Ensure team effectiveness

BSBWOR502B
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Preface

The unit *Ensure Team Effectiveness* BSBWOR502B describes the performance outcomes, skills and knowledge required to facilitate (make possible) all aspects of teamwork within the organisation. It involves taking a leadership role in the development of team plans, leading and facilitating teamwork and actively engaging (relating) with the management of the organisation.

Application of Unit

This unit applies to managers and addresses the need for managers to facilitate work teams and to build a positive culture within work teams. The unit takes a systematic and planned approach to developing teams. It includes the soft skills as well as more structured approaches to the management of teams.

Required Skills and Knowledge

Required skills

- communication skills to explain team goals, to address team conflict and to build an environment of trust
- planning and organisational skills to keep team on track and focussed on work outcomes.

Required knowledge

- group behaviour
- strategies for mentoring and coaching to informally guide and instruct team members
- issue resolution
- strategies for gaining consensus.

Elements and Performance Criteria

1 Establish team performance plan

1.1 *Consult* team members to establish a common understanding of team purpose, roles, responsibilities and *accountabilities* in accordance with organisational goals, plans and objectives

1.2 Develop *performance plans* to establish expected *outcomes, outputs, key performance indicators* and goals for work team

1.3 Support team members in meeting expected performance outcomes

2 Develop and facilitate team cohesion

2.1 Develop *strategies* to ensure team members have input into planning, decision making and operational aspects of work team

2.2 Develop *policies and procedures* to ensure team members take responsibility for own work and assist others to undertake required roles and responsibilities

2.3 Provide feedback to team members to encourage, value and reward individual and team efforts and contributions

2.4 Develop *processes* to ensure that issues, concerns and problems identified by team members are recognised and addressed
3 Facilitate teamwork

3.1 Encourage team members and individuals to participate in and to take responsibility for team activities, including communication processes
3.2 Support the team in identifying and resolving work performance problems
3.3 Ensure own contribution to work team serves as a role model for others and enhances the organisation's image for all stakeholders

4 Liaise with stakeholders

4.1 Establish and maintain open communication processes with all stakeholders
4.2 Communicate information from line manager/management to the team
4.3 Communicate unresolved issues, concerns and problems raised by team members and follow-up with line manager/management and other relevant stakeholders
4.4 Evaluate and take necessary corrective action regarding unresolved issues, concerns and problems raised by internal or external stakeholders

The notes

These notes are structured to provide students with essential underpinning knowledge and skills before dealing with the specifics of team effectiveness.

Chapter 1 provides introductory information on organisational structure and the role of teams in an organisation.
Chapter 2 contains a general introduction to communication theory. This section contains tips on improving communication
Chapter 3 deals with planning, running and recording successful meetings. Meetings are an essential part of any team activity.
Chapter 4 covers behaviour styles, conflict and negotiation. The focus is on strategies for dealing with conflict in a positive way as this is essential in the success of any team.
Chapter 5 deals with time management, planning and goal setting in teams. These skills are fundamental to a teams’ success.
Chapter 6 provides an introduction to the ideas of motivation and management and focuses on strategies for encouraging team motivation.
Chapter 7 outlines information on leadership theory and on the role of a team leader
Chapter 8 provides theoretical information on teams and team roles. This chapter outlines the stages in the development of a team.
Chapter 9 provides information on oral presentation skills
Chapter 10 Problem solving tools are essential for any team. This chapter describes some common problem solving tools used by teams.

Assessment

- Participation in class exercises and activities (Satisfactory or Not Yet Satisfactory)
  Students must attend class and participate regularly to gain a satisfactory grade.
- Analysis of a case study 30%
- Theory test 70%
Chapter 1 - Introduction
Terms used in this chapter

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Autonomously</td>
<td>Independent and self-governing. Existing, reacting, or developing as an independent, self-regulating organism.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Diversity</td>
<td>A variety of something such as opinion, colour, or style</td>
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<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>Collection, grouping or crowd, that doesn’t necessarily have a common purpose</td>
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<tr>
<td>Operational management</td>
<td>Managers dealing with ‘day to day’ issues</td>
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<tr>
<td>Organisation</td>
<td>Social entity, composed of groups that interact, that functions in an ongoing manner to achieve identified goals</td>
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<tr>
<td>Organisational culture</td>
<td>Refers to the beliefs, values and routines that organisation members share as they do their jobs and relate to each other on a daily basis.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rank and file</td>
<td>General workers without a supervisory role</td>
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<td>Stakeholder</td>
<td>A person or group with a direct interest, involvement, or investment in something, e.g. the employees, shareholders, and customers of a business concern</td>
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<tr>
<td>Strategic management</td>
<td>Dealing with long term planning</td>
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<tr>
<td>Synergy</td>
<td>The idea that people who pool (share) their individual skills can achieve more than individuals working alone</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tactical management</td>
<td>Managers who implement strategic, long term plans</td>
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<tr>
<td>Team</td>
<td>A number of people organized to function cooperatively as a group</td>
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<tr>
<td>Workplace team</td>
<td>Is a group of people who work, generally without a formal &quot;supervisor&quot; or &quot;foreman,&quot; to accomplish defined functions or tasks in a larger workplace such as a factory.</td>
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Welcome to the module Ensure team effectiveness BSBWOR502A. Teams are an everyday part of many organisations. A team based culture is seen as an effective means to complete the work of the organisation and working in teams provides benefits for the organisation and also for the individuals who work in these teams. Teams may be fully independent workplace teams or groups who still report to a supervisor but none the less still have many of the features of a workplace team. Most people find working with others a more rewarding and interesting experience than working alone. How do you feel about work – would you prefer to work alone or as part of a team? Everyone is different and this module will help you to understand how teams work, the skills necessary to work in teams and what it means to be a ‘team player’. This module is about setting up a team, developing goals, fostering (developing) cohesion (unity) and teamwork and ensuring that communication between all stakeholders is positive and effective. Essentially workplace teams are about getting the work done efficiently and in a way that is rewarding to the members of the team and management.

What is a workplace team?

In a strict sense a workplace team is a group of people who work, generally without a formal “supervisor” or “foreman,” to accomplish defined functions or tasks in a larger workplace such as a factory. The team decides together how best to accomplish those tasks, within the constraints (limits) of available time and resources. Because they each individually have a greater responsibility than if a foreman were appointed, the team members tend to feel accountable for the teams achievements. In many cases, workplace teams of this sort are found to be happier as individuals, and more effective and efficient than conventional groups with appointed foremen.
When we look at "Teams" within the workplace we are actually looking at the Learning Team Concept that is based on the idea that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts. In other words a team can achieve more than individuals working alone because of the synergy of the team. Synergy is the effect of individuals combining their skills and efforts to produce a greater outcome than individuals alone could achieve.

A Learning Team is a group of individuals (the smaller the better) each having an expertise of their own. They are multi-levelled (so every level of employee is represented), multi-cultural (in terms of organizational culture), and cross-functional (have members from different departments or areas). The objective of a learning team is to develop a common purpose. It is based on organizational/group interest rather than individual interest. It is based on mutual respect, trust, and open, honest and direct communication among all members of the team. The team members establish goals and objectives that are strictly aligned with (agree with) the overall goals and objectives of the organization. They develop appropriate strategies and tactics leading to successful outcomes. Each team has a team leader, whose responsibility it is to keep the direction of the team aligned with organizational goals and objectives. Many teams in organisations do not have all the features of a learning team but still produce good results. Excellent communication is critical to the success of any team.

Types of teams
What sorts of teams might you find yourself involved in when you start work?

Project teams
Project teams are set up to manage single or multiple projects. They are usually made up of people from different areas within an organisation and may include people from outside the organisation. External team members may include business partners, contractors or consultants.

Organisational benefits of project teams:
- Increased commitment to achievement of targets
- Grouping of people with different skills into a functioning unit

Functional work teams
These work teams are based on the structure of the organisation. All team members perform tasks to support the team’s goals which are closely aligned to the organisations targets.

Organisational benefits of functional work teams:
- Increased empowerment and commitment to decisions made by the team
- Problems are solved by individuals who fully understand all the teams issues
- Grouping of people with different skills essential to goal achievement

Problem solving teams
These teams are involved in continuous improvement within an organisation. They also promote staff skills development through involvement in the team. Some organisations will have formal Quality Circles or Total Quality Management (TQM) Teams. Members of these teams may come from anywhere within the organisation but are most commonly found at an operational level and focus on process or production improvements.
Committees
Committees are set up to investigate and support specific initiatives and areas such as Occupational Health and Safety, Environmental Management and Sustainability. Employees from different departments take up responsibility for these areas to ensure that the organisation has a consistent approach across all areas of the business.

Working Parties
These teams are set up in large organisations where negotiation between groups is required. These teams are involved in issues of concern to management and unions and develop strategies and solutions to deal with issues such as wages, superannuation, working conditions and safety.

What is an organisation?
An organisation is a deliberately co-ordinated social entity that is made up of interacting groups operating within a boundary to achieve common goals. All organisations function within an environment which impacts (has an effect) on their activities.

Environmental factors affecting organisations

What is organisational culture?
Organisational culture refers to the beliefs, values and routines that organisation members share as they do their jobs and relate to each other on a daily basis. In this context culture refers to the way people think and behave rather than culture based on ethnicity, place of birth, age or gender. This organisational culture affects the way teams are set up and operate within an organisation.

Elements of organisational culture

- The company’s mission and/or vision
- The organisation’s specific goals and targets
- Systems, policies and procedures
- The commonly accepted behaviours practices and standards
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- Workplace agreements, awards and common industrial relations practices
- Environmental legislation
- OHS legislation
- Other industrial legislation – anti-discrimination laws & equal opportunity laws
- Diversity

Diversity within an organisation affects organisational culture as each individual brings beliefs, values, individual traits and characteristics.

- Age
- Gender
- Race
- Cultural background
- Religion
- Beliefs, attitudes & values
- Educational background
- Work experience
- Skills, knowledge and ability

Other factors within an organisation that affect the organisational culture.

- The size and structure of the organisation (refer to organisational charts)
- The resources
  - People
  - Equipment
  - Knowledge
  - Materials
  - Systems

Age and diversity in organisations

Which age group do you belong to?
Age groups often have shared values and this can impact on organisational culture.
Which generation do you belong to?

Pre- baby boomers – Aged 60’s - 80’s
Baby boomers – Over 40 years of age
Generation X – Children of Baby boomers 30’s - 40’s
Generation Y – Aged in their teens – 30’s
Generation Z – born since 1998

In the West press or on TV, experts talk about "Gen X", "Gen Y", "Gen Z" as if we automatically know what they mean. In fact no-one has an exact definition, but this is close.

Pre-baby boomers Born 1920’s - 1945

Let’s start with the great-grandparents. They came from the Depression and World War II and are labelled the "Builders" or the "Silent Generation" or the "War Babies".

They grew up at a time when unemployment meant hunger and work in a bank was a job for life. In marketing terms they are seen as conservative and security-conscious. Their numbers are dwindling.
1946-64 the Baby Boomers

This generation in the West was brash, confident, the product of a prosperous society when youth was discovering its wings for the first time. From free love to freedom rides, they forced their social and political values onto society.

Today they're the managers, the politicians - your boss. From the marketing standpoint they still follow their teenage values and can be brand-switchers, argumentative, know-alls. They are doers, communicators, achievers. But don't expect them to retire at 65 - they figure that so long as they can think and talk, they can do the job better than anyone.

1965-79 Generation X

Raised by the hippy generation they swung the other way and tended to a more detached view of the world. Their influences were television, small families, AIDS and higher education than their parents. Sex had been liberated by the sexual revolution and they were not inclined to commitment. So only now are we seeing them start to marry, in their 30s and far later than any generation before them. Many have only recently left home.

1980-97 Generation Y

These are today's teens and 20s. Among them is a recklessness that has caused much of the social unrest that is seen in the West today. If you think they come from another planet, you're right. Computers were mother's milk, the internet opened up the world, mobile phones and SMS can pull them into temporary groups. As a result a few text messages can cause a rave party of thousands to mushroom - or a riot to ignite.

Living at home, Gen Y'ers get to keep any money they make and spend it on what they want. In any case the housing market is so tight that what's the point of even looking? The empty-nest syndrome is starting to dwindle and this generation is staying at home with their parents for much longer.

Generation Z

These are the individuals born since 1998.

They have entered a world of information overload, bombarded day and night. Family is a loose definition to them - so many of their school friends come from single or same-sex families. The parents are older and comfortably affluent, but with big financial commitments.

Everybody rushes to work and school in the morning and home at night. Junior has more time to study consumerism than the parents, so their influence in buying decisions is powerful. The family works as a unit and relates on an adult level. It's like no one has time or space for a childhood.

Before we can understand age diversity we have to learn our XYZs.
Activity
Research the characteristics of each generation. Do the same characteristics of different generations of similar ages apply in China or Vietnam? What challenges do organisations and teams have in integrating these three generations (X,Y & Z) into successful units. How might their different values make working in teams difficult?

Managerial levels in an organisation

Top-level management – strategic management
- Require an extensive knowledge of management roles and skills.
- Have to be very aware of external factors such as markets.
- Their decisions are generally of a long-term nature
- Their decisions are made by analysing information and concepts and by gathering information from inside the organisation and from without.
- They have to develop a plan and predict what may be effective in the future
- They are responsible for strategic decisions

Middle management – tactical management
- Mid-level managers have a specialized understanding of certain managerial tasks
- Are responsible for translating and implementing the strategic goals of senior management into tactical goals.
- They are responsible for tactical decisions.

Lower management – operational management
- This level of management ensures that the decisions and plans taken by the other two levels are carried out.
- They are people who have direct supervision over the workforce in an office factory, sales field or other areas of an organisation.
Lower-level managers' decisions are generally short-term ones
- Are responsible for carrying out the day to day goals of the organisation
- They are responsible for operational decisions.

**Rank and File**
The responsibilities of the persons belonging to this group are restricted and specific to a particular job or small range of tasks.


**A simple hierarchical organizational chart**

An example of a line relationship in this chart would be between the general and the two colonels. These two colonels are directly responsible to the general. An example of a lateral relationship in this chart would be between "Sergeant A", and "Sergeant B" who both work on level and both report to the "Captain A".
What is management?

Management is a process that is used to accomplish organizational goals; that is, a process that is used to achieve what an organization wants to achieve. An organization could be a business, a school, a city, a group of volunteers, or any governmental entity. Managers are the people to whom this management task is assigned, and it is generally thought that they achieve the desired goals through the key functions of:

- Planning
- Organizing
- Leading/Directing and
- Controlling.

The four key functions of management are applied throughout an organization regardless of whether it is a business, a government agency, or a church group. There might be one manager for the entire organization, but there are other managers at different levels who are more directly responsible for the people who perform all the other jobs. At each level of management, the four key functions of planning, organizing, leading/directing, and controlling are included. The emphasis changes with each different level of manager.

Planning

Planning in any organization occurs in different ways and at all levels. A top-level manager plans for different events than does a manager who supervises a group of workers. A plant manager must be concerned with the overall operations of the plant, while the assembly-line manager or supervisor is only responsible for the line that he or she oversees.

Planning could include setting organizational goals. This is usually done by higher-level managers in an organization.

In general, planning can be strategic planning, tactical planning, or contingency planning. Strategic planning is long-range planning that is normally completed by top-level managers in an organization.

Short-range or tactical planning is done for the benefit of lower-level managers, since it is the process of developing very detailed strategies about what needs to be done, who should do it, and how it should be done.

Contingency planning allows for alternative courses of action when the primary plans that have been developed don’t achieve the goals of the organization or when circumstances change. In today’s economic environment, plans may need to be changed very rapidly.

Organising

Organising refers to the way the organisation allocates resources, assigns tasks, and goes about accomplishing its goals. In the process of organising, managers arrange a framework that links all workers, tasks, and resources together so the organisational goals can be achieved. The framework is called the organizational structure. Organisational structure is shown by an organisational chart. The
organisational chart shows positions in the organisation, usually beginning with the top-level manager (normally the president) at the top of the chart. Other managers are shown below the president.

