
6.	Persuasion Skills	27
7.	Problem Solving	38
8.	Presentation skills	49
9.	Convergence	58

1. Managerial skills

Management

One can come across as many definitions of management as there are management thinkers. Given below are a few popular definitions.

“Knowing exactly what you want (people) to do, and then seeing that they do it in the best and cheapest way” (Taylor, 1903)

“The art of getting things done through people” (Mary Parker Follet)

“Management is the process of planning, organizing, leading and controlling the efforts of organization members and of using all other organizational resources to achieve stated organizational goals” (Stoner, 1989)

“Management is the process of designing and maintaining an environment in which individuals, working together in groups, efficiently accomplish selected aims” (Koontz, 1990)

Functions of Management

Luther Gullick and Urwick promoted what they call as universal principles of organization. Together, they promoted seven principles of administration and in so, coined the acronym POSDCORB. The POSDCORB stands for seven principles namely Planning, Organizing, Staffing, Directing, Coordinating, Reporting and Budgeting, These seven principles have been discussed briefly below:

Planning:

The first function proposed was planning based on Fayol's definition “to foretell the future and to prepare for it” i.e. identifying various activities required to reach the target and arranging them in terms of priorities and sequence. In essence, the human and material resources available to the

executive are estimated and the ways to reach the targets are discovered so that goals are achieved in a systematic and efficient manner.

Organizing:

Organizing is the establishment of formal structure of authority through which work subdivisions are arranged, defined and coordinated for achieving defined objectives. This principle reflects structural traits of the theory and points out that if serious overlapping of functions exists within an organization, there can be no clear-cut system of formal authority.

Staffing:

Staffing, as conceived by them, meant 'Personnel Management' i.e. the process of training and retaining competent work force in an organization.

Directing:

Directing is the principle according to which the executive should continuously guide the organization i.e. it is the continuous task of making decisions and embodying them in specific and general orders and instructions, and thereby serving as the leader of the organization.

Coordination:

It is the most important activity and it inter-relates the various parts of the organization and synchronizes their efforts so that unnecessary duplication is removed. It aims at securing timely cooperation between the various units and employees.

Reporting:

According to this principle, the executive should keep those, to whom the executive is responsible, informed as to what is going on in the organization so that timely control can be exercised. It includes keeping himself and his subordinates informed through records and Inspections.

Budgeting: It is the most important principle without which rest of the six principles can achieve nothing. It takes the form of fiscal planning, accounting and financial control.

Principles of Management

1. Division of Work: The objective of dividing the work is to produce more and better work with the same human resources available. It also enables a better span of attention.

2. Authority and Responsibility. According to Fayol, authority of a person is his 'right to give orders and to exact obedience'. Authority in an organization acts as a resource, which is needed to carry out responsibilities entrusted to a person. However, authority should be commensurate with the responsibility and any imbalance between the two leads to a situation where the work cannot be done.

3. Discipline: Discipline in an organization is essential in order to ensure obedience and respect for the agreements arrived at in the organization. It is a very essential feature because the organization may not be able to achieve its goals in its absence. The means for establishing and maintaining it are - open and clear communication system in the organization, a set of clear rules and regulations and judicious application of sanctions i.e. penalties in case of any violations.

4. Unity of Command: According to this principle, an employee shall receive orders from one superior only. As soon as two superiors wield their authority over one and the same person or department, the authority will be undermined and discipline will be in jeopardy.

5. Unity of Direction: This principle means that there should be one head and one plan for a group of activities having the same objective. This ensures unity of action, coordination of strength and focusing of effort and

subordination of individual interests to the general interests of the organization.

6. Subordination of individual interests to the general interest:

This principle envisages that in organizational business the interest of one employee or group of employees should not be given importance over that of the organization.

7. Adequate and Fair Remuneration to the Personnel:

The personnel should be compensated with adequate and fair remuneration for the sacrifices in the larger interests of the organization. The methods of payment should be fair, encouraging keenness by rewarding well-directed efforts and should be just viz. within reasonable limits.

8. Centralization:

Top should decide the extent to which authority is to be dispersed in the organization or retained at higher levels. Fayol preferred, as far as possible, the centralization of authority in an organization to ensure "Unity of Command" and "Unity of Direction".

9. Scalar Chain:

According to this principle, there should be a clear and well-defined chain of command running down the organizational hierarchy. However, there could be jumping of levels in this chain. But this should not be carried to such an extent that it may prove to be detrimental to the business itself; it should be only unto a limited and desirable extent.

10. Order:

This principle should be distinguished from discipline. According to this principle, there must be a place for everything and each person (i.e. employee) should be in his appointed place.

11. Equity:

Equity results from the combination of kindness and justice. Equity means fairness of treatment to all the persons in the organization and

hence application of this principle requires good sense, experience and good nature.

12. Stability of Tenure: Management should strive to ensure a long-term association of the personnel in order to make use of the experience and expertise attained by the employees.

13. Initiative: According to this principle, creative thinking of the personnel should be encouraged since initiative in an organization is a great source of strength for it and it provides the manager to think out a plan and execute it.

14. Coordination or *Esprit-de-corps*: This principle underlines the old adage "Unity is Strength". Harmony, fellow feeling and union among the personnel provide the organization a great strength. This principle is a natural corollary to the first principle i.e. the 'Division of Work". Unless the work is coordinated, rest of the principles cannot be applied.

Management Skills

A manager's job is varied and complex. Hence, managers need certain skills to perform the functions associated with their jobs. During the early 1970s, Robert K. Kalz identified three kinds of skills for administrators. These are technical, human and conceptual skills. A fourth skill – the ability to design solutions – was later added to the above mentioned skills.

Technical Skills

Technical skills refer to the ability of a person to carry out a specific activity. In order to do so, one needs to have knowledge of methods, processes and procedures. Engineers, computer specialists, accountants and Agricultural Scientists & Extensionists all need to have necessary technical skills for their specialized field. Technical skills are essential for first-level managers. For example, employees at the operational level work with tools, and their supervisors must be able to teach them how to perform the tasks

assigned to them using these tools. First-level managers spend much of their time in training subordinates and clarifying doubts in work related problems.

Human skills

Human skills or interpersonal skills refer to the ability of a person to work well with other people in a group. It is the ability to lead, motivate, and communicate with people to accomplish certain objectives. Human skills are of paramount importance in the creation of an environment, in which people feel comfortable and are free to voice their opinions. These skills aid employees during interaction with their supervisors, peers and people outside the work unit such as suppliers, customers and the general public. These skills are important for all levels in the organization.

Conceptual Skills

Conceptual skills refer to the ability of a person to think and conceptualize abstract situations. It is the ability to understand and coordinate the full range of corporate objectives and activities. These skills are most important at the top management level, as top-level managers have the greatest need to see the "big picture" to understand how the various parts of the organization relate to one another and associate the organization with the external environment.

Design Skills

Design skills refer to the ability of a person to find solutions to problems in ways that would benefit the organization. Top managers should not only recognize a problem but also suggest ways to overcome them. If they only see the problem, they become mere "problem watchers" and will prove ineffective. Managers at upper organizational levels should be able to design a rational feasible solution to the problem by considering various internal and external factors.

The relative significance of these skills varies at different levels in organizational hierarchy. We can briefly summarize them as follows:

- First-level managers require more technical skills in order to supervise operational employees. They need to have good human skills for they need to interact with their subordinates on a regular basis. However, conceptual skills are usually not very essential for the managers at the supervisory level.
- The need for technical skills is lesser at the middle-management level. Here, human skills and conceptual skills are more significant.
- At the top-management level, conceptual, design and interpersonal skills are of greatest importance; there is little need for technical skills.