**Directing/Leading**

Directing is the process that many people would most relate to managing. It is supervising, or leading workers to accomplish the goals of the organization. In many organizations, directing involves setting tasks, assisting workers to carry out tasks, interpreting organizational policies, and informing workers of how well they are performing. To effectively carry out this function, managers must have leadership skills in order to get workers to perform effectively.

**Controlling**

The controlling function involves the evaluation activities that managers must perform. It is the process of determining if the company's goals and objectives are being met. This process also includes correcting situations in which the goals and objectives are not being met. There are several activities that are a part of the controlling function.

Managers must first set standards of performance for workers. These standards are levels of performance that should be met. These standards must then be communicated to managers who are supervising workers, and then to the workers so they know what is expected of them.

After the standards have been set and communicated, it is the manager's responsibility to monitor performance to see that the standards are being met. If the standards that have been set are not being met the manager must determine where and why the delays are occurring. Once the problems are analysed and compared to expectations, then something must be done to correct the results. Whatever the problem, corrective action should be taken.

**What skills does a manager need?**

To be an effective manager, it is necessary to possess many skills. Not all managers have all the skills that would make them the most effective manager. As technology advances and grows, the skills that are needed by managers are constantly changing. Different levels of management in the organizational structure also require different types of management skills. Generally, however, managers need to have:

- Communication skills
- Human skills
- Computer skills
- Time-management skills
- Technical skills.

These underpinning skills will be briefly explained in the following chapters.
Business planning

Business planning is essential for the continued survival and success of an organisation. Strategic planning is carried out by top level managers and affects the goals and direction of the whole organisation. Everyone in an organisation is involved in implementing business plans. Parts of business planning may include:

- A vision and or mission statement
- Specific goals
- A definition of the target market or customer base
- A strategic response to legislation and codes of practice
- Documented policies and procedures
- A record keeping system
- A strategy for dealing with technology
- Identifying and meeting training needs

Exercise

What environmental factors affect an organisation?

___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________

What influence does organisational culture have on the way an organisation operates? Give some specific examples to support your answer.

___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________
Review Questions – chapter 1
1. What is a workplace team?
2. What is the learning team concept?
3. What types of teams exist in modern organisations?
4. Define an organisation.
5. List 4 factors, external to the organisation that may affect its success.
6. What is organisational culture?
7. What are some areas of diversity that may exist in an organisation?
8. What is management?
9. List the four (4) key functions of management.
10. List the three (3) levels of management in an organisation.
   I. List two (2) functions or roles for each level of management
11. What is an organisational chart?
12. List five (5) skills that a good manager needs.
13. Why is business planning important to an organisation?
Chapter 2 - The communication process

Welcome to this introductory chapter on the communication process. At the end of this chapter you should be able to:

- Define communication
- Analyse a communication model
- Identify barriers to communication
- Describe means of communication
- Consider factors which influence communication
- Develop techniques to improve both interpersonal and organisational communication
- Identify the relevant factors in communication breakdowns
- Identify possible consequences of communication breakdowns and suggest solutions to communication breakdowns
- Understand the importance of listening
- Identify effective listening skills and explain barriers to effective listening
- Define assertive, passive and aggressive behaviour

Terms used in this chapter:

| Active listening – paying attention in order to fully understand what the other person is saying |
| Artefact – objects belonging to an individual or group |
| Beliefs - things held to be true |
| Brainstorming – a problem solving technique which involves quickly writing every idea that comes to mind about a topic without judging the ideas at first. After the first stage the ideas are evaluated. Brainstorming is a good way to gather a lot of ideas quickly. |
| Channel – the form or technique used to convey a message. For example a face-to-face interaction, telephone call, text message, letter, diagram etc. |
| Cluster – group |
| Communication – is successfully sending and receiving of messages. |
| Communication barriers or blocks – also referred to as noise. Anything which stops effective communication occurring |
| Conflict - clash or disagreement resulting from a difference in objectives, needs or perceptions |
| Congruent - matching |
| Context – the environment in which the communication takes place |
| Cue – sign or signal |
| Culture – customs and traditions belonging to a society. |
| Decoding – the process used by the receiver to interpret the senders message |
| Diversity- difference, variety, a range |
| Encoding – putting ideas into a form which can be transmitted e.g. words, symbols, gestures, codes etc. |
| Feedback – this is the response the receiver gives to the sender on the message transmitted. |
| Field of experience – involves everything that has happened to you in your life. |
| Graphic - photographs, illustrations, charts, posters, diagrams, graph and symbols |
| Jargon- language specific to a group or industry. May not be widely understood by those outside the group |
| Hostility - aggression |
| Manipulation – trying to gain objectives through unfair use of influence |
| Mass communication - where a message is relayed to many people at the one time e.g. television |
| Message or signal– the information transmitted |
Communication
It has been said that the ability to express an idea is almost as important as the idea itself. What does this mean? All people have ideas; effective people are able to clearly communicate their ideas to others. No matter how good the idea it is only when someone else understands you and is persuaded to act on your idea that you have a successful outcome. Communication is the basis of all human interactions and teams depend on communication to function. How effectively we communicate determines how successful we become in all areas of our existence. Communication skills are as important in the workplace as technical skills. Communicating effectively with all stakeholders is an essential part of any team’s role.

Communication skills
Communication skills fall into the broad categories of oral and written skills, both of which teams use in many different ways. It is necessary for a team leader to orally explain processes and give direction to workers. It is also necessary for all team members to give verbal praise to co-workers. Teams are also expected to conduct meetings and give presentations to groups of people.

An important part of the oral communication process is listening. Teams are expected to listen to each other. All team members must hear recommendations and complaints on a regular basis and must be willing to follow through on what is heard. A team member who doesn't listen is not a good communicator.

Teams are also expected to write reports, letters, memos, and policy statements. All of these must be written in such a way that the receiver can interpret and understand what is being said. This means that team members must write clearly and concisely.

Human skills or emotional intelligence
Relating to other people is vital in order to be a team member. Workers are all individuals and have different temperaments. It takes a team leader with the right human skills to manage this variety of workers effectively. Diversity (variety) in the workplace is commonplace. The team leader must understand different personality types and cultures to be able to supervise these workers.

It is difficult to define communication as it is a complex process that includes many elements. Here are two different but suitable definitions of communication:
Successful communication is a process, which involves the transmission of a message, from a sender to a receiver, who understands the message as the sender intended and accepts the transmission.

Communication is the process of exchanging information and ideas; the transfer of meaning. As an active process, it involves the successful transmission of information between two or more individuals through a common system of symbols, signs, behaviour, speech, writing or signals.

Communication exists in some kind of context or setting. Contexts include:

- Interpersonal communication that involves two individuals.
- Group communication exists among three or more people who have some common purpose.
- Organisational communication occurs in a formal institution with a hierarchy, common goals, and individualized tasks.
- Mass communication with a population takes place through some form of public media such as television, newspapers or the Internet.

Workplace communication can be broadly categorised as being, verbal, nonverbal, written and graphic. When we prepare to communicate we should take five factors into account:

- WHAT we will say, the message content.
- WHEN we will say it, the timing.
- WHERE we will say it, the location.
- HOW we will say it, the medium or channel.
- RESULT, the effect our communication will have on the receiver.

Therefore, planning is an essential part of effective communication.

The Communication Process

Basically there are three elements in communication – the sender, the message and the receiver. In reality communication is much more complex. Most modern models of communication consider the following components. Looking at communication as a process involves some terms you may not be familiar with. The following definitions will help you to understand the diagram that follows.

- **Message or signal** – the information transmitted
- **Sender** - the source of the message
- **Receiver** - the person receiving the message
- **Encoding** – the process of translating the idea the sender wishes to convey into a form which can be transmitted e.g. words, symbols, gestures, codes etc.
- **Transmit** – to send a message
- **Channel** – the form or technique used to convey a message. For example a face-to-face interaction, telephone call, text message, letter, diagram etc.
- **Decoding** – the process used by the receiver to interpret the sender’s message and understand its meaning.
- **Noise or interference** – anything that disrupts (interrupts) the communication process. This can be internal; a lack of interest, preoccupation with (thinking about) another issue, dislike of the speaker, having a headache etc.
Examples of external interference may be; noisy machinery, excessive heat or cold, interruptions etc.

- **Context** – the environment in which the communication takes place. This may involve the physical location, the timing and the position, status and attitude of the people involved.
- **Feedback** – this is the response the receiver gives to the sender on the message transmitted. Feedback tells the sender whether the message has been received and understood or whether it has to be modified and retransmitted. Feedback is ongoing throughout the communication process and is essential to its success. Feedback may be written, spoken or non-verbal in the form of gestures and other “body language” cues.
- **Field of experience** – involves everything that has happened to you in your life. These experiences determine your communication skills and your style of communication. Elements involved may include your age, education, cultural background, family life, relationships etc.

Consider the following diagram of the communication process. A diagram helps to highlight the complexity of a simple interaction.

**The Communication Process**

[Diagram of the communication process]

**Psychological Climate - Noise**

**Sender**
- self-concept
- family
- culture
- skills
- feelings
- attitudes

**Message**

**Noise/Interference**

**Receiver**
- self-concept
- family
- culture
- skills
- feelings
- attitudes

**Context**
- Location, Status, Time

**Channel**
- Writing, Speaking, Computer, Gestures, Telephone

**Feedback**
Language is the communication tool that expresses meaning and vocabulary is your stock of words. Each word has been assigned a meaning or range of meanings and we need to choose them carefully if we want to communicate effectively.

**Cross cultural communication**

In our global society different cultural groups have different attitudes towards matters such as:

- forms of greeting and leave-taking
- use of names and titles
- silence
- sexual matters
- modesty
- deference to authority or seniority
- eye contact
- shaming
- swearing
- physical touch
- directness in speech and in asking questions

Each of these differences may prevent effective communication between people, especially from different cultural backgrounds. When working in a team you may deal with stakeholders from very different backgrounds.

One of the golden rules of all communication is to be audience-centred. Choose language that is suited to your audience. For example will your audience understand the technical jargon? If not, explain in simpler terms that will allow them to know your meaning.

**Communication Channels**

When we decide to communicate we go through a series of steps. Firstly we think of something we wish to share with an individual or group. Our next step is to create (encode) the message and select a channel through which to transmit (send) the message. Then we transmit the message and wait for feedback to check that our communication has been successful. If the feedback is positive and understanding has been achieved communication may stop at this point. If the feedback is negative because the receiver hasn’t understood we may need to transmit our message again in a different form and/or choose a different channel.

Very complex information is often best presented in a written form so that the receiver may read back over the information to gain a sound understanding. Instructions are frequently supported by diagrams and charts because a picture is “worth a thousand words.” Intensely personal matters or sensitive issues are often best discussed face-to-face. So, when discussing team issues choose a suitable channel for your message.

**Communication barriers or blocks**

Communication barriers are anything that interferes with the process of sending or receiving a message. These blocks can be as simple as a sender using words that are not easily understood by the receiver or more complex, not listening to a person because you do not trust them. There are a number of barriers to communication which may lead to communication breakdowns and misunderstandings. Communication barriers must be overcome to ensure that teams are able to achieve their goals.

**Language**

Language can be a barrier in a number of ways: If people speak different languages they may not be able to understand each other. Jargon is language specific to a
group or industry. If you do not understand the jargon (specialist language) you may feel excluded (left out) or foolish. An example of an industry which uses a lot of jargon is the Information Technology industry. If you do not understand terms such as cache, cookies, RAM, memory, downloads, software hardware, logons, viruses, Trojans etc it can prevent clear communication. If you pitch your language at the wrong level – using words that are too simple or too complex you may offend your audience or make them feel foolish. If you use offensive language, for example swearing, you may upset your audience so that they don’t focus on your message but rather on how your words have made them feel. Threatening language may make your audience (receiver) feel frightened and so they will be too worried to listen effectively.

**Status/Power**
Status means position. Different levels or positions have different levels of power and respect associated with them. Often we may feel shy, awkward or self-conscious about approaching people who are on a different level to us, a senior manager for example. We will often speak more openly and honestly to people on the same level as us when compared to the way we speak to our bosses or those we supervise. It is important to try to overcome this barrier dealing with important team issues so that you gain a true picture of what is happening in an organisation.

**Age**
We sometimes stereotype (label or assume a set of characteristics for a particular group that share a similarity) groups and this can be a barrier. In Western society there is a lot of focus on the young and on the importance of youth, in other societies there may be more respect for the aged. It would be wrong to assume that all older people are wise (positive stereotype), or rigid and set in their ways (negative stereotype) in the same way it would be wrong to assume that all young people are lazy and foolish (negative stereotype) or full of fresh ideas (positive stereotype). We should judge people as individuals when we communicate with them whatever their age. Often teams are made up of individuals of different ages and backgrounds.

**Prejudice/Attitudes**
A prejudice is a negative and unfair attitude toward a particular individual or group. If you have a positive attitude to someone when you communicate with them you may not notice the faults in what they say. If you have negative attitudes or prejudices toward the person you are communicating with this can interfere with your communication as you will be more focussed on your negative feelings about the person than on what they are saying. Common causes for prejudice are differences in areas such as race/ethnicity, religion, politics, sex, skin colour and age.

**Physical Features**
The physical appearance of a person can be a barrier to communication because we may be more focussed on how the person looks than what she/he is saying. This may occur if the person we are talking to:

- Is of a different race and ‘looks different’
- Is very large or very small
- Is very attractive
- Is very ugly
- Has a disability
- Is scarred or has a deformity
Selective perception
Perception is the way that we see something. Everyone sees the world in their own individual way. The perception exercises later in this chapter show that what we see is not always ‘real’. You may have experienced watching a movie with a friend that you enjoyed and your friend did not. You perceived the movie differently. If you see a situation differently to the person you’re talking to this may lead to misunderstandings or conflict particularly if you are working closely together in a team.

Distance
Distance is another barrier to effective communication. When we are geographically separated from the person we are communicating with we need to use other channels to stay in contact. We may use the Internet, telephone, email, letters, or some other means. We can’t usually see the person we’re talking to and so don’t have the benefit of seeing the other person’s body language (non-verbal communication) and have to rely only on their written or spoken words. Face to face communication is usually the easiest to understand accurately because it gives us the benefit of a number of different channels. Sometimes team members are geographically separated from each other.

Location
The location in which communication occurs may affect how successful the communication is. A location we feel uncomfortable in may create a barrier in communication. We are usually more comfortable on our own territory. If we move to an unfamiliar area we may feel uncomfortable and not communicate clearly, openly and honestly. If we are asked to our boss’ office we may feel nervous and not speak up in the same way we would on the factory floor. People often behave differently in different situations. We may speak differently in front of our parents and teachers to the way we speak in front of our friends. We behave differently in a library to the way we behave in a club, bar or hotel. If we need to train workers it may be best to choose a quiet location away from noise and other distractions. Teams need to have a comfortable space to work in.

Anger
Anger is a barrier to effective communication. When we are angry we tend to stop listening to the other person and focus on our own feelings and reactions. Teams need strategies to deal with conflict and anger within the team.

Fear of change
Change tends to make people feel insecure and so when faced with a changing situation we tend to concentrate on our own concerns about what may happen next rather than on listening to others telling us about what is proposed. The effect of this is that we miss out on important information about the change. Change is a constant presence in modern organisations and managing change and innovation is an essential business skill. Team projects are a changing and dynamic area.

Some techniques for overcoming communication barriers

Empathy and making your communication receiver orientated
Empathy is looking at a situation from the other person’s point of view. Being receiver orientated means that you try to put your message in a way that the person you’re communicating with will accept. If you were an environmental officer for a company when talking about environmental or safety issues to workers you would focus on avoiding pain and injury but when talking to management you may
emphasize cost saving and having a good corporate reputation. It is easier to understand the other person if you try to imagine what they may be thinking or feeling.

Feedback and follow-up
Feedback is a reaction to what has happened. Feedback can be verbal or non-verbal and can be positive, negative or neutral. Giving clear feedback is very important in successful communication. Giving clear feedback to the sender lets him/her know if you have understood the message and it also encourages the sender to keep communicating. If the message hasn’t been sent successfully feedback is a way of asking the sender to try again. Effective feedback is essential for team success.

Appropriate timing
It is important to pick the ‘right time’ to communicate. Asking a favour when someone is very busy may mean they will say ‘no’ to your request. Asking for a pay rise when your manager has gained a new contract may be good timing.

Appropriate language
Always carefully choose the words you use when communicating. Pick words that the receiver will understand and accept.

Pick appropriate channels for your communication
A text message is suitable for a short simple message but not for complex instructions. Very complicated instructions are best given in writing and supported by diagrams. Disciplining a worker is best done face-to-face. Some messages may be best given mainly in pictures rather than verbally. There is an old saying in English that ‘a picture is worth a 1,000 words.’ A formal letter may be best for some business dealings.

Case study exercise
A project team was formed at ABC Electrics in Shanghai to identify and implement more sustainable work practices in their workplace. The managing director Peter Li didn’t ask for volunteers but chose the following individuals to be members of the team without any consultation (discussion). Peter knows this issue is important but doesn’t have time to deal with it himself. He has asked the new team to meet weekly on this issue but has not provided:

- a common meeting time
- a room to in which to meet
- specific information about the goals he wants achieved
- training in:
  - sustainability theory
  - problem solving techniques
  - meeting procedure
  - project reporting

The team members

Mark O’Connor - 62– Australian environmentalist employed by ABC Electrics as a short term consultant. Mark has never been to China before, doesn’t speak any Mandarin and doesn’t believe in moving slowly on these important matters. He thinks the rest of the team agrees with the CEO too easily. He often becomes angry and shouts when he feels strongly about an issue.
Melissa Chan – 48. Melissa has worked for ABC Electrics for 25 years and she is very loyal to Peter Li and always agrees with everything he says. She resents the foreigners on the team but thinks that Gloria is a silly girl and that Ernest is too pushy. She doesn’t like change and can’t really understand what they are meant to be doing.

Jason Williams – 34. A shy British man who has been working in China for many years at ABC Electrics. Jason, who speaks Mandarin fluently, is married to a Chinese woman named Clare and they have one child. Jason thinks sustainability is an important issue but accepts that progress on these issues is often slow. Jason has a stutter (speech problem) and finds it hard to present his ideas quickly and clearly. He is also partly deaf and tends to move very close to people in conversation so that he can hear what they are saying.

Ernest Zhang - 26. Ernest is a young graduate with a Masters degree in sustainable work practices from a US university. He was born in Shanghai and is very impatient to see some progress on the issue of sustainability because it is so important. He resents the Australian expert. Mark O’Connor, telling them what to do and to “hurry up” all the time. He is working on another very important project and so wants to spend as little time as possible with this team but still wants good results.

Gloria Wu - 18. Gloria has only recently joined ABC Electrics. She is very beautiful, confident and intelligent but is not interested in the electricity industry or the issue of sustainability. Gloria has taken this job because her father asked her to accept the position offered by his best friend Peter Li.

Activities

1. How might the way the team was formed (created) lead to problems for the team?
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   ________________________________________________________________
   ________________________________________________________________
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   ________________________________________________________________
   ________________________________________________________________
   ________________________________________________________________
   ________________________________________________________________
   ________________________________________________________________
   ________________________________________________________________

2. What possible communication barriers may exist within this team? List specific barriers and possible effects next to the names of the individuals they may apply to in the table below.

You may choose from this list of barriers and include new ones of your own that seem relevant. Language, status and power, age, prejudice and attitude, selective perception, physical features, distance, location, anger and fear of change
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Individual</th>
<th>Barriers</th>
<th>Effects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Peter Li</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mark O'Connor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Melissa Chan</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jason Williams</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ernest Zhang</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Gloria Wu</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

3. Identify 5 changes (include more if you think of them) that need to be made to increase the likelihood of the team’s success.

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________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
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________________________________________________________________________
What is Self-Esteem?
Self-esteem is how you feel about yourself and the value or worth you attach to yourself. This comes from your self-concept which is the view you have of yourself. Self-esteem is important in effective communication. Self-esteem is largely developed during childhood.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Healthy Self-Esteem</th>
<th>Low Self-Esteem</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Childhood experiences that lead to healthy self-esteem</td>
<td>Childhood experiences that lead to low self-esteem</td>
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<tr>
<td>include-</td>
<td>include-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• being praised</td>
<td>• being harshly criticized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• being listened to</td>
<td>• being yelled at, or beaten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• being spoken to respectfully</td>
<td>• being ignored, ridiculed or teased</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• getting attention and hugs</td>
<td>• being expected to be &quot;perfect&quot; all the time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• experiencing success in sports or school</td>
<td>• experiencing failures in sports or school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• having trustworthy friends</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

People with low self-esteem were often given messages that losing a game or getting poor results, etc. meant failures of their whole selves.

Problem solving techniques
Problem solving techniques are essential in a successful team. Staff will need to be trained in the use of these techniques. They are useful for analysing workplace issues and for finding successful solutions to problems. More problem solving techniques are outlined in chapter 10 of these notes. Brainstorming is dealt with at this point in the notes as you will be expected to use this technique throughout our studies in this module.

Brainstorming
Brainstorming is a problem solving tool which is useful in dealing with issues. Brainstorming with a group of people is a powerful technique as it is a means of generating a lot of ideas quickly and getting everyone involved in a decision making process. It motivates and develops teams. Brainstorming motivates because it involves members of a team in bigger management issues, and it gets a team working together. People are sometimes reluctant to offer their ideas in a group as they are worried their ideas may be wrong or considered foolish. The fact that no criticism or judgement of ideas is allowed in the first stage of the brainstorming process means that people feel more confident about presenting their ideas. However, brainstorming is not simply a random activity. Brainstorming needs to be structured and it follows brainstorming rules. The brainstorming process is described below, and you will need a flip chart or alternative such as large sheets of paper or a black board. This is essential as brainstorming needs to involve the team, which means that everyone must be able to see what's happening. In Brainstorming the facilitator should manage the process, and the follow up actions. Brainstorming used well will see excellent results in improving the organisation, performance, and developing the team.

Brainstorming process
- Define and agree on the objective or problem
- Brainstorm ideas and suggestions within an agreed a time limit
- Categorise/condense/combine/refine
- Assess/analyse effects or results
- Prioritise options/rank list as appropriate
Ensure team effectiveness

- Agree action and timescale
- Control and monitor follow-up.

In other words:

**Plan and agree the brainstorming aim**
Ensure everyone participating in the brainstorm session understands and agrees on the aim of the session (for example, to look at ways to dispose of environmental waste or to improve the company’s level of recycling.) Keep the brainstorming objective simple and allocate a time limit.

**Manage the actual brainstorming activity**
Brainstorming enables people to suggest ideas at random. Your job as facilitator is to encourage everyone to participate, to dismiss nothing, and to prevent others from criticising the wilder suggestions (some of the best ideas are initially the craziest ones and people won’t participate if their suggestions are criticised). During the random collection of ideas the facilitator must record every suggestion on the flipchart. Use Blu-Tack or adhesive tape to hang the sheets around the walls. At the end of the time limit or when ideas have been exhausted, use different coloured pens to categorise, group, connect and link the random ideas. Condense and refine the ideas by making new headings or lists.

**Implement the actions agreed from the brainstorming**
With the group, assess, evaluate and analyse the effects and validity of the ideas or the list. Develop and prioritise the ideas into a more finished list or agree what the next actions will be. Agree on a timeline and who’s responsible for carrying out tasks. After the session circulate notes, monitor and give feedback. It’s vital to develop a clear and positive outcome, so that team members feel their effort and contribution was worthwhile. When people see that their efforts have resulted in action and change, they will be motivated and keen to help again.

**Brainstorming Practice Activity**
You were on a yacht sailing around the world when your boat was hit by a whale and sank. You are the only survivor and find yourself washed up on a tropical Island. You are the only human on the island but there are wild pigs, birds, fruit, fresh water and fish in the surrounding sea. You can survive here for some time. You have survived in your swimsuit and a long leather belt with a brass buckle is the only thing from the ship to have washed ashore with you.

Brainstorming question: What could you use the belt for to help you in your life on the island?
Perception
To perceive is to see, understand and make sense of. We all see the world through our own eyes and then base our behaviour on what we see or understand to be real. Perceptions are based on our previous experiences and the context (situation) we find ourselves in. What occurs in our mind is as significant as what is in front of us in terms of our perception (understanding). Sometimes we may make incorrect assumptions about what is occurring in front of us based on our attitudes, previous experience or prejudices.

Seeing is believing?
The following illusions illustrate that what we see is not always what exists.

Young or Old?
Do you see an old woman or a young woman in this illustration? They are both present, but you will not be able to see both of them simultaneously. Once you perceive both figures, see if you can get them to move back and forth between the two interpretations. The influence of perceptual set has also been explored in relation to the famous image shown below:

This image was designed to be interpreted as either a young woman or an old woman. It was introduced into the psychological literature by Edwin G Boring (1930) (though it was published by the British cartoonist W E Hill in 1915, and is thought to be based on a French version of 15 years earlier). It is sometimes given the chauvinistic label of 'The Wife and the Mother-in-Law'. (Visual Perception 6, accessed 12/12/07)

Perpetually ascending staircase.
How can the man go up all the time? Can such a staircase be built as a real object?
There are no gray spots at the corners of the squares.

Stairway between corners of a flat square.

You can go from corner A to corner B by climbing the stairs or by going around a level plane.

The rows of black and white squares are all parallel. The vertical zigzag patterns disrupt our horizontal perception.
The centre circles are both the same size.

The Vertical lines are both the same length.

The pillars are identical in size. Our intuition about perspective influences what we see.

The shade of the centre dot is the same in all the squares. The shade of the background influences how we perceive it. All squares are uniformly shaded, but each square seems lighter on its left edge than on its right edge.
Checkerboard with shadow
The squares labelled A and B are the same shade of grey. This can be verified by joining the squares marked A and B with two vertical stripes of the same shade of grey. The illusion that B is lighter than A is caused by the relative contrast of the surrounding dark squares and by the fact that our vision compensates for the shadow of the cylinder. (Created by Edward H. Adelson, Professor of Vision Science at MIT.)

Illusory Contours
Although there are only circles with sections taken out of them, our eyes strive to see triangles. The sides of the triangles may appear curved when the angles of the sections do not add up to 180 degrees.
Exercise
Something to Watch

*The Easy Guide to Communication* is an excellent program that covers many of the basic communication concepts covered in this course. Watch the DVD (if available) and answer the following questions:

List the *three keys* to better communication:

___________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________

List the *three P's* to better communication:

___________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________

What does it mean to “show empathy”?

___________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________

List three advantages of, or reasons for, asking questions.

___________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________

Why is listening so difficult?

___________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________

Listening

The ability to listen effectively is one of the most important communication skills and yet it is often ignored. You spend more of your waking time listening than any other activity. Many clubs and institutions run courses in public speaking yet courses in listening are rarely advertised. If you rated what you value and like in your friends chances are that the fact that “you can talk to them and they really listen” would appear high on the list. Some studies have shown that as much as 75% of oral
communication is misunderstood or ignored. A skilled listener can improve on this statistic. There is quite a difference between hearing and listening. We all hear when we are conscious but we do not always listen. Hearing refers to the physical act of receiving sounds. Listening on the other hand is an active process which requires effort. In order to listen we need to hear, pay attention and understand what we hear. Many of us will have had the experience of driving with the radio on as a background sound, when suddenly we note something of interest to us such as the mention of our suburb, a sporting score or news of a major disaster. We focus totally on the broadcast and switch rapidly for hearing to listening. Listening is an active process and involves a range of skills that can be learned and developed. Carefully listening to all viewpoints and perceptions is an essential skill in any team member.

**Exercise**
To illustrate the difference between hearing and listening spend the next two minutes while the class is totally silent writing down every sound that you can detect.

____________________________________________________

____________________________________________________

____________________________________________________

____________________________________________________

____________________________________________________

Did you become aware of sounds you may not have been conscious of if you hadn't been asked to listen?

**Exercise**
List 5 reasons why it is important to listen effectively at work.

____________________________________________________

____________________________________________________

____________________________________________________

____________________________________________________

____________________________________________________

There are many reasons why people do not listen and these distractions (noise) or barriers may come from within the listener (receiver), from the immediate environment or from the speaker (sender).

**Mental Barriers to Listening**
Thought speed – the 150/650 key (refer to the film *An Easy Guide to Communication*)

- Listening requires effort
- Lack of knowledge
- Indifference
- Impatience
- Negative prejudices
- Positive prejudices
- Too much detail
- Lack of observation
- Bad habits- faking attention, interrupting, anticipating the message, the ‘cold shoulder’, being non responsive and “tuning in and out”.

30
Physical Barriers to Listening
- Noise
- Temperature
- Proximity
- Uncomfortable environment, furniture etc.

Rules for Good Listening
1. Stop talking.
2. Don’t interrupt.
3. Show a genuine interest in the topic.
4. Show appropriate non-verbal communication by listening with your body. Turn toward the speaker, maintain eye contact (within cultural norms), and look interested.
5. Focus on the speaker; don’t do other tasks while listening.
6. Ask questions to clarify your understanding of the speaker’s message.
7. Show empathy.
8. Paraphrase/reflect back the speaker’s message to show that you are listening and to check the accuracy of your understanding. You can reflect the content of the message and/or the emotion behind it.
9. Resist distractions from within yourself and from the environment around you.
10. Keep an open mind; avoid prejudging the speaker or their message until complete.

Exercise - Listening Triads
This exercise provides a useful way of improving communication skills. The triad is a group of three people. Each person has a turn at the three different roles involved. The roles are:

- **Observer**
  Notes how the listener uses the skills outlined below and provides feedback

- **Speaker**
  Responds to listener’s questions

- **Listener**
  Asks questions of the speaker then listens

The focus of this exercise is on the Listener. The Listener has the opportunity to practice their active listening skills. The skills practised are:
Reflective Listening – This involves mirroring back meaning and the feelings behind a message to show understanding and interest. Reflective listening shows the speaker that we are giving them our full attention and listening without passing judgement on what is said. Summarising or paraphrasing is a way of giving feedback as it involves the listener checking her/his understanding of the speaker’s message. E.g. “Do you mean…”, “So what you’re saying is…”

Attending behaviour – means that the listener is paying full attention to the speaker, which is shown through eye contact, posture, and other positive non-verbal cues.

Styles of questioning – open questions encourage the other person to expand on answers as they make it difficult to give a one word response. Open questions usually begin with “what”, “how” or “why”. Closed questions often may be answered by one word and they do not encourage a person to expand on their thoughts so they are good for gaining specific information. Probing or follow up questions are used to gain clarification or more information.

Instructions
Form groups of three.
Allocate the three roles of observer, listener and speaker. Remember everyone has a turn in each role.

Arrange the seating thus:

1. Speaker selects a topic.
2. Listener commences the exchange by asking open-ended questions of the speaker on the chosen topic. The listener is not to give their opinion or suggest answers; rather they are to explore the speaker’s view.
3. The speaker responds to the listener’s questions and paraphrasing.
4. The observer completes the observation sheet and gives feedback to the listener on the way she/he practised the skills of active listening:
   - Questioning
   - Summarising
   - Attending behaviour
   - Arrange the next triad.

Possible Topics
Any topic you fancy
Working Women
Cloning
Abortion
Global warming

Something I do well
Voluntary euthanasia
My ambition in life
Copyright
Recycling
BSBWOR502B
Ensure team effectiveness

My best quality | My worst quality
---|---
Economic rationalism | Cosmetic surgery
Censorship on the web | A person I admire
A funny experience | A place I love
Political correctness | Terrorism
Unemployment | Poverty
Globalisation | Pollution
A place I would like to visit | The importance of family

**Triads Observer Sheet**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paraphrasing &amp; Reflection</th>
<th>Questioning</th>
<th>Attending Behaviour</th>
<th>General Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Content</td>
<td>Emotion</td>
<td>Open</td>
<td>Closed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| | | | |
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| | | | |
Values, beliefs and attitudes

Our values, beliefs and attitudes have a profound (deep, strong) effect on the way we communicate with others. These factors shape the way in which we behave and the way in which we perceive or understand the world around us. Babies are not born with a set of values so where do these things come from?