Managerial Roles as narrated by Minzberg

Interpersonal	Figurehead	Performs ceremonial and symbolic duties such as greeting visitors and signing legal documents.
	Leader	Direct and motivate subordinates, training, counseling, and communicating with subordinates.
	Liaison	Maintain information links both inside and outside organization; use mail, phone calls, meetings.
Informational	Monitor	Seek and receive information, scan periodicals and reports, maintain personal contacts
	Disseminator	Forward information to other organization members; send memos and reports, make phone calls
	Spokesperson	Transmit information to outsiders through speeches, reports, memos
Decisional	Entrepreneur	Initiate improvement projects, identify new ideas, delegate responsibility to others
	Disturbance Handler	Take corrective action during disputes or crises; resolve conflicts among subordinates; adapt to environmental crises.
	Resource Allocator	Decide who gets resources, scheduling, budgeting, setting priorities
	Negotiator	Represent department during negotiation of union contracts, sales, purchases, budgets; represents departmental interests

2. Team Building

A team can be defined as a group of individuals working in a face-to-face relationship for a common goal, having collective accountability for the outcome of its effort (Pareek, Udai, 2004). The most important characteristic of the team is that it creates synergy i.e. the performance of the team is better than the collective performance of the individual members.

Management thinkers differentiate between a work group and a team; the differences are enlisted below:

Key point	Workgroup	Team
Leader	Has a strong, clearly focused leader	Has shared leadership or less
Accountability	Has individual accountability	Has individual and mutual accountability
Purpose	Purpose is the same as the organization	Has a specific purpose
Work Products	Has individual work conducts	Has collective work products
Meetings	Runs efficient meeting	Team encourages open ended, active problem solving meeting
Measuring effectiveness	Measures effectiveness indirectly through financial performance of the overall business	Measures performance directly by assessing collective work products
Decision making	Workgroup discusses, decides and delegates	Team discusses, decides and does real work together
Goal	Share information	collective performance
Synergy	Neutral (Sometimes negative)	Positive
skills	Random & varied	Complementary

Teams go beyond traditional formal work groups by having a collective, synergistic effect.

Rationale for teams in organization:

Teams can produce outputs which are greater than the sum of their parts. It creates synergy i.e. the performance of the team is better than the collective performance of the individual members.

Team based environment can result in different benefits:

1. Enhanced performance in terms of improved productivity, quality and customer service
2. Employees get satisfaction as they manage themselves, make collective decision, identification themselves with the work and human dignity
3. Employees take collective responsibility for the outputs and thereby reduce errors, absenteeism and turnover and thereby reduce costs
4. Teams can result in increased innovation, creativity and flexibility which results in organizational enhancement.

Team development

A group of individuals, when formed into a team, go through different stages. Bruce W Tuckman suggested five stages of team development as forming, storming, norming, performing and adjourning.

A model of team building as suggested by Kormanski and Mozenter (as quoted by Pareek Udai, 2004)

Stage	Theme	Task outcome	Relationship Outcome
One	Awareness	Commitment	Acceptance
Two	Conflicts	Clarification	Belonging
Three	Cooperation	Involvement	Support
Four	Productivity	Achievement	Pride
Five	Separation	Recognition	Satisfaction

Types of Teams:

Typology of teams according to Luthans (1995)

1. Advice (Board, Review Panels, etc.)
2. Production (manufacturing crews, mining teams, maintenance crews, data processing groups)
3. Project (Research groups, planning teams, engineering teams, task forces)
4. Action (sports teams, entertainment, expeditions, negotiating teams, surgery teams, military units).

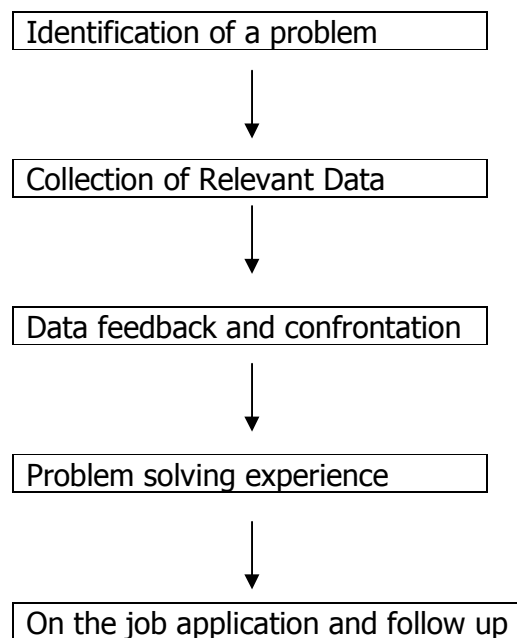
Most common types of teams identified by Robbins et al (2009) are mentioned below:

1. Problem solving teams: Team is composed of 5 to 12 members from the same department who meet for a few hours each week to discuss ways of improving quality, efficiency and the work environment.
2. Self managed work teams: This is a group of employees, typically 10 to 15 in number, who perform highly related or interdependent jobs and take on many of the responsibilities of their former supervisors. They are involved in planning and scheduling works, assigning tasks to members, making operating decisions, taking actions on problems and working with clients.
3. Cross functional teams: These are teams made up of employees, from about the same hierarchical level but from different work areas, who come together to accomplish a task.
4. Virtual teams: These teams use computer technology to tie together physically dispersed members in order to achieve a common goal. They use communication links such as wide area networks, video conferencing or email for their entire or part of work.

Team Building

It is a broad title for activities designed to construct, develop and sustain groups of people who are working together to achieve common goals with a commitment to taking collective responsibility (Rao & Hari Krishna, 2002). Team building encourages team members to examine how they work together, identify their weaknesses and develop more effective ways of cooperating. The goal is to make the team more effective. High performance teams accomplish their tasks, learn how to solve problems, and enjoy satisfying interpersonal relationships (Newstrom and Davis, 1998).

Typical stages in Team Building



Members of effective teams exhibit the following characteristics (Udai pareek, 2004):

- Understand and are committed to group goals
- Are friendly, concerned and interested in others
- Acknowledge and confront conflict openly
- Listen to others with understanding

- Include others in the decision making process
- Recognize and respect individual differences
- Contribute ideas and solutions
- Value the ideas and contributions of others
- Recognize and reward team effort and
- Encourage and appreciate comments about team performance

Conflict within teams:

When people from different backgrounds, value systems and cultures get into teams, conflicts are bound to arise. They can be classified based on:

- Identity - people usually feel that the group diminishes their individuality
- Disclosure - fear of rejection makes members disclose what they think others will accept
- Trust
- Individuality
- Authority
- Regression
- Creativity

Social loafing

One of the best known limitations of teams is the risk of productivity loss due to social loafing. It occurs when people exert less effort (and usually perform at a lower level) when working in groups, than when working alone. This can be minimized by forming smaller teams, assigning specialized tasks to members, measuring individual performance, by increasing job enrichment and by selecting motivated employees (Mc Shane and Glinow, 2005).

Team based work

This is not just about team building, it actually deviates from the normal concept of team building and emphasizes on the need for building effectively successful organizations based on teams. It can be defined as the process of building organizations that ensure the effectiveness of work teams and their organizations.

Various factors contribute to effective performance of teams like small size, complimentary skills, common purpose, specific goals, allocation of roles, common approach and mutual accountability. Individuals who join organizations as employees need to be transformed into team players by training them and providing rewards to be good team players.

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3. Proactive Behaviour

Proactivity or proactive behaviour by individuals refers to anticipatory, change oriented and self-initiated behaviour in situations, particularly in the work place. Proactive behaviour involves acting in advance of a future situation, rather than just reacting. It means taking control and making things happen rather than just adjusting to a situation or waiting for something to happen. Proactive employees generally do not need to be asked to act, nor do they require detailed instructions (wikipedia, 2013).