Exercise
Write down five values which you hold as important in terms of who you are and try to identify the source of these values.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Source</th>
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</tbody>
</table>

Often our values come from the main socialising influences in our lives; groups and institutions such as the family, peer groups, schools, churches, employers and relationships. We are often prepared to defend our values strongly in discussions with others because we see our values as part of who we are. It is no accident that we are advised not to discuss religion, politics and sex if we wish to avoid arguments. People tend to hold strong values in regard to these areas and will defend them vigorously. Many of the world’s trouble spots have conflicts based on some or all of these areas. When working in a team you may have to work with other team members with very different values and this will be a challenge.

Exercise

The Kidney Machine

There is a kidney machine at Beijing's largest hospital that is the only one of its kind in China. The machine is very important because people with the rare Type K kidney disease die if they can't use the machine. The machine is very expensive and can only take five (5) people at once for treatment. Four (4) people are using it at the moment so there is the opportunity for one (1) other person to enter the treatment program and use the machine in order to survive.
Six (6) people have applied to the Beijing Hospital to use the machine. Information about these applicants is supplied below.

Your Tasks:

1. Privately rank the applicants from 1 – 6. 1 is the person you believe should be offered the treatment first.
2. Continue ranking the other applicants in case other positions become available in the future. Complete this step without any discussion with others in the class.
3. Join a group of 4-5 to discuss who will be allowed to use this machine. You as the Selection Committee must decide on a team ranking of the applicants that represents consensus (genuine agreement). You must continue the discussion in your group until you all agree on a ranking, don't use voting to reach quick decision but talk the issues through.

Remember it is a question of life and death. The people who don’t have access to the machine will die.

Franco. Aged 15

Franco is a young student and child of wealthy parents. He is doing well at school but is disliked by his classmates because he is a bully.

Brian. Aged 23

Brian is a soccer star but may never play football again, even if treated. He is unmarried and says he will never marry. He may have a future in sports commentary.
Marco is a Greek doctor married to a Greek woman who is living permanently in China. He has two children aged seventeen and twenty. Marcos operates a free medical centre in a poor area of Beijing. He has suffered a nervous breakdown due to the pressure of his work.

Ernest is an important cancer researcher who is on the edge of a new discovery. He looks after his bedridden wife and he is her only family.

Angela is a pregnant woman, who is unmarried. She intends to keep her child and lives with her parents. Angela works in a biscuit factory and is a happy person.
Sam is a plumber who is married with 1 child. He works in a bar in the evening to make some extra money and helps to support his parents. He is a very loving father but is beginning to drink heavily.

Discussion points
1. Why was it difficult to reach consensus (agreement) within your group?
2. Did any group members discuss the characters in terms of “right and wrong”?
3. Did anyone in your group have a larger influence on the final decision? Why?
4. Were the characters “value laden”? Can you identify the particular values related to each character?
5. Was everyone in your group equally involved in the decision making?

Feedback
What is feedback? Any reply or response to a message is feedback. It is a very important part of communication and the ability to give quality feedback is an important work skill. Feedback may be:

- Positive “This is a good report.”
- Negative “This is a bad report.”
- Neutral “This is a report.”
- Verbal Any of the above
- Non-verbal A smile, a frown, a questioning look, a nod etc.

Feedback indicates whether a receiver has understood and accepted the message. Positive feedback encourages a speaker to continue communicating; negative feedback makes a sender aware that there is a problem. In either situation the feedback offers the opportunity to improve the interaction.

Some tips for giving constructive feedback

1. Listen to the sender’s message before responding.
2. Focus on the action that you are commenting on rather than the individual. This is essential when giving negative feedback. There is a world of difference between calling someone a bully and saying that his or her behaviour in the specific instance referred to was aggressive.
3. Make sure your feedback is clear and specific rather than vague and generalised - so - focus on the “here and now.”
4. If your feedback is negative give some specific suggestions as to how the individual can improve in the future. In other words focus on being constructive.
5. Make sure you look like you are listening and empathetic; use appropriate non-verbal communication.
6. Once you have given feedback to an individual be prepared to listen to the response of the recipient.
7. Be prepared to admit that you may have misunderstood or misinterpreted the initial message if necessary.
8. Make use of “I statements” to avoid sounding accusing. (See below)
9. Be open, assertive and clear in your feedback.
10. Be prepared to receive negative feedback in response to your feedback and be willing to consider whether or not it may be valid.

“I” messages

"I"-messages are a way of giving your views in a way that is less likely to offend the receiver and to be accepted. They rely on description rather than criticism or blame. As a sender you place the emphasis on how you see and feel about the situation rather than on blaming the other person. You can use two-part, three part or four part “I Statements”.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Two –part “I statement”</th>
<th>Three –part “I statement”</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&quot;I feel unhappy that we're making plans without your input.&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;I feel unhappy that we're making plans without your input.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;When you miss staff meetings&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;When you miss staff meetings&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“The effect is that the team is unsure of your views”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four –part “I statement”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;I feel unhappy that we're making plans without your input.&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;I feel unhappy that we're making plans without your input.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;When you miss staff meetings&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;When you miss staff meetings&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“The effect is the team is unsure of your views”</td>
<td>“The effect is the team is unsure of your views”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“I'd prefer you attended all staff meetings”</td>
<td>“I'd prefer you attended all staff meetings”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This approach allows you to express feelings without attacking the other person and is less likely to lead to arguments because it is hard for someone to argue with how you feel.

Non-verbal communication or body language

Much of the message that we receive in face-to-face interaction is non-verbal. Communication experts tell us that we tend to trust the non-verbal message more than the verbal message if the two don’t match (show congruence) and that up to 60% of the communication we receive is in the form of body language. Perhaps we trust the speaker’s non-verbal communication more than the spoken word because we know that body language is instinctive and as such individuals have less control over it.

Although we are generally not aware of it, people send and receive non-verbal signals all the time. These signals may indicate what we are truly feeling.
It is very important when looking at the body language not to judge the mood and intentions of the person we’re communicating with based on one gesture or cue. We should look for clusters (groups) of cues which show congruence (match). For example someone may cross their arms because they are cold, not because they feel defensive. However, if they cross their arms, turn away from us, avoid eye contact, and do not smile at all we can probably assume they are not accepting our message positively based on that cluster of gestures.

Body language is a term for communication using body movements or gestures instead of, or in addition to, sounds, verbal language or other communication body language also includes the use of facial expressions.

When dealing with people about sensitive issues like sustainability, environmental management or Occupational Health and Safety it is important to watch the body language of all parties involved in the discussion to monitor whether conflict is emerging or the stakeholders are becoming angry or uncomfortable. If you watch the body language carefully you may be able to predict the feelings and reactions of others and avoid explosive and destructive conflict in your team.

**Some body language signals or cues**

**The arm cross**

One of the most basic and powerful body-language signals is when a person crosses his or her arms across the chest. This can indicate that a person is putting up an unconscious barrier between themselves and others. It can also indicate that the person’s arms are cold which would be clarified by rubbing the arms or huddling.

**Eye contact**

In western society consistent eye contact can indicate that a person is thinking positively of what the speaker is saying. It is assumed in these societies that someone who won’t meet your gaze (eyes) has something to hide, is bored,
dishonest or rude. Disbelief or boredom is often indicated by looking away, or by touching the ear or scratching the chin. It should be noted that different cultures use and understand body language differently. In many Eastern societies too much direct eye contact is considered rude or disrespectful. It is important to consider body language in the cultural context you’re in. Interpreting gestures and facial expressions in the context of western body language may lead to misunderstandings and misinterpretations.

Body motion
The way that we move our bodies sends powerful message to others. Some cultures are very animated (move a lot) when communicating, such as southern Europeans and make use of a lot of hand gestures while others from different parts of the world move much less. In general we see increased body motion as a sign of increased emotion.

Use of space
Personal space is like an invisible bubble which we carry around with us. If someone intrudes too far into our personal space we tend to feel threatened and move away. All cultures have unwritten rules about the appropriate distance between people when they communicate. In Australia people tend to have a large ‘personal space’, perhaps a reflection of the low population density of the country. People from South America and the Middle East for example have much smaller zones which are considered acceptable for communication. There are three zones of personal space:

- **Intimate zone** – where we allow lovers and close friends to come very close to us
- **Social zone** – used for communicating with small groups of friends, colleagues, clients and acquaintances.
- **Public zone** - the large distance considered appropriate for public speakers or teachers conducting a lecture
Touching behaviour
Cultures have unwritten rules about whether or not it is appropriate for people to touch each other when communicating. Many South Americans routinely kiss even when introduced to strangers. Europeans are very likely to kiss and perhaps hug friends as a greeting while such public displays of affection are considered unacceptable in many Asian countries. In Italy, adult men routinely embrace but adult Australian and English men rarely do this. It is possible to send messages we don’t intend when dealing with other cultures who don’t share our body language. Understanding these cultural differences will be helpful in working in international teams.

Vocal qualities
The tone of voice we use, the pace (speed), our range of pitch, volume and our use of pauses all send messages beyond our words. Telling someone that you have really enjoyed their hospitality in a slow, flat tone is unlikely to be fully accepted and believed.

Choice and use of artefacts
The clothing we choose, our accessories and, jewellery all send a message about the way we see ourselves and the way that we want others to see us. Fellow team members will note the way you select and use artefacts.

Physical characteristics
It has been noted by psychologists that it is easier for tall, large people to command attention than small people. And the very beautiful tend to find it easier to command positive attention than the ugly. Sometimes people with disabilities complain that people seem so focussed on the disability that they miss the message the person is trying to send.

The environment we create
All humans try to personalise their environment through the use of artworks, decorations, ornaments and in their choice of furniture. These choices tell others
about us and so they are part of our non-verbal communication. What have you done to your room to reflect your personality?

**Group communication**

Body language is particularly important in group communications because for large groups it dominates the spoken word. Watch the body language of the famous speakers of history when they spoke to a mass audience. Body language contributed to the messages of Winston Churchill, Adolph Hitler, John Fitzgerald Kennedy, Marin Luther King Junior, Ho Chi Minh and Mao Tse-Tung and Popes over the years.

Body language is now widely used in the field of selling, where sales personnel are trained to observe and read the body language of their potential customers. Many companies now engage body language experts.

**Areas of Nonverbal Communication**

- **Body Motion**
  - Eye contact
  - Facial Expressions
  - Gestures
  - Posture

- **Character of Our Environment**
  - Colours
  - Décor.
  - Furniture

- **Physical Characteristics**
  - Height
  - Weight
  - Facial features
  - Colour
  - Disability etc.

- **Use of Space**
  - Personal space

- **Touching Behaviour**

- **Vocal Qualities**
  - Volume
  - Tempo
  - Pitch
  - Rhythm

- **Choice & Use of Artefacts**
  - Clothing
  - Jewellery
  - Accessories
How to Communicate with Body Language

Body language is important, and if your words say one thing but your body says another, the person you are speaking to is more likely to believe the message your body is communicating.

Withdrawn and insecure

Confident and inviting
If you constantly give negative signals, try to fix them. An example would be that if you're constantly hunched over or touching your face, you'll never look confident, approachable, or at ease. This may have a negative impact on the way your team interacts.

If you have recently entered a new culture, you may need to adjust your body language. Cultural norms regarding body language (how far away you should stand from someone, how much eye contact you should make, and what gestures are considered taboo/unacceptable), vary considerably, and if you don't speak the same body language as the locals, you're liable to be misunderstood a great deal. Not everyone uses the same gestures to convey the same meaning. For example in the US feet spread apart typically conveys the message "I am calm, but standing my ground." In Japan to convey this meaning the feet would typically be together, with the hands directly at the sides.

Practise in front of a mirror
Concentrate on difficult situations such as interviews, first dates or asking for a favour. It's most important to make sure your body language is clear in interactions with people you don't know very well. Get in front of a mirror and practise these interactions. Speak aloud as you normally would, and carefully watch what your body is doing. Try to identify how you might present yourself better.
Directing towards

Directing away

Observe your own expressions

Do you always send the message you intend to?
Review Questions – Chapter 2
1. Define the communication process
2. Why is communication important in an organisation?
3. List three (3) factors you should consider when planning your communication.
4. Define the following terms:
   - Message
   - Sender
   - Receiver
   - Encoding
   - Decoding Transmit Channel
   - Noise or interference
   - Context
   - Feedback
   - Field of experience
5. Cross cultural communication. List three (3) areas of difference between cultures that may lead to misunderstanding or a communication breakdown.
6. List ten (10) possible communication barriers or blocks.
7. List five (5) techniques for overcoming communication barriers.
8. List the seven steps in the brainstorming process.
10. What is perception?
11. Why do people perceive situations differently?
12. Why is listening an important team skill?
13. List ten (10) rules for good listening.
14. Where do our values, beliefs and attitudes come from?
15. What is an “I Statement” in relation to feedback?
16. What is body language or non-verbal communication (NVC)?
17. Explain why feedback is important in communication.
18. List the ten (10) tips for giving constructive feedback.
19. Why do we often believe a person’s NVC more than their words if the words and NVC don’t match?
20. List the seven (7) areas of NVC.
Chapter 3 - Meetings: Organisation, participation and recording.

Welcome to the chapter on participating in and running meetings.

This chapter will cover:
- Identifying types of meetings
- Planning meetings
- Differentiating between formal, semi-formal and informal meeting procedures
- Writing agendas
- Taking minutes
- Identifying roles for meeting participants
- Identifying helpful meeting behaviours
- Acting as an effective meeting participant

Terms used in this chapter

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agenda</td>
<td>Detailed plan of what is to be discussed and achieved at a meeting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amendment</td>
<td>A formal suggestion to alter the wording of a motion</td>
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<tr>
<td>Apologies</td>
<td>Those people who are unable to attend a meeting may ask to have their</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>apology for not attending delivered by another participant and noted in the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>minutes.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chairperson/facilitator</td>
<td>The person who ‘chairs’ the meeting, leads and controls the discussion to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ensure the agenda is followed</td>
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<tr>
<td>Consensus</td>
<td>Full and genuine agreement usually reached through discussion</td>
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<tr>
<td>Constitution</td>
<td>Legally binding document setting out the body’s objective, structure,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>rules and how rules may be changed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal meeting</td>
<td>Meeting which follows formal parliamentary procedure based on the British</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Westminster system. Most business meetings are semi-formal rather than</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>totally formal as a formal structure tends to make free, open discussion</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>difficult.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Informal meeting</td>
<td>Has few of the features of a formal meeting and decisions are reached</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>quickly through discussion and consensus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meeting</td>
<td>A gathering of individuals to achieve a specific purpose or purposes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Meetings are held for many different reasons and in many different contexts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minutes</td>
<td>Record of what happens at a meeting. Should record what is discussed, key</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>decisions made and who is responsible for carrying them out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motion</td>
<td>Formal proposal put forward for discussion begins with the words “I move</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>that…”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mover</td>
<td>Person who moves a motion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quorum</td>
<td>The minimum number of people required at a meeting so that it can make</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>binding decisions. Defined in standing orders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seconder</td>
<td>A person who agrees to support a motion so that it can be discussed by</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>saying “I’ll second that”. A seconder does not necessarily agree with a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>motion but agrees to support it so it can be discussed. This is called</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>seconding.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semi-formal meeting</td>
<td>Has some of the characteristics of a formal meeting including an agenda,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>minutes and a chairperson but does not usually fully control discussion or</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>insist that all decisions are put as formal motions and voted on. Decisions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>are more likely to be reached through consensus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standing orders</td>
<td>The rules by which the meeting is run</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vote</td>
<td>Usually done verbally when the chairperson asks “those in favour” then “those against”. Votes may also be taken by ‘a show of hands’ voters raise hands to show agreement or disagreement. Or, a secret ballot where voters anonymously write their agreement or disagreement on a piece of paper and the votes are collected and counted. In this way the way participant’s vote is kept secret.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
What is a meeting?
A meeting is a gathering of individuals to achieve a specific purpose or purposes. Meetings are held for many different reasons and in many different contexts and meeting with stakeholders regularly is an integral (essential) aspect of any team project.