As an Agricultural extension Manager, one of the major roles is to introduce organizational changes continually to bring about a better fit between the department and the rural environment. Manager's role is to be proactive i.e. anticipating events, initiating change, and taking control of the Department's agenda. And on the other hand, he/she has to restore and maintain the team equilibrium. He/she also needs to be reactive- responding to events, adopting to change and moderating the consequence of change.

Some managers actively take initiative to improve their current circumstances or create new ones; they are called proactive personalities. They identify opportunities, show initiative, take action and persevere until meaningful change occurs. They create positive change in their environment, regardless of or even in spite of constraints or obstacles.

Managers, in their positions, have specific roles to play and respond to the various expectations that farmers have from those roles. This satisfies the self and others in the Department. Proactivity i.e. taking the initiative rather than only responding to other's expectation, contributes much more to efficacy. It involves creating change, not only just anticipating it.

Proactives have many desirable behaviours that organizations covet (Robbins etol, 2009)

- They are more likely to be seen as leaders
- Likely to act as change agents

- Likely to challenge the *status quo* or voice their displeasure when situations are not to their liking
- They are people with entrepreneurial initiative
- More likely to achieve career success
- They select, create and influence work situation in their favour
- They seek out job and organizational information, develop contacts in high places, engage career planning, and demonstrate persistence in the face of career obstacles.

Bateman and Crant (1999) describe the characteristics of proactive people:

- Scan for change opportunities
- Set effective, change oriented goals
- Anticipate and Prevent problems
- Do different things, or do things differently
- Take action
- Persevere in their efforts
- Achieve results

Parker and Collins illustrate the following types of proactive behaviours:

- Actively adjusting to new job conditions
- Using one's initiative
- Expressing voice
- Selling critical issues to leaders
- Proactive service performance
- Taking charge to bring about change
- Self-initiated role expansions
- Proactively solving problems and implementing ideas
- Network building

Crant Michael (2000) describes four constructs related to proactive behavior:

- Proactive personality
- Personal initiative

- Role breadth self-official and
- Taking charge

Description of some terms in proactivity

- Self efficacy: One's judgment about his/her capability to perform particular tasks is a critical work motivation variable. Individuals who feel capable of performing particular tasks tend to carry them out more effectively, persist at them, cope more effectively with change, choose more difficult goals, and adopt more efficient task strategies.
- Personal initiative: Work behavior that is characterized by future-oriented, goal directed, being persistent and self starting
- Proactive personality: Individual's abilities to influence their environment and effect change
- Taking charge: is characterized by behavior that brings about improved procedures for the work unit, correct a faulty procedure or practice or implement solutions to prioritized problems
- Voice includes behaviors like communicating feeling about work concern, voice out ideas for new projects and changes in the existing set up and make suggestions/recommendations for the concerns

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4. Coordination skills

Each organization has different goals and directs the resources like men, materials, machines and money to achieve the goals. The efforts of various sections/departments need to be systematically pooled, planned and utilized towards the goals. Though the work is divided among different sections/departments, all the employees need to know what the others are doing in the organization to achieve harmony and avoid duplication of efforts and confrontation of interests. The process of synchronizing the goals and activities of different sections/departments into holistic unit is called coordination.

Any organization divides the work into different manageable parts and assigns to different sections/departments which may further be divided into operative divisions depending on the nature of tasks. Different individuals occupying the positions in these divisions must be aware of not only their work, but also of others, and depend on each other for work processes. For a smooth flow of action, the efforts of all individuals need to be integrated in a systematic fashion, which is called as coordination. It is the process of integration, synchronization and unification of efforts of all members of the organization for a unity of action to achieve common goals. It is the essence of management and is implicit and inherent in all functions of management.

Coordination is the process of bringing activities or groups of activities into proper relation with each other to make sure that everything that needs to be achieved is achieved, and that no two people are trying to do same job.

Coordination is the means of distributing authority, providing channels of communication and arranging the work so that-

- right things are done (what)
- in the right place (where)
- in the right time (When)
- in the right way (how)
- by the right people (by whom)

When an activity is coordinated, everything works well. It is orderly, harmonious, efficient and successful (Goel & Rajneesh, 2007).

Significance of coordination

- Increases efficiency, resources are optimally utilized
- Improves human relations-members begin to work in orderly manner, appreciating the work of others, understand and adjust with each other by developing trust and cooperation
- Fosters loyalty and commitment among employees
- Maintains inter-departmental harmony
- Key to other functions of management like planning, organizing, staffing, directing and controlling.

Differences between Cooperation and Coordination:

Key points	Cooperation	Coordination
Nature	Voluntary in nature, refers to the willingness of people to help each other	Deliberate effort to put things in order and achieve common objectives
Status	Necessary and vital function of management	Attitude of individuals and groups, not a function of management, co-operation is essential for successful coordination
Nature of work	Individuals learn to cooperate with each other even when their work is least related with others	The work gets divided and then integrated in every organization, coordination of all independent departments is essential
Breadth	Cooperation is necessary for coordination	Coordination is necessary for organization. Even when cooperation exists, without coordination, the organization fails.
Process	Performed at all levels in the organization	Performed by top management
Relationship	Only informal relationship	It establishes formal and informal relationship

Principles of coordination

Coordination is a continuous and dynamic process which emphasizes unity of efforts to achieve the desired results. Principles of coordination as described by Mary Parker Follet:

- Principle of direct contact: Coordination can be achieved by direct inter-personal relationships and personal communication
- Early stage: Coordination should start from the very beginning of planning process
- Reciprocal relationship: All factors in a situation are reciprocally related. All the parts influence and are influenced by other parts
- Principle of continuity: Coordination is involved in every managerial function and is a continuous and never ending process.
- Principle of subordination: When a particular department affects other function or department, it is in turn affected by other department or function. This particular department may not be having control over the other department. However, if other department is modified in such a fashion, that it affects the particular department favourably, self-coordination is said to be achieved (Rao & Harikrishna, 2002).

Types of coordination

On the basis of scope of functions, Coordination may be classified into:

- Internal and External Coordination – coordination among the different units of an organization is internal coordination. Coordination between an organization and its external environment is External Coordination.
- Vertical and Horizontal coordination – coordination between different levels of an organization is vertical coordination which

is achieved by top management through delegation of authority and hierarchy

- Plan work
 - Delegate properly
 - Motivate people
 - Monitor performance
 - Earmark funds
 - Ensure discipline
 - Stick to a plan and ensure conformity
 - Use manuals, orders, reports and standardized procedures, wherever required
 - Communicate openly
- Horizontal coordination is achieved when various positions at the same levels mutually consult and cooperate.
 - Periodic meetings
 - Exchange information, on a face-to-face basis
 - Underscore the importance of work at various levels
 - Use task forces, project managers to integrate work
 - Use standardized procedures, rules, regulations
 - Create liaison roles

Based on the purpose, coordination may be divided into three aspects
(Goel & Rejneesh, 2007)

Program coordination – It can be achieved through:

- Representation at each other's meetings on all appropriate occasions;
- Early consultation when one organization felt that the other might be interested or involved in an activity;
- Creation of standing or 'ad hoc' joint committees whenever circumstances warrant;

- Full and continuous personal contacts among the officials of the organization. However, care should be taken that time may not be wasted in meetings.

Administrative Coordination

Coordination relating to personnel and financial matters may be achieved through personnel department/establishment section and budget section. Personnel and financial administration can help in coordinating the personnel and financial resources.

Procedural Coordination

Such coordination can be achieved by devising suitable manuals detailing procedures. Such manuals need to be kept up-to-date. Informal methods are more productive. Coordination can be secured through informal methods such as:

- Instilling dominant objective among the members of the group;
- Developing generally accepted professional standards and norms making it easier for employees to work with one another enthusiastically;
- Promoting informal contacts to supplement formal communication;
- Encouraging upper echelons to maintain close contact with personnel working under them; and
- Using group methods for informal exchange of ideas and views.

Coordination process (Rao & Harikrishna, 2002)

- Clearly defined and understood objectives
- Proper division of work
- Good organization structures
- Clear lines of authority
- Regular and timely communication
- Sound leadership

Coordination is a continuous process and advance planning and decision making is required for effective coordination. More coordination between various departments is needed when the departments are dependent on each other.

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5. Delegation and Empowerment

Delegation is the process of assigning job activities and corresponding authority to specific individuals within the organization. It takes place when a person lends his authority to another person conditionally or in full, so as to enable that person to assume responsibility as the situation demands.

Millet clarifies that "Delegation of authority means more than simply assigning duties to others in more or less detail. The essence of delegation is to confer discretion upon others to use their judgment in meeting specific problems within the framework of their duties. Management leadership must then accept the responsibility for how this discretion is exercised".

Delegation involves three important concepts – Responsibility, Authority and Accountability. Manager must share responsibility and authority with the delegates and hold them accountable for their performance. The ultimate accountability, however, must still remain with the manager.

Importance of delegation

- Saves the time of top authorities
- Promotes responsibility among the subordinates and exercise judgment
- Encourages ownership of activities
- Improves relationship among team players
- Imparts training to team members to shoulder responsibility
- Improves quick decision making as it is closer to where the action is to be taken
- Promotes flexibility
- Improves self confidence and willingness to take initiative among team members

Pre-requisites for Delegation

- Manager's willingness to give employees freedom to accomplish delegated tasks which gives them freedom to choose methods and solutions to accomplish the tasks
- Open communication between managers and employees

What delegation is not

- Delegation is not abdication
- Delegation is not abandonment
- Delegation does not mean that manager loses control and power
- Delegation does not mean avoiding decisions

Guidelines for making Delegation Effective

- Give employees freedom to pursue tasks in their own way
- Establish mutually agreed upon results and performance standards for delegated tasks
- Encourage employees to take on active role in defining, implementing, and communicating progress on tasks.
- Entrust employees with completion of whole projects or tasks whenever possible.
- Explain the relevance of delegated tasks to larger projects or to departments or organization goals.
- Give employees the authority necessary to accomplish tasks.
- Allow employees access to all information, people, and departments necessary to perform the delegated task
- Provide training and guidance necessary for employees to complete delegated tasks satisfactorily
- When possible, delegate tasks on the basis of employee interest.

The effective Delegator

- Clarifies the assignment
- Specifies the team member's range of discretion
- Allows the team members to participate in what to delegate, how much authority is needed for the job to be done and standards for judging the job
- Informs others that delegation has occurred
- Establishes feedback controls at the initial stage of delegates process
- Insists on the recommendations from the team members when problems surface.

Limitation of Delegation:

1. Reluctance to delegate: Managers resist delegating authority to subordinates as they cannot bear to part with their authority. Managers also have some preconditioned notions and fears about delegation like

- Better performance is possible only by self, not by others
- No trust, subordinates may not do a job well
- Delegating authority may be seen as a sign of weakness and reduce the delegate's authority
- Subordinates may get credit for the work
- These tasks are important for self's personal success, hence cannot be delegated.
- Close and continuous guidance is difficult
- Finally, I am accountable
- Lose the track of progress of delegated task

2. Reluctance to accept Delegation

- Afraid of failing
- Lack of self confidence/belief that supervisor does not have confidence in him/her

- Fear of criticism
- Manager may not be available for guidance
- Want to avoid responsibility and risk
- Reluctance to exercise authority
- Already overburdened
- Insecure and confusion about who is ultimately responsible for the tasks.

3. Reducing the limitations of Delegation

- Willingness to consider other's ideas seriously
- Developing trust in the employee's abilities
- Identification of skilled persons to get the jobs done keeping in view their abilities and workload
- [Use benchmarks and work periodic intervals to monitor the work progress](#)
- Differentiate between what and what not to delegate to others
- Reward acceptance of responsibility

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6. Persuasion Skills

We persuade people every day, whether it's getting our children to follow their time schedule, asking a colleague to help with a project, or convincing our farmers to adopt improved technologies.

Persuasion is communication with a purpose - to cause a person or group to adopt as their own a product, person, idea, entity, or point of view that the person would otherwise not support. To put it more simply, persuasion is going beyond "please." To be persuasive, you have to establish a common bond between yourself and the person you are trying to influence. This bond, often called "common ground," comes from shared experiences, understandings, cues, and meanings. The language we use and the way we communicate are central to this bonding process. Words convey meaning, emotion and feelings. All words are not created equal, however, some words evoke more emotion in listeners, and as such they are more powerful and hence persuasive.

Persuasion is underneath the umbrella term of Influence. In other words, persuasion is influence, but it requires communication, whereas influence doesn't necessarily. Persuasion can attempt to influence the beliefs, attitudes, intentions, motivations or behaviors. Persuasion is a process aimed at changing a person's (or a group's) attitude or behavior toward some event, idea, object, or other person (s), by using written or spoken words to convey information, feelings, or reasoning, or a combination thereof (Wikipedia)

Effective persuasion is a process which involves negotiating and learning through which a persuader leads colleagues to a problem's shared solution. It incorporates discovery, preparation and dialogue. It is about testing and revising ideas in concert with one's colleagues' concerns and needs.

The principal purpose of persuasion can be defined as being able to influence or change one's attitudes, beliefs or values towards a particular subject/object, so that these will merge and finally equal the persuader's thoughts and feelings.

Laws of persuasion:

Robert Cialdini, in *Influence*, his book on persuasion, defined six "influence cues or weapons of influence"

Law of Reciprocity

The principle of reciprocity states that when a person provides us with something, we attempt to repay him or her in kind. Reciprocation produces a sense of obligation, which can be a powerful tool in persuasion. The reciprocity rule is effective because it can be overpowering and instill in us a sense of obligation. Generally, we have a dislike for individuals who neglect to return a favor or provide payment when offered a free service or gift. As a result, reciprocation is a widely held principle. This societal standard makes reciprocity extremely powerful persuasive technique, as it can result in unequal exchanges and can even apply to an uninvited first favour.

Law of Commitment and Consistency

Consistency is an important aspect of persuasion because it

- is highly valued by society,
- results in a beneficial approach to daily life, and
- provides a valuable shortcut through the complicated nature of modern existence. Consistency allows us to more effectively make decisions and process information. The concept of commitment states that if a person commits, either orally or in writing, he or she is more likely to honor that particular commitment. This is especially true for written commitments, as they appear psychologically more concrete and can be backed with hard proof.

Once a person commits to a stance, he or she has a tendency to behave according to that commitment. Commitment is an effective persuasive technique because once you get someone to make a commitment, they are more likely to engage in self-persuasion, providing themselves and others with reasons and justifications to support his or her commitment in order to avoid dissonance.

Law of Liking:

This principle is simple and concise. People say "yes" to people that they like. Two major factors contribute to overall liking. The first is physical attractiveness. People who are more physically attractive seem to be more persuasive; they get what they want and they can easily change others' attitudes. This attractiveness is proven to send favourable messages/impressions of other traits that a person may have, such as talent, kindness, and intelligence. The second factor is similarity. This is the simpler aspect of "liking." The idea of similarity states if people like you, they are more likely to say "yes" to what you ask them. When we do this, we usually don't think about it, it just comes naturally. Other obvious ways to be likeable: Smile, be enthusiastic, be confident, be prompt, be respectful, and never, ever argue.

Law of Authority:

We have the tendency to believe that if an expert says something, then it must be true. People like to listen to those who are knowledgeable and trustworthy, so if you can be those two things, then you are already on your way to getting people to believe and listen to you.