Meetings are vital for management and communication. Properly run meetings save time, increase motivation, productivity, and solve problems. Meetings create new ideas and initiatives. Meetings overcome conflict in a way that emails and memos cannot. Meetings are effective because the written word only carries 7% of the true meaning and feeling. Meetings are better than telephone conferences because only 38% of the meaning and feeling is carried in the way that things are said. The other 55% of the meaning and feeling is carried in facial expression and non-verbal signals. That's why meetings are so useful; they allow us to use a range of communication channels.

Meetings in the workplace provide forums for exchanging information, solving problems, making decisions or setting goals. Well-run effective meetings achieve results and offer satisfaction to members.

**Meeting purposes include:**
- giving information
- training
- discussion (leading to an objective)
- generating ideas
- planning
- workshops
- consulting and getting feedback
- finding solutions/solving problems
- crisis management
- performance reporting/assessment
- setting targets and objectives
- setting tasks and delegating
- conveying /clarifying policy issues
- team building
- motivating
- special subjects - guest speakers
- inter-departmental - process improvement
- making decisions

They may be either informal or formal.

**Informal** meetings generally only include a small number of people and can be an efficient way of getting things done quickly. The lack of formality can sometimes mean they become disorganised and discussions may go off the point of the business at hand.
Formal meetings have rules and regulations that provide a framework for the business of the meeting and usually allow all members to participate. We will look at some of the procedures for conducting a structured formal meeting.

Meetings occur routinely in many workplaces. They are sometimes dreaded because they are seen as a waste of time. This response is often provoked when meetings are not well planned or effectively run. It is important to understand how to plan and run an efficient meeting if you are a member of a workplace team.

Exercise
What are the features of good meetings and poor meetings?
Spend some time filling in the characteristics in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics of a ‘good’ meeting</th>
<th>Characteristics of a ‘poor’ meeting</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

What is involved in planning for a meeting?
In order to run an effective meeting planning is required. Much of the success of a meeting depends on the unseen planning that occurs before the event. All teams need to hold meetings to achieve their goals.

The purpose and timing
- Firstly a team needs to decide what needs to be achieved. It must have a clear definition of its purpose.
- The next decision to be made is whether or not a meeting is necessary. Could the team’s purpose be achieved in a simpler way? Perhaps a quick phone call, e-mail letter or fax could achieve the aim.
- If a meeting is justified the team must then decide who should attend. Ask the minimum number of people necessary to achieve the defined goals. Meetings work best when every participant has an essential role to play.
- Set a tentative date and check to see the required staff is available to attend. You may need to negotiate another time if necessary.

The location and venue
- Choose a location. The location should be central and accessible to all participants.
- Book a room with all the facilities required for your meeting.
- Consider resources:
  - Computers
  - Network points
  - Overhead projectors
  - Slide projectors
  - DVD/CD players
  - Catering equipment
  - Furniture
 Whiteboards etc.
Book the equipment and ensure that it is placed in the room for the allotted time.

- Arrange for refreshments to be available if your meeting will run for more than one hour. Tea, coffee, water and juice should be provided for short meetings. Caterers should be arranged to provide more substantial refreshments in meetings that are scheduled to last for several hours.

Preparing the agenda
- Research the issues that will be discussed.
- Construct an agenda for the meeting. Essentially an agenda is a time-referenced plan of what will be discussed. Take care to place items in a logical sequence and place the most important items first. Try to estimate a time for each item and place it on the agenda. This helps you to plan a realistic agenda that won’t go “over time”. It also helps to keep the meeting “on track”.
- Send participants a copy of the agenda well in advance of the meeting. It is common to enclose an information sheet with the agenda which details what information they will be expected to bring on the day, what preparations they should make and housekeeping details like parking, catering, accommodation, transport etc.
- On the day, arrive early and ensure that all resources are available and that the room is appropriately set up for your meeting.

What sort of meeting?
Meetings may be formal, semi-formal or informal. What does this mean? It is not a question of jeans or a dinner suit, but rather refers to the way in which the meeting is organised and run.
Characteristics of Formal and Informal Meetings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Formal</th>
<th>Informal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Chairperson/facilitator has a dominant and powerful role.</td>
<td>• Facilitator/Convenor/chairperson may take quite a passive role.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Has officials (Chairperson, secretary etc.)</td>
<td>• Agenda/ plan may be a brief list of points for discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Notice of meeting given well in advance in writing</td>
<td>Matters discussed usually to do with the day to day running of the organisation and tend to be current and specific.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Written agenda (order of business in formal terms)</td>
<td>• Notes/Minutes, if taken tend to be brief</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Formal minutes of record</td>
<td>• Flexible procedures, reference rarely made to rules or conventions of discussion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Matters discussed are usually of policy or are applicable to the whole organisation.</td>
<td>• Free discussion and contribution allowed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Discussion heavily controlled.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Rigid procedure often in accordance with written (even printed) rules or constitution which are difficult to vary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Quorum
The quorum is the number of members of an organisation that must be present (set down in standing orders) for the business of the meeting to be valid. Decisions made by a meeting that runs without a quorum are not valid.

Agenda
An agenda is a plan for a meeting, which details the order of business for the meeting. It is like a road map for the meeting. In simple terms it tells us what will be discussed, the sequence in which items will be discussed and a good agenda will allocate specific amounts of time for each item. Each item should have a number, a title, an indication of why it is being discussed (e.g. referred by the social committee) a brief statement of the issue.

All agendas should list the following:
- Meeting start time
- Meeting end time
- Meeting location
- Topic headings
- Include some topic detail for each heading

Participants in a meeting should have the agenda before they attend a meeting so that they can prepare and therefore contribute more effectively. The wording of each item should indicate to the meeting what they are expected to with each item, e.g.
- For consideration
- For information
- For approval
- For report

Items for the agenda may be gathered from:
- Items submitted by the chairperson
- Items submitted by other participants
- Previous minutes (unfinished business)
- Items marked for action in earlier minutes
Ensure team effectiveness

A sample agenda is located below.

---

### Agenda

**Energy Electronics Ltd**

12/10/2007

10:00 AM to 11:15 AM

Meeting Room 1

200 Collins Street

Melbourne 3001

---

**Type of meeting:** General business

**Facilitator:** Michael Williams

**Note taker:** Alison Keyes

**Attendees:** Michael Williams, Frank Jones, James Whitlam, Clare O’Brien, Miranda McDowell, Gayle Smith, David Jones, Rachel Davies, Paul Durant, Peter Thompson, Barry Burns & Alison Keyes.

**Please read:** The minutes of the previous meeting, results of the last safety audit and the current sustainability report (attached).

**Please bring:** Ideas and suggestions for our Christmas function

---

### Agenda topics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duration</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Speaker</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5 minutes</td>
<td>1. Welcome and Apologies</td>
<td>Chairperson, Michael Williams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 minutes</td>
<td>2. Minutes of the previous meeting</td>
<td>Chairperson, Michael Williams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 minutes</td>
<td>3. Business arising from the previous minutes.</td>
<td>Frank Jones</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 minutes</td>
<td>3. Business arising from the previous minutes.</td>
<td>Frank Jones</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 minutes</td>
<td>4. Presentation on environmental sustainability</td>
<td>James Whitlam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 minutes</td>
<td>5. Safety report</td>
<td>Miranda McDowell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 minutes</td>
<td>6. Installation of new notice boards</td>
<td>Gayle Smith</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 minutes</td>
<td>7. Annual Christmas party</td>
<td>David Jones</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 minutes</td>
<td>8. Good news stories</td>
<td>Rachel Davies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 minutes</td>
<td>9. Other business</td>
<td>All staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 minutes</td>
<td>10. Date of next meeting and close of meeting</td>
<td>Chairperson, Michael Williams</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Minutes
The minutes of a meeting are a formal record of what is broadly discussed at a meeting and lists decisions made and who is responsible for carrying out these decisions.

Minutes should:
- Define the issue and why it was discussed
- Summarise the essential points of the discussion relevant to the decision
- Record accurately the decisions of the meeting and who is responsible for their implementation. Time frames should be detailed for action.

Minutes do not record every word uttered at a meeting but summarise the key points and decisions. After a meeting the minutes should be distributed to all participants at the meeting and to those who sent apologies. This keeps people informed of what has happened and what their responsibilities are in relation to decisions made. In some situations the keeping of minutes is a legal requirement.

Skills for Taking Minutes
- Check the style/format that the organisation uses for taking minutes
- Consider using a checklist or create a pro forma for taking minutes. Anything which allows you to “tick the box” is helpful. (see over page)
- Use the Agenda headings as a guide for your minutes.
- Note time, date and place of meeting
- Record attendance
- Record apologies
- Record confirmation of minutes
- Sit where you can see and hear all members
- Write your notes clearly so that you can read them afterwards
- Take notes on key discussion points
- Accurately record the wording of motions and amendments. Clarify with chairperson if necessary.
### Meeting Pro Forma

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisation/Group</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Purpose of Meeting</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date/Time/Location</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apologies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item or Motion</th>
<th>Key Discussion Points</th>
<th>Decision / Resolution</th>
<th>Action (who/what/when)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

### Sample Minutes

**Energy Electronics Ltd**  
12/10/200?  
10:00 AM to 11:15 AM  
Meeting Room 1  
200 Collins Street  
Melbourne 3001

**Type of meeting:** General business  
**Facilitator:** Michael Williams  
**Note taker:** Alison Keyes
Record of Business

1. **Welcome and Apologies**

2. **Minutes of the previous meeting were accepted as correct**

3. **Business arising from the previous minutes.**
   - **Safety warnings on main entrance.** Frank Jones reported that the safety warnings relating to dangerous goods had been installed successfully on the main factory gate at a cost of $600.00. Council inspectors from the Melbourne City Council have inspected and approved the signs.
     
     **Action:** Frank will gain quotes on similar signs for the side gates.

4. **Presentation on environmental sustainability from James Whitlam.**
   James tabled an information sheet detailing initiatives that have been implemented at the factory and our two showrooms relating to sustainability. Benchmarks have been set and targets created. Small boxes for paper recycling have been placed in all offices in the organization. A large box has been placed in the photocopier room because of the amount of paper waste produced there. Special bins for recycling glass and aluminum cans have been placed in the staff canteen and in the visitor’s area.
     
     **Action:** James will continue to distribute information on sustainability issues via email to all staff.

     **Michael Williams thanked James for his presentation.**

5. **Safety report from Miranda McDowell.**
   Miranda tabled a report on injury statistics for the whole organization which included detailed graphs and charts. The report summarized OH&S events and the new policy and procedures relating to OH&S. Miranda highlighted the following:
   - An evacuation drill will be help on December 7 involving the factory in the morning and the main offices in the afternoon.
   - Staff needs to observe the painted walkways in the factory to avoid crossing the paths of forklifts.
   - The OH&S procedures have been revised. Copies available on the Intranet.
     
     **Action:** A copy of the full OH&S report will be placed on the main staff notice board in the canteen and an electronic copy will be placed on the Intranet.

6. **Gayle Smith reported on the Installation of new notice boards in the factory.**
   New electronic notice boards have been installed in the factory which show production details, safety warnings and, shift rosters.
     
     **Action:** Staff are asked to give feedback to Gayle on the board’s effectiveness

7. **Annual Christmas party - David Jones**
   David reported that he has gained quotations on a Christmas meal for staff from three catering firms with different menus. He requested the staff present to distribute a questionnaire detailing the three menus to their staff asking which caterer they prefer.
     
     **Action:** Completed questionnaires to be bought to the next meeting for collection and a final decision.

8. **Good news stories – Rachel Davies**
   - The company’s ISO audit was passed successfully with no areas of non-conformance
   - Company raffle raised $526.00 for charity. Donated to the China Earthquake Relief Fund

9. **Other business.** No other business was raised.

10. **Date of next meeting and close of meeting**
    Chairperson Michael Williams declared the next meeting will be held at 10:00 am on October 19 in meeting room 1.
     
     He thanked staff for attending and the meeting was declared closed at 11:10 am
Motions
A motion is a proposal. In order for an issue to be discussed at a formal meeting there must be a *formal motion on the table*. A motion is put in a sentence that usually begins “I move that…”

Possible examples:
- “I move that the company purchase a new truck for deliveries.”
- “I move that the company hold a cocktail party as a Christmas function.”
- “I move that this meeting be adjourned.”

A person who moves a motion is known as the *mover* of that motion. Their name is recorded in the minutes. For example:

> “That the company hold a cocktail party as a Christmas function.”
> Moved: Denise Jones.

Seconder
Someone who supports the motion put forward, or, is at least interested enough to hear it discussed and is willing to have their name added to the motion is known as the *seconder* of that motion. If a motion is not seconded it usually lapses and is not discussed. Seconding is a way to ensure that at least two people at a meeting are interested in discussing a proposal.

Amendments
An amendment is a proposed alteration or alternative to the motion currently proposed.

Voting
Voting may be carried out by:
- A secret ballot
- Show of hands
- Voice – “ayes” and “nays”

The chairperson reads the motion and then says: “All those in favour say aye” or “All those in favour raise your right hand”. A secret ballot is used for sensitive issues and/or issues of conscience.

Results of a vote should be recorded in the minutes. If the vote is unanimous it should be noted. If the vote is close then the numbers for and against are often recorded in the minutes. In other cases motions are simply recorded as “carried” or “lost”.

The chairperson does not normally vote on motions but he/she does have a casting vote when the vote on a motion is tied. The chairperson should use their casting vote to “maintain the status quo”. This means that if the vote is tied the chairperson should vote against the motion so that nothing is altered and the situation remains the same.

Powers and Duties of the Chairperson
The Chairperson is the leader of the formal meeting, and as such is responsible for the maintenance of order, the conduct of business, for ensuring that procedures adopted are correct – and for the whole tone of the meeting.

Some specific duties and responsibilities are:
- To control discussion to ensure that everyone is able to be heard and that no one dominates excessively
- To maintain order
- To maintain an atmosphere of positive communication
- To ensure that the meeting meets its objectives
• To make sure motions and amendments are in order, clear and unambiguous
• To conduct votes
• To give a casting vote when necessary
• To announce the results of votes

**Informal and Semi-formal Meetings**

Very few organisations run their meetings on strictly formal lines. Many organisations routinely use agendas and keep minutes of their meetings but are not formal in terms of the use of motions, seconding, amendments and voting procedures. Effective meetings are essential to the success of workplace teams.

**Meeting Behaviour**

Meetings involve people and so interpersonal factors play a significant role in the success of a meeting.

**Guidelines for Participants in a Discussion**

1. Arrive on time.
2. Research and consider the topic before the meeting.
3. Know what the purpose of the meeting is.
4. Communicate clearly and ensure your contributions are relevant.
5. Adopt and display a positive attitude to the leader, group members and the issue for discussion.
6. Work co-operatively with the group.
7. Allow everyone to contribute. Be courteous, considerate and patient.
8. Consider opposing points of view – don’t automatically reject views which don’t agree with yours.
9. Practice effective listening skills
10. Make sure your non-verbal communication is positive.

**Steps in planning a meeting**

**Initial plan**

• Establish the need for the meeting and its purpose.
• Establish clear objectives and communicate them.
• Who should attend? Those who can contribute essential information or who can make decisions.
• Participants should know:
  ❖ Purpose
  ❖ Location and time
  ❖ Desired outcomes
  ❖ Why they are required to attend
  ❖ Types of format and leadership styles
  ❖ Whether decisions will be reached and how they will be made

**Agenda**

• Topics to be covered
• Time allocated to each topic
• Who is responsible for presenting each item and the preparation required of each participant
• Purpose of each item and expected outcomes
• People concentrate better at the start of a meeting so place important items and those that require a creative response near the top.