Law of Social Proof:

We are influenced by others around us; we want to be doing what everyone else is doing. People often base their actions and beliefs on what others around them are doing, how others act or what others believe. "The power of the crowd" is very effective. We all want to know what others are

doing around us. We are so obsessed with what others do and how others act, that we then try to be just like other people.

Law of Scarcity

Scarcity is a principle that people underestimate. When something has limited availability, people assign it more value. According to Cialdini, "people want more of what they cannot have." When scarcity is an issue, the context matters. This means that within certain contexts, scarcity "works" better. To make people believe that something is scarcer, you need to explain what that product will give them which no other product will. You have to work the audience in the correct way. Something else that you can do to make people believe that something is scarce is to tell them what they will lose, not what they will gain.

You will lose your investment on cost of cultivation rather than saying "you could save on cost of cultivation by introducing internal inputs like FYM, Neem cake, etc ". You are making something sound scarcer.

There are two major reasons why the scarcity principle keeps:

1. When things are difficult to get, they are usually more valuable so that can make it a better cue for the quality; and
2. When things become less available, we lose the chances to acquire those things. When this happens, we assign the scarce item or service more value simply because it is harder to acquire. The whole of this principle is that we all want things that are out of our reach. If we see something that is popular we do not want it as much as something that is very rare.

Effective communications are a critical part of any attempt to persuade others, regardless of what you're asking them to do.

The seven skills detailed below, are examples of "interpersonal" skills or skills needed to interact effectively with others (Manning Tony, 2012)

1. **Be clear about "who", "what" and "why":** Preparation lies at the heart of successful persuasion and it begins with establishing the need to persuade, including being clear about who you want to persuade, what you want them to do and why you want them to do it. A need to persuade can be said to exist if, on balance, the cost-benefits of an influence attempt outweigh those of not making such an attempt.
2. **Target your case on the other person:** our case should be in line with the specific role they play, in particular, the specific goals that they are expected to achieve in their job and the activities they are expected to carry out in order to attain these goals.
3. **Search for common ground:** A further aspect of targeting the case on the person is identifying common ground, that is to say establishing what is in your interests as well as those of the person you seek to persuade.
4. **Keep it simple:** Research on effective persuasion indicates that we are more likely to be successful if we keep our case simple.
5. **Appeal to "Head" and "Heart":**
 - A case is more likely to have a persuasive effect if it combines both rational and emotional arguments.
 - State the problem before the solution
 - Contrast the risks and costs of doing nothing with the gains and benefits of action
 - State facts and then the inferences made from them
 - Offer evidence in the form of facts and figures

- Highlight the influencer's expertise and/or quote trusted experts or research sources and
 - Show that the proposal is do-able and that it can be piloted and is reversible.
6. **Be calm and confident:** Other aspects of the language people use, the way in which they talk, tone of voice and non-verbal behaviour are important and also impact on how they are likely to be seen.
7. **Make it interactive:** Persuasion is more effective if it is a dialogue, an interactive process, involving both receiving information and transmitting it.

Skills required for persuading:

An easily defined request: make sure that you know exactly what you're asking for and state that clearly up-front.

Focus on key Points: Why is it in the other person's best interest to do what you're asking them to do? (how the product will solve their problem, why you're the best person for the job, etc.)?

Carve the most compelling points and put them across: Focus on the possible, the doables. Speaking positive words would create positive influence and may reduce the probability of challenging.

Stories and shared experiences make people identify with similar situations and help the persuaders to lead the message and influence the listener than a logical argument.

A deal-closer: A final request for action of some kind. Your audience may not be ready to commit, but make sure they know exactly what you're asking them to do. Find out what the next step is and how/when you'll be following up. If you're leaving the ball in their court, put a follow-up date on your calendar and follow up with them.

Some questions may help us to find and assimilate the information ready before persuading a person:

- What is important to this person
- What is going on in the person's world that makes her/his job more difficult?
- What are the most persuasive arguments against your proposition?

The persuader needs to select a purpose that is realistic for his/her audience. Five general purposes of persuasion are listed below:

- Create uncertainty: When an audience is strongly opposed to the persuader's view, the best that may be possible for the persuader is to make the audience a little less certain they are right, a little less comfortable with their current attitude.
- Reduce resistance: If the audience is moderately opposed to the persuader's position but not closed-minded, the persuader may be able to reduce opposition to his/her view and move the audience toward neutrality. While not expecting a reversal of views, this goal asks the audience to recognize the validity of opinions different from their own.
- Change attitude: If the audience is not committed, especially strongly, to any attitude on the topic, this practice is appropriate.
- Amplify attitude: If the audience is already moderately favorable to the persuader's view, he/she can design a message which will reinforce current attitudes in the audience, help the audience resist appeals from opponents, and (perhaps) motivate the members of the audience to become strongly committed to his/her position.
- Gain behavior: When an audience strongly favors the persuader's position, the logical goal is to get them to act on their convictions.

Process of Persuasion

1. Establish Credibility

Expertise/Knowledge
Strong Relationships
Listening to others
History of good judgment



2. Find Common Ground

Clarify the Benefits
Mutually Beneficial Solutions
Illuminate the Advantages
Understand Other Views



3. Provide Vivid Evidence

Logic and Facts
Imagery and Metaphors
Stories and Examples
Spreadsheets/Statistics



4. Connect Emotionally

Understand the Emotions
Show Empathy
Demonstrate Commitment
Self-Awareness

Ten Tips to Effectively Influence Others

1) Set an outcome for what the other person will do, if you are successful in influencing him/her:

- Flush out in detail what would really be ideal for you - even if you think there's no way that ideal is possible. At a minimum, you'll know your own goals, and you are likely to get closer to them than you think.

- Consider the other person's outcome(s). Are there ways you can include their goals in your proposal? What are the benefits and costs to him/her in doing what you want? Are there ways to enhance his/her benefits and/or lessen his/her costs that could still get you what you want?
- 2) Aim high when you make the first suggestion(s). Suggesting that he/she does even more than you might really want gives you room to lessen your suggestions, and makes it more likely you'll get closer to what you really want in the final agreement.
 - 3) Be congruent and confident as you communicate. Other people usually notice (not always consciously) your body language and voice tone, so if you're uncertain in making suggestions, it's likely that will come across. In other words, be as certain of yourself and your suggestions as you can possibly be. This doesn't mean you need to be demanding or argumentative. It does mean that you present your position and/or requests as if you are certain that this is what you want. A quiet, solid, clear confidence is often your best attitude.
 - 4) Consider your long-term relationship with this person or people. What impact will the results of this interaction have over time? What will your relationship with him/her be if your suggestions are implemented? What will it be like if the suggestions are not implemented?
 - 5) Begin where they are, that is, acknowledging that they have a particular perspective that makes sense for them. This is best done by considering their mood and/or attitude, as well as the particular position he/she may have at the beginning of the discussion.

- 6) Consider the larger context. What factors might make it difficult for the person to do what you want? Can you develop some ideas that would minimize these difficulties, or better yet, turn them into advantages for him/her?
- 7) What might you be able to give the person 'no strings attached'? This can be information, and need not be anything physical (such as a gift). Giving something can be a good move towards developing a favourable context, a move inviting reciprocity but be perfectly willing to have your 'gift' taken, without expecting anything back. So, it needs to be something you can give freely.
- 8) Be clear on what you would get if this person agreed to your request. That is, what would you benefit of influencing them so that you get your outcome? One way to determine your benefits is to ask yourself "What would have this done for me?" When you get the first answer, ask yourself the same question about that answer. You may determine a wider range of options that would satisfy you. This gives you more flexibility in making suggestions and/or requests from the person.
- 9) Are there any changes you could make to the environment that would make it more likely for the person to agree to your request? This is intended as a thought provoking question, i.e. to get you to think about factors you might not ordinarily consider. For instance, there's some evidence that people are more likely to accommodate requests when they are eating (associating a pleasant activity with your request). Hence, a number of business deals are completed over lunch. Another environmental factor when influencing someone is to consider whether to discuss an issue on the phone, in person, or by e-mail. In many cases, you will get a very different response to

the same request, depending on how it is made. Thinking of the environment in a slightly broader sense, for instance, could you persuade a colleague to be more cooperative? Perhaps this increased cooperation would make it easier for the person to take your suggestions.