**Venue**

Aim for a venue which is:
• Pleasant with sufficient (enough) space
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Ensure team effectiveness

- Light and airy to reduce drowsiness
- Upright comfortable chairs
- Refreshments in the middle of a long meeting
- Carefully check all equipment

Seating
- Problem solving – round or oval
- Structured decision making dominated by the chair – oblong

Minutes
- Minute taker should have time to prepare for the role
- Minute taker should be able to see all participants
- Record all discussion briefly, decisions made, who is responsible and completion dates
- Record attendees in the minutes

Leadership
- Introduce the topic clearly and the goals for the meeting
- Encourage motivation in participants
- Outline processes and procedures for the meeting
- Stop personal attacks
- Encourage permissive environment
- Encourage participation from quieter members
- Give positive feedback and encouragement
- Accept rational criticism of your leadership
- Seek clarification of vague statements and generalisations
- Control the discussion
- Attack problems not people
- Summarise/paraphrase each agenda item at its conclusion (decision, timeframe, person responsible)
- Sum up meeting at its conclusion
- Plan next meeting, date, time & venue

After the meeting all participants should review the minutes and complete their assignments and tasks before the next meeting.

Regular meetings are an important part of setting up and maintaining an effective team. They represent an effective way to communicate with stakeholders, to problem solve, to assign tasks and to monitor progress toward goals.

Review Questions – Chapter 3
1. What is a meeting?
2. List ten (10) possible reasons for holding a meeting.
3. List three differences between formal and informal meetings.
4. List the steps in planning an effective meeting
5. What is an agenda?
6. What are the minutes of a meeting?
7. List three (3) ways to take a vote at a meeting.
8. List five (5) duties of a chairperson at a meeting.
9. List the steps in planning an effective meeting.
10. Explain how regular meetings can help teams to be more effective.
Chapter 4 - Assertive behaviour, conflict and negotiation

Welcome to this section on assertive behaviour, dealing with conflict and negotiation. At the end of this section a reader should be able to:

- Explain the difference between assertive, passive (non-assertive) and aggressive behaviour.
- Identify some situations in which you’d like to be assertive.
- Recognise the importance of active listening skills, non-verbal communication and problem solving skills in practising assertive behaviour.
- Recognise some assertive skills for dealing with anger, conflict and problems.
- Understanding how conflict develops
- Developing strategies to minimise the effects of conflict
- Define negotiation
- Recognise and describe the benefits of the win/win process
- Recognising the importance of effective negotiation skills in business and in relation to team effectiveness

Terms used in this chapter:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation</td>
<td>giving in to the other side</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aggression</td>
<td>attacking and fighting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aggressive</td>
<td>forcefully pursuing own goals without considering the feelings and rights of others. Being willing to hurt others to gain goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assertive</td>
<td>confidently and honestly expressing your ideas while respecting the rights of others, assured behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoidance</td>
<td>escaping, not discussing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Common ground</td>
<td>something that can be agreed on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compromise</td>
<td>give and take, making concession, finding the middle path</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict</td>
<td>a response to difference where we feel our needs are threatened</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confrontation</td>
<td>open disagreement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lose/Lose</td>
<td>both parties feel that they have lost as a result of their negotiation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lose/Win</td>
<td>one person feels that they have won and the other feels they have lost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negotiation</td>
<td>is a way of resolving conflict</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passive or non-assertive</td>
<td>submissiveness, giving in to others wishes; not expressing ideas openly and honestly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary stakeholders</td>
<td>are the people directly involved in the conflict,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rapport</td>
<td>understanding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resolution</td>
<td>satisfactory outcome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary stakeholders</td>
<td>are affected by the conflict but not directly involved in it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stakeholders</td>
<td>are the people involved in a conflict.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Submission</td>
<td>giving in to another person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trigger</td>
<td>starting point</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Win/Win</td>
<td>both parties in a negotiation are happy with the outcome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Win/Lose</td>
<td>one person feels that they have won and the other feels they have lost</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are three main styles of behaviour but the elements they have in common are power and control.

Assertive people try to gain control through reason and consensus and in a sense are willing to share power. Aggressive people try to seize power by forcing or threatening others to do what they want. Passive people try to gain a measure of control of situations by giving in to others so that they can maintain their goodwill and avoid conflict.
The Three Response Styles
Assertion lies on a continuum between non-assertion or passivity on one side and aggression on the other. These represent the three basic styles of interpersonal behaviour and the ability to distinguish between them is the first step toward increasing your assertiveness.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assertion</th>
<th>Non-Assertion/ Passivity</th>
<th>Aggression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Assertiveness**
What is assertiveness? Essentially, assertiveness is open, honest communication through which an individual clearly expresses their views while still respecting the rights of the person they are communicating with. Assertion involves standing up for personal rights and expressing thoughts, feelings and beliefs in direct, honest and appropriate ways which do not violate (go against) another person’s rights. The basic messages in assertion are; this is what I think, this is what I feel and this is how I see the situation.

Assertive behaviour involves respect. Two types of respect are involved in assertion:
- Respect for yourself, that is expressing your needs and rights
- Respect for the needs and rights of the other person
Many people find it difficult to say no to requests from others and assertive skills can be useful in these situations.

**Situations in which assertion may be helpful**
- Saying “no” to others.
- Meeting new people
- Asking for help
- Job interviews
- Buying goods and negotiating a favourable price
- Complaining about poor goods or services
- Asking for help or explanations from teachers and lecturers
- Offering ideas and suggestions
- Negotiating agreements regarding Occupational Health and Safety or environmental performance issues
- Giving and receiving compliments

**The three main barriers to assertiveness are:**
- Not believing in ones right to be assertive
- Anxiety/fear of the consequences of acting assertively
- Lack of assertive skills

**The Passive or Non-assertive style**
This style allows a person’s rights to be violated by another, to be “walked on”. This can occur in two ways:
- The person fails to be assertive when another person deliberately attempts to infringe (violate) their rights.
• If an individual does not express their needs and feelings clearly then other individuals may carry out inadvertent (unintentional) violations of their rights.

A person behaves passively or non-assertively when:
They let others push them around
Do not stand up for themselves
Do what they are told regardless of how they feel about the situation.

The advantage of being passive is that you rarely experience direct rejection and may be able to avoid conflict by agreeing with everyone. The disadvantage is that you are taken advantage of and you tend to feel angry, resentful and anxious.

Passive people often:
• Speak softly
• Avoid eye contact
• Avoid discussing important issues
• Agree with others regardless of their own feelings
• Hesitate to express their opinions and feelings
• Rate themselves below others
• Hurt themselves to avoid hurting or offending others

The passive individual often has low self-esteem and low self-confidence.

The Aggressive Style of Behaviour
Aggressive behaviour is a style of behaviour where a person stands up for their own rights in such a way that the rights of others are violated. Through this style others are often humiliated, dominated, threatened and put down so that the individual can achieve their aims. Aggressive behaviour leads people to directly attack others rather than focusing on their behaviour or ideas. Aggressive people rate themselves as more important than others and hurt others to avoid being hurt themselves.

Typical examples of aggressive behaviour are:
• Fighting
• Accusing
• Threatening
• Ignoring the feelings of others
• Interrupting others before they finish
• Speaking loudly and abusively
• Invading the personal space of others
• Prolonged, hostile staring
• Speaking for others
• Hostile gestures such as finger pointing and fist shaking

The advantage of this kind of behaviour is that people generally do not push the aggressive person around. The disadvantages of this style is that people do not like being around this individual.
Conflict

While conflict is part of everyday life, dealing with it is a skill that can be learned and improved with practice. Negotiation is a way of resolving conflicts. Conflict can have positive and creative outcomes if handled constructively. The Chinese symbol for conflict has two elements, threat and opportunity and this summarises what conflict offers us. Conflict offers us the chance to improve the current situation but if we handle the situation badly we risk making the situation much worse. There are various approaches to dealing with conflict and the chapter emphasises the development of communication skills, which allow the reader to deal with conflict constructively.

Exercise
Write down at least six common causes of conflict.

There is no simple definition of conflict. It can be described as interacting in a situation where we perceive (see) a threat to our own goals (on a personal or group level).
Conflict is based on difference and as such is unavoidable in day to day life. Conflict may result from individuals or groups having different goals, perceptions or values. Because it is unavoidable it is essential that we have some knowledge of how to deal with conflict. Conflict regarding environmental and occupational health and safety issues is common in organisations.

What causes conflict?
There are a number of common causes of conflict.
- mistakes and accidents
- misunderstood communication
- our values and the resulting judgements we make about others
- limited resources/opportunities
- stress
- change

Stages of conflict
Conflict commonly follows these stages, although resolution does not always occur.
The event/s which trigger conflict
The confrontation
The outcome (e.g. resolution)
Some conflicts remain trapped in the trigger to confrontation cycle and may never proceed to a resolution stage.

**Signs of Conflict**
The most obvious sign of conflict is a change in behaviour.
This may show itself as a change in social relationships, a change in body language, a change in work output and productivity, absenteeism or a change in general mood or behaviour.

**Exercise**
List some body language cues that may indicate individuals are involved in a conflict situation.

___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________

**Levels of Conflict**
Conflict exists at a number of different levels.

**Reasons why conflict may remain unresolved**
There are a number of reasons why a conflict may remain unresolved.

- Parties may be unwilling to resolve
- A satisfactory solution has not been found
- Negative feelings/emotions have not been dealt with
- The real cause has not been identified
- Ineffective/poor communication
- Gain for one or both parties in keeping the conflict going
- Lack of confidence and assertive skills
- Lack of resources
Positive Outcomes of Conflict
- When conflict allows us to “let off steam”
- When the issue is clearly identified
- When conflict leads to the possibility that solutions will be found
- When conflict causes change
- When the process of conflict resolution builds cooperation
- When conflict causes people to speak openly and genuinely
- When conflict results in misunderstandings being cleared up
- When identification of the problem allows people to focus on it
- When conflict stirs people into action
- When conflict results in people learning about themselves and others

Negative Outcomes of Conflict
- When rather than attempting to resolve the conflict, people turn to fighting
- When conflict becomes personalised
- When those involved invest most of their energies into the conflict
- When people form into opposing groups
- When the conflict destroys the morale of the people involved

Strategies to deal with conflict

Aggression/competition
When faced with conflict, individuals often respond by adopting a win/lose attitude and aggressively defending their position. The result is often an exchange which is hostile in nature and results in one participant feeling like a “loser” and the other a “winner”. This conflict handling style has the potential to damage relationships.

Accommodation
When faced with a conflict of interests some individuals will “give in”. The individual agrees to ‘lose’ and to let the other party ‘win’. This approach is co-operative and unassertive. An individual may behave in this way because they fear conflict itself, they fear being punished by the individual they disagree with, they fear damaging their relationship or for other reasons.
Avoidance
Some people avoid conflict, which is an unassertive approach. They may do this because conflict makes them uncomfortable or because they fear the consequences of disagreement. This approach means that the person who avoids loses and allows the other side to win.

Compromise
This approach to conflict involves “trading off” something to gain a concession from the other party you are in conflict with. Can be effective but the risk is that you may give up something that you value and thus feel that you have lost in the exchange. This can be an assertive technique or a passive technique.

Negotiation/Collaboration
This involves working together with the person you are in conflict with to try to get the most for each person so that both parties feel that they have had a win. This is a cooperative approach which involves, listening to the other party and explaining your perspective in order to gain a stable, long term outcome.

Assertiveness and conflict styles.
What is your conflict style?
Different people learn different styles of managing conflicts. Your style may be quite different from a friend’s style. The purpose of this exercise is to increase your awareness of your conflict style.
**Conflict questionnaire**

The following statements reflect common approaches to resolving conflict. Read each statement carefully. Then, using the scale given below, indicate how typical (the way you usually behave) the statement is of your behaviour in a conflict.

- 5 = very typical of the way I act in a conflict
- 4 = often typical of the way I act in a conflict
- 3 = sometimes typical of the way I act in a conflict
- 2 = seldom (rarely) typical of the way I act in a conflict
- 1 = never typical of the way I act in a conflict

Beside each question put the number (ranking) you give to each statement.

**Scoring Example**

*Flattery (saying nice thing about others) helps to get what you want*  
5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Your Ranking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Flattery (saying nice thing about others) helps to get what you want</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I like to talk problems through</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Being the strongest means you get what you want</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. You do something for me and I will do something for you</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The best way of handling conflicts is to avoid them</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. If someone treats me roughly I don’t react roughly</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. A decision should be made through knowledge, not by numbers of votes if it is to be correct</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. If you cannot make someone agree with you, force them to do as you want.</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Better to have half of something than nothing</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. If someone wants to fight avoid them</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Saying nice things helps to get what you want</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. You need to try and try to reach a fair answer to a problem</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. He who fights and runs away lives to fight another day</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. If you are fair to people there is no need to fight</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Nothing is important enough to fight over</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Always be nice to your enemies, even if they are wrong</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. You should keep working at a conflict until you find an answer</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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18. The strong always win

19. If you hurt me I will hurt you, that is fair

20. Avoid people who argue, they will make you sad

When you finish scoring the statements fill in the ranking you gave each statement in the table below. The numbers in the table represent statement numbers, place your score for that statement next to its number, and add up your scores for each column. The higher the total score for each conflict style column, the truer the style is for you. The lower your score, the less true the style is for you.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Turtle</th>
<th>Shark</th>
<th>Bear</th>
<th>Fox</th>
<th>Owl</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What type of animal are you?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Your score</th>
<th>The animal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Turtle</strong></td>
<td>Withdraws from conflict situations. Gives up personal goals and relationships. Agrees to lose.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Shark</strong></td>
<td>Tries to overpower opponents. Sees everything as a win/lose battle and always wants to be the winner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bear</strong></td>
<td>Wants to be accepted and liked by other people. Will give up personal goals to maintain relationships. Prepared to ‘lose’ and let others ‘win’.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fox</strong></td>
<td>Looks for a compromise. Looks for middle ground between people. Hopes everyone can win but if they can’t the fox will work hard to make sure that he doesn’t lose.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Owl or perhaps a monkey in China (a wise animal)</strong></td>
<td>Values own goals and relationships. Sees conflict as a problem to be solved so both parties can achieve goals and maintain relationships. Will work hard to reach an answer that will suit everyone. Aims for the win/win</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
What is negotiation?
Negotiation skills help you to resolve situations where what you want conflicts with what someone else wants. The aim of negotiation is to explore the situation to find a solution that is acceptable to both parties. Ideally, negotiation is a process whereby we make our goals clear to the person that we are dealing with, come to understand their goals and reach an agreement which represents a “win” for both parties. Negotiation therefore represents a constructive way in which to resolve conflict.

Choosing a Negotiating strategy
Win – Win
Win – Lose
Lose – Win
Lose – Lose

Results of Successful Negotiations
- Both sides feel a sense of accomplishment
- Both sides feel the other side cared
- Both sides feel the other side was fair
- Each side would deal again with the other
- Each side feels the other side will keep the bargain

Good Negotiators
- Know that both sides are under pressure and don’t feel intimidated
- Want to learn negotiating skills
- Understand negotiating skills
- Are willing to practise
- Want to create “Win/Win” negotiating situations

Steps in Conflict Management and Negotiation

1. **Before meeting**
   Acknowledge that there is a conflict and clearly identify the problem/issue. Research the issue so that you have all the relevant information. Know what you need/want out of the negotiation. Make sure that you have at least three options worked out:
   - Perfect solution (the best possible outcome for you)
   - Acceptable solution (a ‘good’ outcome)
   - The bottom line (the very least you could accept without ‘losing’)
   Keep an open mind.

2. **Contact the other party invite them to work with you on the conflict**
   Keep calm and pay attention to your timing and non-verbal communication. Arrange a meeting in an appropriate location.

3. **At the Meeting**
   Develop rapport and look for common ground and try to understand one another’s positions. Listen to the other person’s point of view and clearly and assertively express your perspective. Stick to the issues, give specific feedback, and use your listening and responding skills. Admit to and alter misconceptions. Make use of assertive “I Statements”. Define the problem clearly and simply in a way both parties can agree with. Look for common ground. Identify the factors which help sustain the problem. Search for and evaluate alternative solutions. Collaborate, trade-off and compromise if
necessary and then agree on the best win/win outcome and arrange all aspects of the solution’s implementation.

4. **After the negotiation.** Check back after an appropriate period of time to make sure your solution is working. Be prepared to renegotiate if necessary.

**Conflict Mapping**
A conflict map is a useful tool when planning for a negotiation. Stakeholders are the people involved in a conflict. Primary stakeholders are the people directly involved in the conflict; secondary stakeholders are affected by the conflict but not directly involved in it. An example, which may illustrate this, is that in a marriage breakdown the parents would be the primary stakeholders, the children would be secondary stakeholders. Mapping the needs and fears of the main stakeholders has a number of benefits:

- Makes you more objective about the situation
- Helps develop rapport for the other parties
- Helps you to predict what arguments the other party may raise in a negotiation
- Allows you to develop counter arguments
- Gives you insights into where compromise may be possible
- Gives you an “overview” of the situation

**Conflict Map**

**Sample 1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary Stakeholder</th>
<th>Primary Stakeholder</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Needs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fears</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Sample 2
Primary Stakeholders – those directly involved and affected
Secondary Stakeholders – those not directly involved in but affected by the conflict

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name:</th>
<th>Name:</th>
<th>Name:</th>
<th>Name:</th>
<th>Name:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary/Secondary</td>
<td>Primary/Secondary</td>
<td>Primary/Secondary</td>
<td>Primary/Secondary</td>
<td>Primary/Secondary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Needs</td>
<td>Needs</td>
<td>Needs</td>
<td>Needs</td>
<td>Needs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fears</td>
<td>Fears</td>
<td>Fears</td>
<td>Fears</td>
<td>Fears</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If the DVD *I'm Normal You're Weird: Understanding other Cultures* is available watch it in class and discuss some of the cultural differences and possible conflicts that may result from these.

**Case Study for discussion (optional)**

**Chinese Customs**
Lucy Liu, a Melbourne student comes from Beijing, China and has been in Australia for a few years. During her time in Australia she has noted a range of differences between Australian and Chinese culture especially in the way colour is used in Western and Eastern traditions. She wrote the following informative article, about Chinese weddings, gift-giving and greetings for her school magazine. Her article shows us how some misunderstandings can occur if both cultures do not have enough information about each other.

*East meets West - By Lucy Liu*

As the church bells ring the bride, who is dressed in a white dress like Cinderella, now exchanges rings and vows with her penguin-suited Mr Right-Guy, under the watchful eyes of surrounding families and friends, the priest and the ever-present
God. The bouquet is then thrown and, the recipient will be the next lucky girl to walk down the aisle. This is the traditional routine that many Westerners follow. Do you know that weddings take their course very differently in China? Red is the traditional colour for a Chinese wedding. It holds a special place in the Chinese mind because of its richness, and that vivid liveliness it brings. White, on the other hand, is associated with death by the Chinese. During a traditional wedding, the bride is dressed in red from head to toe and her face is covered by a red embroidered cloth. She is driven to the bridegroom’s house. In her future husband’s house, which is usually flooded by colourful noisy family members and friends, everyone bows to heaven and earth, parents and ancestors and each other, to witness that they are now united. After all the guests have gone after a cheerful celebration, the groom removes the bride’s veil in private, and their married life begins. But this is what used to happen in the olden days, when most marriages were arranged. Since the ‘80’s Chinese people have become interested in the Western way of getting married, although most of them don’t go to church or have a priest for the occasion. Now many Chinese people choose between a traditional and a Western wedding. Most people have a mixture of the two, which is to wear white and celebrate at the couple’s new home, or to wear red but without the red veil covering the face.

We interact with people from other cultures socially every day, and small cultural differences can bring misunderstandings. One simple example is gift giving. In the West when you receive a gift you are supposed to open it in front of the giver, thanking him or her at the time. The Chinese custom regarding gift giving and receiving is that you never open the gift in front of the giver, and you are supposed to thank him or her at the time as well as afterwards. Opening a gift in the presence of the giver suggests you are too eager to see what it is. You should not look too excited as it can embarrass the giver. To the Chinese, gift giving is interpreted as a prologue to asking the person for something; it is also a way of showing friendliness or saying thanks.

Greetings are shown differently in different countries. In the West, friends usually hug or kiss each other on the cheek as a way of saying ‘I’m glad to see you’. It is seen as a natural thing to do. On the contrary such an experience can be daunting to the Chinese people. Chinese people usually exchange friendly words and friendly smiles when they meet. There is little physical contact. (SAUNDERS:2000)

Questions
1. List three examples from the article of differences in cultural practice between China and Australia.
2. How could not understanding these differences lead to misunderstandings and possible communication breakdown?
Review Questions – Chapter 4
1. Define Passive, aggressive and assertive behaviour.
2. List five (5) situations in which assertion may be helpful.
3. List some possible non-verbal signs of conflict.
4. List five (5) reasons why conflict may remain unresolved.
5. List five (5) possible positive outcomes of conflict.
7. List five (5) possible behavioural approaches to conflict.
8. Define negotiation.
9. List the steps in negotiation.
10. What is a stakeholder?
Chapter 5 - Time management and goal setting
This chapter deals with:
- Defining time management
- Describing the time management process
- Common false ideas about time management
- Benefits of managing time well
- Procrastination
- Goal setting
- Prioritising
- Effective time management the successful student AND TEAM MEMBER

List of terms used in this chapter.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Audit</td>
<td>examine to check things are done to the required standard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Committed time</strong></td>
<td>time that must be spent and is already scheduled (timetabled)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>e.g. travel time, class time or time for a part-time job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delegate</td>
<td>handover a task and responsibility for it to another</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diary</td>
<td>detailed written record of how time is spent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goal</td>
<td>a target</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monitor</td>
<td>look at progress toward goal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prioritise</td>
<td>place in order of importance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procrastination</td>
<td>putting off what needs to be done now until a later time, often by doing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>something less important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schedule</td>
<td>timetable activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time management</td>
<td>systematic process for looking at how we spend our time and planning to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>use it effectively to meet goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To do list</td>
<td>list of tasks to be completed often listed in order of importance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Time is truly democratic!

"Everybody gets 24 hours a day. What you do with your 24 hours is up to you. You have all the time there is. There is no more"

Time is very precious and everyone gets an equal share of it but we use it very differently. We also look at time very differently. Societies and cultures have different attitudes toward time, some are rushed and punctual, and others are relaxed and take little notice of the clock.
What is time Management?

Time management is a process for understanding the way we use our time and identifying ways to improve our usage of time. It is a set of specific techniques for increasing our time effectiveness. It is an attitude we have to the way we live and the way we use our time.

All teams must manage their time effectively so that organisational goals are met and targets are reached.

Steps to becoming a more effective user of time:

All teams must work together to overcome time management problems. Teams must use time management strategies such as:

- Planning
- Goal setting
- Prioritising
- Making daily ‘to do’ lists
- Monitoring progress toward targets
- Using a diary to track your commitments
- Informed decision making
- Taking care of your health to avoid stress and burnout

Ways to take action

The key steps to take in time management involve planning, prioritising and goal setting.

Many teams are involved in projects that have specific start and end dates and targets that must be reached. Begin by listing the team’s major goals for the next few months - brainstorming is a good way to get started. As a team sit down together and write down all the things the team must achieve in any order you think of them without worrying about which is most important. Then ask, "What are the most important things for us to do?" Start prioritising these targets or goals. Now, go through the list and rate each goal as being "top" priority, "second" priority or "low" priority. We can't always do everything we'd like to do. However, we can guard against spending too much time on second or low priority activities. Then map the order of tasks on some type of timeline. A Gantt Chart is a commonly used device to map the timing of tasks in projects.

The illustration on the following page, taken from Wikipedia illustrates the processes of:

- Identifying tasks
- Categorising activities in terms of relationship to each other
- Then entering this information onto a Gantt Chart
Ensure team effectiveness

In the following example there are seven tasks, labeled A through G. Some tasks can be done concurrently (A and B) while others cannot be done until their predecessor task is complete (C cannot begin until A is complete). Additionally, each task has three time estimates: the optimistic time estimate (O), the most likely or normal time estimate (M), and the pessimistic time estimate (P). The expected time \( T_e \) is computed using the formula \( T_e = \frac{(O + 4M + P)}{6} \).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Predecessor</th>
<th>Time estimates</th>
<th>Expected time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Opt. (O)</td>
<td>Normal (M)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>B, C</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Once this step is complete, one can draw a Gantt chart or a network diagram.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>D</th>
<th>Task Name</th>
<th>Predecessors</th>
<th>Duration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Start</td>
<td></td>
<td>0 days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4 days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.33 days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.17 days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.33 days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>5, 4</td>
<td>5.17 days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.50 days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>g</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.17 days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Finish</td>
<td>7, 8</td>
<td>0 days</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A Gantt chart created using Microsoft Project (MSP). Note (1) the critical path is in red, (2) the slack is the black lines connected to non-critical activities, (3) since Saturday and Sunday are not work days and are thus excluded from the schedule, some bars on the Gantt chart are longer if they cut through a weekend.

Make lists

At a team meeting each week list what needs to be done in that week in order to reach your top priority goals. Rate each activity. It is very helpful to review your situation each week, giving a few minutes of serious thought to what actually needs to be done to achieve your goals and what goals are important. You will usually list many more activities than can possibly be done, so again rank the importance of each activity as "top," "second," and "low." This helps you decide what most needs to be done to reach your most important goals. This is a very useful activity for any work team to undertake on a regular basis.

Make a "To-Be-Done List" for every day

Follow your daily To-Be-Done List and reward yourself for your successes. Learn to make your daily schedule realistic. This means that you must schedule what needs to be done considering what you can actually hope to achieve in the time available. You must then actually carry out those tasks. You have to be flexible; new things will come up daily that require attention. The basic point is simple: work on your highest priority activities during most of your "free" time each day. Effective work teams must apply the same process to their activities to achieve success.

Benefits of time management

Effective time management will allow a team to:
Ensure team effectiveness

- Control time and tasks and not be controlled by them
- Be more organised, therefore more able to meet deadlines
- Be more productive

Procrastination
Procrastination is the tendency to ‘put off until tomorrow what we really should do today’. All of us have been guilty of procrastination at some time in our lives and procrastination is a very common cause of time wastage.

Common causes of procrastination
- Attempting too much
- Postponing the ‘difficult’
- Setting unrealistic deadlines
- Thinking you work better under pressure
- Lack of self-discipline
- Neglecting to monitor progress
- Fatigue or stress
- Inability to identify priorities
- Inability to make decisions

Daily Task List

- Important & Urgent (musts)
  A1
  A2
  A3
  A4

- Important (should)
  B1
  B2
  B3
  B4

- Routine (could)
  C1
  C2
  C3
  C4
Sample ‘To Do’ List
This list is time referenced and allows room for a lot of detail. Your list may be simpler than this and still be an effective tool in planning your time. This type of list is often used in a workplace to cover an employees working hours.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time &amp; Task</th>
<th>Completed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8:00am</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8:30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9:00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9:30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10:00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10:30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11:00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11:30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12:00 (noon)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:00pm</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2:00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2:30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3:00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3:30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4:00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4:30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5:00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTES

Date: …………..  Signed: ……………………………………Supervisor
10 steps to better time management

1. Develop a sense of personal time use
2. Identify long term goals
3. Make medium term plans
4. Plan the day (short term goals)
5. Don’t delay, take action
6. Prioritise your work
7. Make the best use of your time
8. Delegate (give tasks to others to complete) effectively
9. Make use of committed time (time that you cannot avoid spending). An example would be travelling on a bus everyday to get to university; you could use that time to catch up on some reading for your course
10. Look after your health

Goal setting
Setting goals is an essential part of team success. Before we can control our time usage we need to establish what needs to be done and setting goals is an important part of this process. We often start with our long term goals and work back from there to establish the steps necessary to achieve these ‘big picture’ aims.

Long term tends to refer to objectives that are measured in years
Medium term refers to objectives that are measured in months and weeks
Short term refers to objectives that are to be achieved in hours or days

Of course these distinctions are quite arbitrary and the time frames of the various parts of a goal tend to blur. Breaking tasks down into steps which need to be worked on and achieved sequentially is an important planning tool which helps to ensure goals are met effectively. A work team’s goals are established from the long term goals and then the medium and short term goals are then established from this ‘big picture view’. When setting goals try to write them down and ensure that they are ‘smart goals’.

What do we mean by ‘smart goals’?

S Specific Goals should be exact and definite
M Measurable Goals should be able to be quantified so that you are able to tell at what point they have been achieved.
A Achievable. When you set a goal it must be possible to meet that target. It would be wasted effort to work toward a goal that it was not possible to attain.
R Rational and relevant. The goals you work toward must make sense in terms of your position or that of your organisation. It is pointless to use effort on something that is not useful.
T Time referenced. You must set a time frame for your goals so that things
don’t simply ‘drift’ along. A target date for completion is essential to keep your efforts ‘on track’.

Goals can be modified or altered due to changing circumstances. These changed circumstances are often referred to as contingencies. If the situation alters due to illness, equipment breakdown, a strike, natural disaster or terrorist act for example we will need to alter our goal to meet the changed situation. Goals should be set based on the current situation and they should be smart. Successful teams set SMART goals, review them regularly and know how to deal with the unexpected (contingencies) if they arise.

Setting smart goals takes practice but setting clear goals and target is essential to individual and team success.
Review Questions – Chapter 5
1. How can you audit the ways in which you use time?
2. What is a ‘To-Do List’?
3. What does it mean to prioritise?
4. List five (3) benefits of time management.
5. What is procrastination?
6. List eight (8) common causes of procrastination.
7. List the ten (10) steps to better time management.
8. When we refer to SMART goals what do the letters stand for?
   - S
   - M
   - A
   - R
   - T
Chapter 6– Motivation and management
Welcome to this section on motivation and management. At the end of this section a reader should be able to:

- Define motivation
- Identify some strategies for motivating staff
- Explain the role of individual differences in motivation
- Briefly outline at least three motivation theories

Terms used in this chapter:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>Accomplishment or success</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affiliation</td>
<td>Association, relationship attachment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morale</td>
<td>Self confidence, level of happiness, level of good feeling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>Driving force, incentive, inspiration and desire to reach a goal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Needs</td>
<td>Requirements, desires, wishes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power</td>
<td>Authority, control, supremacy, force</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>Happiness with outcome</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The study of management and motivation has been a focus in industrialised societies for more than a century. These concepts are closely linked to the success of workplace teams.

Motivation

Motivation is the willingness to exert high levels of effort towards the achievement of an objective because the objective has the ability to satisfy some individual need. Expressed more simply, this means that motivation is an internal drive or desire to do something because it satisfies a need or desire in the person. You cannot motivate a person but you can try to create an environment in which a person is likely to become motivated. Motivation is a key factor in team success. Consider the question of what motivates you. What things do you enjoy? What makes you want to work hard to achieve a goal?

Job satisfaction

The link between motivation and job satisfaction is a strong one. Motivation is seen as a means of achieving job satisfaction - job satisfaction is a goal of motivation. A motivated worker is more likely to achieve job satisfaction:

A full summary of the evolution of modern management theory is contained in appendix 1 at the end of these notes.

Functional Models of Motivation

Followers of the "scientific management" school believed that there is one best way to do each job, and that employees should be trained to perform in that best way. Workers were trained to do repetitive tasks very efficiently: with few errors, and quickly.

Work was treated in purely mechanical terms and took no account of the 'human element'. People were treated as if they were machines and their actions were 'adjusted' so that tasks could be performed in the least possible time. They had little opportunity to participate in decision-making or planning, and little variety in their
work from one day to the next. Motivation was more or less a non-issue, and restricted to wages and other rewards.

Human Relations Models of Motivation

During the 1920s, researchers found that repetitive, boring jobs reduced worker motivation. They suggested that both motivation and performance improve if employees are consulted and involved in planning and decision-making, and where friendships and social intervention are encouraged at work.

Evidence that motivation and performance improve when managers pay more attention to human relations came from a second series of experiments carried out at the Western Electric Company in the US in the 1930s. These studies, known as the Hawthorne Studies, were designed to see how production might be affected by variations in the level of lighting in the work area and the pattern of the working day. The results were unexpected and surprising; productivity increased in the group regardless of whether the working conditions were made better or worse.