10) It goes without saying that when you are successful in influencing, you'll certainly live up to the agreements that you've made – both during and after the 'influence time'. These agreements should be implemented as the other person understands them. This requires you to verify that your communication has been understood in the same way you intended it. The benefit to you is a long-term business relationship, in which you have established your reliability and in which you request the same. Atmospheres in which you trust one another makes better business sense for all.

An Effective Persuader

- Uses a positive and tactful tone
- Presents ideas one at a time
- Presents strong evidence to support position
- Tailors arguments to the listener
- Appeals to the subject's self-interest
- Makes a logical argument
- Uses emotional appeals

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7. Problem Solving

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 by developing our 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 that 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.

At work too, problems arise every day, day-after-day so much so that you wonder - what you are? Merely a problem-solving machine? The truth, however, is that it is in the handling of problems that you show your real worth.

Problems in - solutions out - are your job - everybody's job. It helps improve your effectiveness. Each of us is a constant problem solver.

Problems, as visualized by most of us, are irritants, impediments, hassles and a headache, and in general are negative things.

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

<p style="text-align: center;">Remember A problem is a positive opportunity</p>

We see or note that there is a 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.

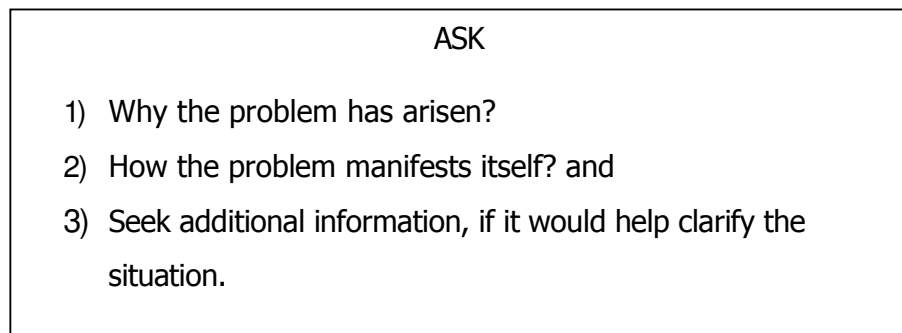
Repeat - symptom is not the problem. Problem is the cause of symptoms we see. You have to eliminate symptomatic causes till you are left with the essential problem.

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."



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.

Types of Problem-solving

Following classification of problems is presented:

Analytic Problem Solving: It involves a situation in which there is only one correct answer or result. In this situation,

$$2 + 2 = X$$
$$2 + 2 = 4$$

Judgmental Problem Solving: Judgmental Problem solving frequently offers the problem solver a limited choice of alternatives.

Creative Problem Solving: Creative problem solving is the type of problem solving people do 90 percent of the time. The range of alternatives is very broad, much more so than in judgmental problem solving.

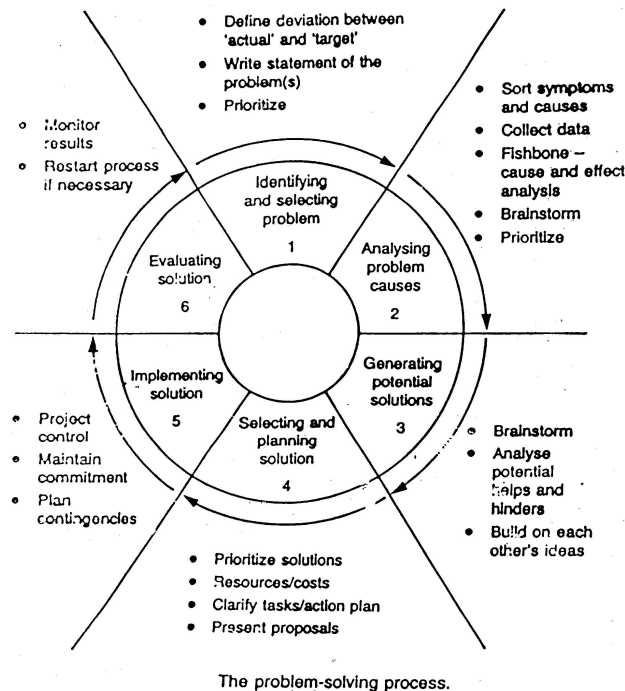
Decision Making and Problem Solving: Decision-making is part of the problem-solving process. Problem solving involves the consideration of a number of possible solutions for the situation.

Problem-solving skills

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 and appropriate solution.
- Plan for the implementation of the solution in an organized manner.
- Evaluate the results of the solution and monitor for future problems.

Diagram 1: The Problem-Solving Process



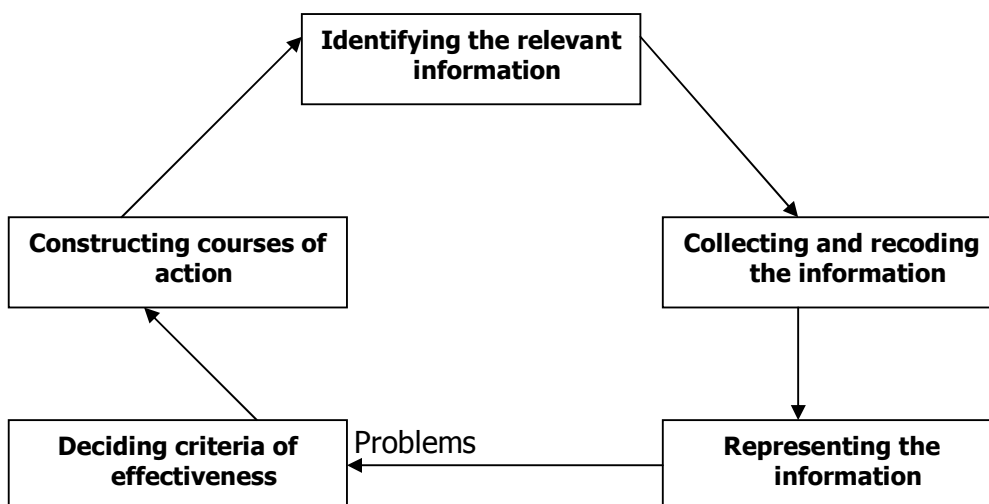
Problem Solving Vs. Decision Making

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

Solving and Resolving Problems

To resolve a problem is to select a course of action that yields an outcome that is good enough, that satisfies..... this approach relies heavily on past experience and current trial and error for its inputs. It is qualitatively, not quantitatively, oriented; it is rooted deeply in common sense, and it makes extensive use of subjective judgments. To solve a problem is to select a course of action that is believed to yield the best possible outcome that optimizes.....this approach is largely based on scientific methods, techniques and tools. It makes use of mathematical models and real or simulated experimentation; therefore, it relies heavily on observation and measurement and aspires to complete objectivity.

Diagram 2: Model of Problem Solving



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 are required along with skills in identifying, analyzing and finding solutions to problems. Judgment to assist in making decisions throughout the problem-solving process is equally important.

Diagnosing problems

The first stage in the problem-solving process is recognizing that a problem exists. An effective manager will try, as far as possible, to anticipate problems or identify them when they first occur. Problems can be diagnosed through: Continuously monitoring performance to reveal when things are not going as planned; Listening to subordinates to detect concerns about their work, the organization and relationships with colleagues and management; Observing subordinates' behaviour, looking for the unusual or inconsistent which may be a symptom of some underlying problem.

Understanding problems:

Once a problem has been diagnosed, it must be clearly understood before a decision is made on what to do next. The alternatives are:

- To decide to do nothing;
- To keep the problem under surveillance and review at a later date;
- To contain the problem;
- To find a solution to the problem.

The Value of an Initial Analysis

An initial analysis will help your understanding of the problem. Not all problems justify the same depth of analysis. Problems, which are routine or recurring often, need little or no additional clarification. These problems can be resolved efficiently through implementing company policy or a standard solution.

Experience and knowledge of the situation should enable you to identify non-routine problems for which an initial analysis offers the greatest potential gains. It will help you to understand the problem more clearly, establish its importance in relation to other problems and provide you with a basis for generating solutions at a later stage.

The Initial Analysis Involves:

Gathering information about the problem - distinguish between fact and opinion,

Defining the scope of the problem - who and what is involved,

Determining the consequences of the problem - do they justify further analysis,

Establishing the causes of the problem - distinguish between causes and symptoms.

Generating Solutions:

When faced with a problem, many managers react with a decision, which provides an obvious or satisfactory answer to the problem. But there is generally more than one possible answer to any problem and the obvious solution is not necessarily the best solution.

Generating a variety of alternative solutions to problems involves thinking in a free-ranging or creative way. Selecting the 'best' solution, which satisfies the objectives you are trying to achieve within the constraints of the problem situation, involves narrowing down or refining the alternatives to arrive at a feasible solution.

Finding solutions to problems should therefore involve two processes:

Creative thinking is required to generate as many ideas as possible regardless of their feasibility. Analytical thinking is necessary to reduce these ideas to a smaller number eventually arriving at a feasible solution. By combining these processes, you can improve the quality of your decisions and resolve problems more imaginatively and effectively.

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.

Problem Solving Blocks

Problem solving is classified into 3 categories:

Perceptual Blocks

- Seeing only what you expect to see
- Stereotyping
- Not recognizing problems
- Not seeing the problems in perspective
- Mistaking Cause and Effect

Emotional Blocks

- Fear of making mistakes or looking foolish
- Impatience
- Avoiding anxiety
- Fear of taking risks
- Need for order
- Lack of challenge

Intellectual Blocks

- Lack of knowledge or skill in the problem solving process.
- Lack of creative thinking.
- Inflexible thinking.
- Not being methodical.
- Lack of knowledge or skill in using the `language' of the problem.
- Using inadequate information.

Failures to Solve Problems Effectively

Following reasons are ascribed for failure to solve the problems effectively:

- Not being methodical.
- Lack of commitment to solving the problem.
- Misinterpreting the problem.
- Lack of knowledge of the techniques and processes of problem solving.
- Inability to use the techniques effectively.
- Using a method inappropriate for the particular problem.
- Insufficient or inaccurate information.
- Inability to combine analytical and creative thinking.
- Failure to ensure effective implementation.

Source : Compiled from free resource material available on net.

8. Presentation skills

Presentation is a speech that is usually given in a formal setup - business, technical, professional or scientific environment. Some thing set forth to an audience for the attention of the mind. An effective presentation creates a change in the audience; they become more informed or gain a better understanding of a particular subject. A good presentation is a kind of communication between the speaker and the audience.

Presentations are an important way of communicating ideas and information to a group. Presentation carries the speaker's personality better and allows immediate interaction between all participants.

Why Presentation?

- To teach/train
- To gather opinions
- To publicize an idea
- To share findings of research
- To highlight a problem (and to seek a solution)
- To pass on information
- To entertain
- To motivate

Presentation Formats

- Providing Information
- Teaching a skill
- Reporting Progress
- Selling a product, Service or Strategy
- Obtaining a Decision
- Solving a Problem

In order to communicate with your audience, you need to consider the following points:

- 1. Content:** It contains information that people need. The presenter should assess how much information the audience can absorb.
- 2. Structure:** It has a logical beginning, middle and end. It must be sequenced and paced so that the audience can understand it. The presenter must be careful not to lose the audience when wandering from the main point of the presentation.

An Outline for Presentations:

Introduction

- What? Overview of the presentation
- Why? Purpose of the presentation (why the subject is important)
- How? How will you deliver your presentation, what are the expectations of the audience from it?
- Who? If more than one person is presenting, provide introductions and indicate roles (don't expect audience to memorize it)

Body

The following list suggests alternative formats for presenting information: multiple formats can be used within the presentation:

- Rhetorical – questions & answers
- Logical progression – indicate steps e.g. A then B then C
- Time series – order information from beginning to end, earlier to later etc.
- Compare and contrast – use the same structure to compare different events individuals or situations
- Problems and solutions – don't present problems without working toward some recommended solutions

- Simple to complex – use successive building blocks to communicate complex process or concepts
- Deductive reasoning –moving from general principles or values to specific applications or examples
- Inductive reasoning – using specific applications/examples to reach general principles or conclusions

3. Conclusion

Review, highlight and emphasize key points, benefits and recommendations.

Draw conclusions – What are we? What does all of this mean? What's the next step?

Packaging

It must be well prepared. Writing can be re-read and portions skipped over, but with a presentation, the audience is at the mercy of the presenter.

- Tell the audience what you are going to tell them;
- Tell them; and
- Tell them what you have told them.

A Checklist for Presentation

You owe your audience, so creating an effective presentation takes planning and practice. Following are the tips to deliver an effective presentation:

1. Start preparing early: don't wait until the last few days to prepare
 - Don't wait for the last moment
 - Practice your entire presentation
 - Try to practice it before a group of colleagues or friends
2. Think about your audience
 - Who are they and why are they gathered?
 - What are their interests?

- What do they know? What do they want to know? What is worth their time?
3. As an audience member, think about these questions:
 - Why should I pay attention to the presenter? And when can I think about more interesting things?
 - Why should I care about these issues?
 - I agree with the significance of the topic, but how is the presenter justifying his ideas?
 - Now that I am convinced, what does the presenter want from me?
 4. Be clear about your purpose
 - Are you informing or persuading?
 - Tell them what you are going to do, tell them what you told them
 - What do you want the audience to know, feel or believe afterwards?
 5. Use an effective introduction
 - Orient the audience, explain why it's important and set the tone
 - Establish a relationship between the speaker and the audience, establish credibility
 - Avoid weak introduction such as apologizes, jokes, rhetorical questions
 6. Organize your presentation clearly and simply
 - Prioritize topics and allocate time accordingly
 - Stick to only 3 - 5 points
 - Have a well thought - out pattern (examples are problem/solution, chronological, causes and effect, topical); use transitions to move smoothly from one point to the next.

7. Use supporting materials to flesh out main points
 - Use examples, statistics, expert opinion etc.

8. Compose for the ears, not for the eyes
 - Use simple words, simple sentences, markers, repetition, images, personal, language etc.

9. Create an effective conclusion
 - Summarize, set final image, provide closure; don't trail off, don't use trite phrases
 - Don't just present data or summarized results and leave audience to draw its own conclusions
 - You have had much more time to work with your information than your audience; share your insight and understanding and tell them what you have concluded from your work

10. Sound spontaneous, conversational, and enthusiastic
 - Use key phrases in your notes, so you don't have to read, use the overhead instead of notes
 - Vary volume, don't be afraid of silence, and don't use fillers like "ummm...Aahmm"
 - Practice, practice and practice

11. Use body language effectively
 - Relaxed gestures, eye contact, don't play with a pen or pointer
 - Don't block visual aids

12. Use visual aids to enhance the message
 - Use visual aids to reinforce and clarify, not overwhelm
 - Keep visual aids uncluttered, use titles to guide the audience

13. Analyze the environment

- Note the size of the room, placement of chairs, time of day, temperature, distractions
- Check audio visual equipment ahead of time

Making the Presentation Delivery

- Speak clearly. Don't shout or whisper - judge the acoustics of the room.
- Don't rush, or talk deliberately slowly. Be natural - although not conversational.
- Deliberately pause at key points - this has the effect of emphasizing the importance of a particular point you are making.
- Avoid jokes - always disastrous unless you are a natural expert.
- To make the presentation interesting, change your delivery, but not too obviously. e.g.: speed, pitch of voice.

Use your hands to emphasize points but don't indulge in too much hand waving. People can, over a period of time, develop irritating habits. Ask colleagues occasionally what they think of your style.

- Look at the audience as much as possible, but don't fix on one individual - it can be intimidating. Pitch our presentation towards the back of the audience, especially in larger rooms.
- Don't face the display screen behind you and talk to it. Other annoying habits include: Standing in a position where you obscure the screen. In fact, positively check for anyone in the audience who may be disadvantaged and try to accommodate them.

Presentation Skills - Some Practice Tips:

Practicing these exercises will make presentation more natural.

Posture -- Practice standing in the correct posture [feet, knees, hips, shoulders all in a straight line with your arms at your sides] while standing on lifts, standing in queues, waiting at the cash machine, on a coffee break, etc.

Movement -- Practice movement on your feet at home. Cut faces out of magazines and tape or pin them to chairs and sofas. Speaking to one "person" at a time, look first, walk over and stand still for 3 or 4 sentences while speaking, then look at someone else, and repeat the process.

Gestures -- Start practicing the use of gestures for description and/or emphasis by first becoming more aware of your own natural gestures. Do you gesture while on telephone? Do you gesture while talking to a friend, colleague, or family member? By increasing your awareness of what you do with your arms and hands in every day conversations, you will be able to transfer these gestures into all speaking situations. Facial Animation -- Appropriate facial expressions usually coincide with gestures.

Facial Animation -- Appropriate facial expressions usually coincide with gestures. If you tend to look overly serious during presentations, using more gestures will help liven up things. Also practice making a variety of facial gestures while speaking in a mirror or driving in the car.

Voice - For Volume and Variety: For sufficient volume, become more aware of breathing deeply from your diaphragm. Lie on the floor with a book placed just above your belt or waist. Yawn several times. This is what breathing from the diaphragm should feel like. Breathe in slowly to the count of 10 watching your stomach expand and then exhale slowly expelling all the air.

For vocal variety practice, try reading children's books aloud. Your voice will naturally animate with the story. Record your voice and listen to it

resonate in your head for higher vocal tones, in your throat for the midrange and deep in your chest for lower vocal tones. Using more gestures will also help to naturally animate your voice.

Pause and Pace - To help eliminate clutter words and use the right, controlled pace, try playing back your voice mail messages before sending them to the recipient and evaluate yourself. Listen for short sentences that end without clutter and "over-connectors" such as: and, but, and so, and rate your pace.

Eye Contact -- Place three to four small Post-It Notes randomly around your workspace. These will be your "eye targets." Whenever you're on the phone, speak one short sentence while looking at the first Post-It Note. After finishing the sentence, pause. Then move on to the next Post-it Note and repeat. This will help you to maintain eye contact with one person at a time while completing a thought or sentence, and eliminate clutter words.

Dos and Don'ts of Presentation

Dos

- Lots of background research. Even if the information is not used in the presentation, it is useful to have as much knowledge as possible for the discussion and audience questions. It will assist your confidence too.
- Be organized - prepare in plenty of time.
- Structure your presentation.
- Focus on the question set.
- Obtain material from a wide range of sources.
- Practice your presentation.
- Use note cards.
- Speak clearly.

Don'ts

- Leave research and preparation until the last minute.
- Rely on one source of information.
- Make it up.
- Just hope that it will come together on the day without preparation and practice.
- Have no notes to rely on if you get stuck.
- Worry too much it's not as bad as it seems.
- Mumble.
- Read from script.
- Rush the presentation by speaking too fast.
- Make eye contact with your audience.

Research indicates that we tend to base our judgment of other people on three main characteristics:

Verbal content: 7%
Vocal Interests: 38%
Body Language: 55%

This shows that more than 90% of your public image depends of how you look and sound than the content that you deliver.

There is no mystery about making a good presentation

- It is all about finding out how to do it right.
- It is a skill, and like any other skill it can be learnt.
- It is a skill, which can be mastered with little time and effort.
- The most brilliant speech will ultimately depend for its success on presentation style of the speaker. And not on the contents of the speech itself.

References:

- <http://learning.londonmet.ac.uk/TLTC/learnhigher/Resources/resources/Presentations/7%20making%20a%20presentation.pdf>
- Participant's Manual, Civil Society Resource Centre (A Project of Aga Khan Foundation), Women Empowered through Citizens' Community Boards (WECCB), Hum Qadam Project
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9. Convergence

The act of converging and especially moving toward union or uniformity; eg: coordinated movement of the two eyes so that the image of a single point is formed on corresponding retinal areas. Independent development of similar characters (as of bodily structure of unrelated organisms or cultural traits) often associated with similarity of habits or environment. Merging of distinct technologies, industries, or devices into a unified whole. Convergence involves a massive programme of managing change across several departments and ranks.

Convergent Thinking:

The term convergent thinking was coined by J. P. Guilford, a psychologist, well known for his research on creativity. Convergent thinking involves the pursuit of a predetermined goal, usually in a linear progression and using a highly focused problem-solving technique. Convergent thinking questions are those which represent the analysis and integration of given or remembered information. They lead you to an expected end result or answer. Thought processes involved while asking and answering these questions are explaining, stating relationships, and comparing & contrasting.

Convergent thinking questions usually begin with these words or phrases:

- Why...
- How...
- In what ways...

Here are the basic steps in a convergent thinking process:

- Define the problem
- Do research
- Determine your objective
- Devise a strategy (thumbnail sketches help)
- Execute the strategy
- Evaluate the results

In convergent thinking, the end determines the means. You know what you are seeking before you begin. For this reason, clear definition of the problem is essential: the most brilliant idea is useless if it does not solve the problem. Convergent thinking is familiar to most of us through the scientific method, which follows the same basic procedure. It is orderly, logical, and empirical, there are clear boundaries.

Convergence in Agriculture:

The phenomenon of convergence is relatively new and a range of different views exists on what its implications are for Agricultural Development and is evolving. There have been a number of schemes initiated by different departments, which can bring about agricultural development through their critical components.

Considerable resources are available to States/districts under various schemes in the rural sector. Establishing convergence and synergy among various development programmes through proper linkages in the processes of planning and implementation would maximize economic, ecological and social benefits from existing investment and infrastructure under various programmes/schemes. On the other hand, implementation of the programmes in a compartmentalized manner runs the risks of duplication of efforts and sub-optimal output leading to wastage of scarce resources.

From a programmatic perspective, convergence can be utilized to maximize achievement of targets. For example, development could be accelerated if resources available under various schemes are combined together. Pooling of resources available under different schemes and functioning of different implementing agencies in tandem would maximize achievements with the available resources and efforts.

Another way of synergizing efforts could be to assess the progress and plans under various schemes and then plan suitable interventions to exploit the potential created/emerging opportunities. For example, creation of water

harvesting structures creates a potential for increasing productivity which can be leveraged by supplying appropriate inputs.

Similarly, construction/improvement of rural roads may present opportunities to support the agriculture marketing infrastructure. Dovetailing the research efforts of the State Agriculture Universities with the identified priorities of the State in the agriculture sector through specific research projects is another area.

From Organizational View:

Convergence calls for Coordination within the department and among various departments that are working for the welfare and development of the farming community. This may be broadly classified as Internal and External Coordination and vertical and Horizontal Coordination within the same department. These are discussed briefly in the chapter on Coordination.

References:

- Handbook on Creativity in Government, Centre for Good Governance