Up to this time, employers in industry had generally believed that workers were motivated solely by pay. As well as destroying this myth, the Hawthorne Studies also revealed other unsuspected characteristics of working groups:

- Unofficial group leaders
- Unofficial work practices
- Worker conformity because of their own codes of practice rather than at management's insistence

Human Resources Models of Motivation

The Hawthorne Studies demonstrated that workers were motivated not out of a sense of coercion (force) and 'carrot and stick' techniques, but from a sense of involvement and participation in the work activity. Once this breakthrough was made, the study of motivation became an important element in management technique and ranges of theories were advanced to explain motivation in psychological terms.

The new models, known as the human resources models, were based on the assumption that work is not necessarily unpleasant, and that people can and do enjoy it in the right circumstances.

Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs

Abraham Maslow, a behavioural psychologist, developed a two-stage theory of motivation based on human needs. Maslow believed that the lower needs (basic
needs) in the hierarchy had to be partially satisfied before the higher needs (growth needs) became activated.
The basic needs are physiological (food, water and air) and safety (order, shelter and security).
The growth needs are social (friends, social acceptance), ego (self-esteem, respect, recognition) and self-actualisation (becoming the person you are capable of becoming).
Maslow based his hierarchy on the principle that people are 'wanting' animals' - and that their needs will depend on what they have already. He believed that only unsatisfied needs could change human behaviour and thus act as motivating influences. It was assumed that if a need was not satisfied, the person would concentrate on satisfying that need, and until achieved, would be unable to move onto higher needs.

A rigid interpretation of Maslow's theory would be that if someone was thirsty or starving, it would not be possible for that person to appreciate friendship or be concerned about their self-esteem until their thirst was first quenched. The pinnacle for Maslow was 'self-actualisation' which he believed required an ability to perceive reality correctly.

**Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs**
Frederick Herzberg’s Motivation-Hygiene Theory

In the late 1950s, Frederick Herzberg surveyed 203 accountants and engineers as to what events at work led to either a marked improvement or significant reduction in their job satisfaction. From this research, he developed a two-factor theory of work motivation which (like Maslow) had lower and higher levels of needs that were classified as hygienes (lower level dissatisfiers) and motivators (higher level satisfiers).

Focused on the work environment, Herzberg’s theory argued that individuals started reviewing their jobs from a neutral point and, depending on what occurred in the workplace, their attitudes moved in a positive or negative direction. Hygiene factors - working conditions, salary, company, policy/rules, and interpersonal relations. Motivators achievement, recognition, responsibility, challenge. Herzberg theorised that unless the hygiene factors were adequate, then dissatisfaction and demotivation at work would result. As lower level needs were satisfied, attempting to motivate by adding additional hygiene factors would become both inefficient and quite possible counter-productive. On the other hand, he argued that the higher-level motivators increased job satisfaction beyond the neutral point and for many people these became the reasons that kept them with a particular employer.

A rigid view of Herzberg's theory would claim that in the short term, the hygiene factors are most important to new employees -an excellent salary and a good position act as the incentives to join an organisation. However, while a suitable working environment and a fair supervisor may keep newcomers in the job for a period of time, eventually many of these people will look elsewhere if they do not see the organisation providing them with the motivating factors they desire -such as additional training, chances of promotion, greater responsibility, or increased recognition.
McGregor’s Theory X and Theory Y

Douglas McGregor developed another theory, which has influenced management practices regarding motivation. McGregor’s approach to understanding human behaviour at work derives from his observations of two contrasting attitudes of managers towards staff.

Theory X

This theory is based on the view that workers essentially dislike having to work. It embraces four propositions:

1. Employees dislike work and, given the chance, will avoid it whenever possible.
2. Because employees dislike work they have to be controlled, coerced and sometimes threatened with force in order for goals to be achieved.
3. Employees will avoid responsibility and independent action whenever possible and require formal direction.
4. Employees are mainly concerned with security and are unlikely to display ambition.

Clearly, this theory is based on a very negative view of human nature. When applied it leads to a rigid, authoritarian and disciplined approach to management.

Theory Y

This theory is much more positive and is based on the view that employees will bring to work the same energy and motivation that they do to their personal interests. This theory embodies the following propositions:

1. Employees view work as being an essential part of their lives and as natural as rest or recreation.
2. Employees will exercise self-direction and self-control when they are committed to objectives.
3. Employees can learn to accept and seek responsibility.
4. Employees can make creative and innovative contributions to work.

This theory is based on a much more positive view of human nature. When applied it leads to a more open approach to management where employees are given a greater sense of responsibility and encouraged to participate in decision-making.

Although no conclusive research was ever carried out McGregor’s theories contributed significantly to the debate in the 1960s about what degree of authority management should exercise and how much it could or should be delegated.
Note the arrows in this diagram represent the direction of power, authority and communication within an organisation.

**Three needs theory**
David McClelland proposed that there are three needs, achievement, power and affiliation (friendships and relationships), which are important for understanding motivation in organisational settings.

1. **Need for Achievement** - the drive to excel, to achieve in relation to a set of standards, to strive to succeed.
   - striving for personal achievement rather than the rewards of success
   - differentiate themselves from others by their desire to do things better
   - need rapid feedback on their performance so they can tell whether they are improving or not
   - dislike succeeding by chance and prefer the challenge of working at a problem and accepting personal responsibility

2. **Need of Power** - the need to make others behave in a way that they would not have behaved otherwise.
   - desire to have impact, be influential and control others
   - prefer competitive and status-oriented situations
   - tend to be more interested in prestige and gaining influence over others, than with effective performance

3. **Need for Affiliation** - the desire for friendly and close interpersonal relationships.
   - desire to be liked and accepted by others
   - strive for friendship
   - prefer co-operative situations rather than competitive ones
   - desire relationships involving a high degree of mutual understanding
Motivation Theories in Summary

Theory X and Theory Y

Theory X is basically a negative view of human nature, assuming that employees dislike work, are lazy, seek to avoid responsibility, and must be coerced to perform. Theory Y is basically positive, assuming that employees are creative, seek responsibility, and can exercise self-direction.

Goal-Setting Theory

Goals motivate employees by providing specific and challenging benchmarks to guide and stimulate performance.

Reinforcement Theory

Reinforcement Theory argues that behaviour is externally caused. What controls behaviour are reinforcers, consequences that, when immediately following a response, increase the probability that the behaviour will be repeated i.e. behaviour is a function of its consequences.

Equity Theory

In Equity Theory, individuals compare their job's inputs-outcomes ration to those of relevant others. If they perceive that they are under-rewarded, their work motivation declines. When individuals perceive that they are over rewarded, they are often motivated to work harder in order to justify their pay.

Expectancy Theory

The expectancy theory states that an individual tends to act in a certain way based on the expectation that the act will be followed by a given outcome and on the attractiveness of that outcome to the individual.

These theories are summarised in the table located in Appendix 1 of these notes.

How are staffs motivated?

A manager or team leader can create the right conditions for staff to be motivated more effectively and should consider the importance and limitations of money as a motivator.

Personal goals must be identified. They may include:

- A need to feel a sense of achievement
- Recognition/or good work"
- Advancement and promotion
- Participation in decision making
- Increased responsibility
- Freedom to plan and organise own work
- Challenge and personal growth
Suggestions for Creating an Environment in which Staff feel Motivated

- Recognise individual differences
- Be flexible
- Different things motivate different people
- Use goals - SMART ones!
- Ensure goals are seen as attainable
- Employees must be capable of doing the job

Individualise rewards

- Pay
- Promotion
- Autonomy
- The opportunity to participate in decision-making
- Social interaction
- Link rewards to performance
- Link rewards to goal attainment
- Increase the visibility of rewards, publicise bonuses etc.

Check the system for equity (fairness)
Rewards should be seen as equal to inputs/effort

Don't ignore money!
It works for many people and it is one very important motivating factor. However, don’t assume that money is the most important or only factor in motivation.

Coaching and mentoring for Improved Performance
Coaching and mentoring are complementary (processes that support each other). Team leaders need coach and mentor staff to increase skills abilities and knowledge. The whole organisation will benefit from successful coaching and mentoring.

Eleven characteristics of successful coaches

1. They are interested in their people and their needs.
2. They have well developed communication skills.
3. They are clear on job roles and accountabilities.
4. They show confidence in their staff, but expect it to be justified.
5. They recognise and reward good performers.
6. They know the interests, desires and capabilities of their people.
7. They work with facts.
8. They look for potential.
9. They are able to inspire and communicate a shared vision.
10. They do not do their staff’s thinking for them.
11. They are prepared to confront under performance or inefficiency.
What motivates you?

Complete the questionnaire below to see what is revealed about your motivation. Circle the number that most closely agrees with how you feel. Consider your answers in the context of your current job or past work experience.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I try very hard to improve on my past performance at work</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I enjoy competition and winning.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I often find myself talking to those around me about non-work matters.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I enjoy a difficult challenge</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I enjoy being in charge</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I want to be liked by others</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I want to know how I am progressing as I complete tasks.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I confront people who do things I disagree with.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I tend to build close relationships with colleagues</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I enjoy setting and achieving realistic goals</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I enjoy influencing other people to get my way</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I enjoy belonging to groups and organisations</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. I enjoy the satisfaction of completing a difficult task</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. I often work to gain more control over the events around me</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. I enjoy working with others more than working alone</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


What Motivates You?

To determine your dominant needs - and what motivates you - place the number 1 through 5 that represents your score for each statement next to the number for that statement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Achievement</th>
<th>Power</th>
<th>Affiliation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Statement number</td>
<td>Your score</td>
<td>Statement number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Add up the total of each column. The sum of numbers in each column will be between 5 and 25 points. The column with the highest score tells you your dominant need.
Meeting needs

If our needs, desires and expectations are not met at work, we will become dissatisfied. Leaders need to be aware that different people have differing sets of needs and should strive, where possible, to meet them.

1. Learning and Growth
   - I need work that allows me to fully use my abilities, knowledge, skills and talents. I enjoy work that enables me to learn and continue learning (on the job) and contributes to my personal growth.

2. Self Esteem
   - I need to feel good about myself - that I am a success and not a failure.

3. Status
   - I need to have a definite standing or rank among associates and in the company, and for this to be outwardly obvious.

4. Relationships
   - I need to be accepted as an individual and to receive notice or attention.

5. Approval
   - I need others to express acceptance and liking for me.

6. Accomplishment and responsibility
   - I need to use my capacities to the fullest to achieve a sense of satisfaction from a job well done. I want to accept responsibility for my work.

ACTIVITY

Assume that you are a manager or supervisor in a large organisation. Enter beside each need how you would handle the meeting of that need in your workplace.

1. Learning and growth
   __________________________________________________________
   __________________________________________________________
   __________________________________________________________

2. Self Esteem
   __________________________________________________________
   __________________________________________________________
   __________________________________________________________
Motivation in real life situations

Read the backgrounds of the people described below and decide what you would do to help them become more motivated.

_Looking for Something More_
Joanne is the manager of a medium sized hotel. She is 41, unmarried and lives by herself. She has been manager for the last five years and earns about $90,000. She started in reception and has been with the hotel for 12 years. Lately, she has been feeling bored and that she really hasn't been doing much with her life. She has been thinking of asking you for a year's leave of absence to go on an around-the-world cruise.

_Doing it my Way_
John is a waiter in a busy inner-city restaurant. He is 27, unmarried and has been with the enterprise for two years. He has been disciplined twice for not following instructions - he always sees a better way. His base wage is $40,400 but he usually earns an extra $60 per week in tips. John sometimes thinks that if he had enough money he would open his own restaurant. On the other hand, he is a good waiter and can cruise along making enough money to be content without working too hard. You are John's manager. How would you handle him?

_Which Way to Go?_
Carol works in administration in the head office of a multi-national hotel chain. She is 26, married and has no children. Her present salary is $43,400. She is thinking of returning to school to do a degree in management because she feels she would be a good manager of one of the hotels. She has been having trouble in her relationship with her husband lately and so has some hesitancy in going back to school. She would need Tuesday afternoons off to do her chosen course as well as several evenings. Carol has asked your advice.
Incentives and rewards

Material Incentives - Extrinsic (external) Rewards

Traditionally, organisations have used material incentives such as salary, fringe benefits and vacations to motivate employees. These 'carrots' are directly controlled by the supervisor and dangled in front of employees as a reward for improving their work performance.

Psychological Incentives - Intrinsic (internal) Rewards

Self-satisfaction and pride in personal accomplishments are incentives and rewards that are controlled by the individual employees. People like to feel good about themselves and their jobs; they want to communicate with their bosses as adults and be treated with respect. Most of today's employees see these incentives and rewards as equally important - perhaps even more important - than material rewards.

ACTIVITY

On the following table, list some possible material and psychological incentives used by to motivate employees to improve and maintain their work performance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Material</th>
<th>Psychological</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>External</td>
<td>Internal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

How can we stimulate motivation in staff?

The strategies listed below are suggestions for creating an environment in which staff feel motivated. Don't forget to relate your discussion to motivating work teams.

Recognise individual differences

Almost every contemporary motivation theory recognises that all employees have different needs. Keep in mind that not everybody will be motivated by the same things and that in order to maximise motivation among today's diversified workforce, leaders need to think in terms of flexibility. Teams are often made up of very different people and team leaders must recognise these differences when they attempt to stimulate motivation in the team.
Use goals

Leaders should ensure that employees have challenging, specific goals and feedback on how well they are doing in pursuit of those goals. Should a manager assign the goals, or should employees participate in setting goals? The answer depends on the situation the team faces. If there is a tight deadline the team leader may need to set the goals and then try to gain the team's commitment to them. If there is more time available the team may set the goals together. This approach tends to gain more team commitment. If participation is inconsistent with the organisation's culture, use assigned goals. Ensure that goals are perceived as attainable. Regardless of whether goals are attainable, employees who see these goals as unattainable will reduce their effort. Managers or team leaders must ensure that employees are capable of doing the job. Failure has a negative and demotivating effect on a team.

Individualise rewards

Because employees have different needs, what acts as a reinforcer for one may not for another person. Managers should use their knowledge of employee differences to individualise the rewards over which they have control. Some of the more obvious rewards that managers allocate include pay, promotions, autonomy (independence) and the opportunity to participate in goal setting and decision-making.

Link rewards to performance

Managers need to make rewards conditional on performance. Key rewards such as pay increases and promotions should be given when employees reach their specific goals. Managers should also look for ways to increase the visibility of rewards. This may include publicising performance bonuses and allocating annual salary increases in a lump sum rather than spreading them out over the entire year. These are examples of actions that will make rewards more visible and potentially more motivating.

Check the system for equity

Employees should perceive (see) that rewards or outcomes are equal to the inputs or effort given. Individuals should not think that someone who is doing very similar work receives a greater reward.

Don't ignore money

It is easy to get so caught up in setting goals; creating interesting jobs and providing opportunities for participation that one can forget that money is a major reason why most people work. Thus the allocation of performance-based wage increases, bonuses and other pay incentives is important in determining employee motivation. This does not mean that managers or team leaders should focus only on money. However, if money is removed as an incentive, people are not going to show up for work.
Review Questions – Chapter 6

1. What is motivation?
2. What is job satisfaction? Is there a link between motivation and job satisfaction?
3. Why does employee motivation tend to improve when team members are involved in decision making?
4. Positive attention from team leaders tends to increase the motivation of team members. What is the name of the experiment carried out in the USA in the 1930's that first highlighted the relationship between management attention and motivation?
5. Label the following diagram of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs.

![Diagram of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs]

6. Describe the characteristics of a theory X view of the world.
7. Describe the characteristics of a theory Y view of the world.
8. Does money motivate everyone?
9. List 5 possible needs that staff have that relates to their level of motivation.
10. List 5 possible ways of stimulating motivation in staff.
11. What is the difference between an intrinsic reward and an extrinsic reward?
Chapter 7 – Leadership

Welcome to the chapter on leadership
This chapter will cover:

- The autocratic leadership style
- The democratic leadership style
- The laissez faire leadership style

List of Terms used in this chapter

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Autocratic leader</td>
<td>Has a domineering, oppressive, tyrannical and overbearing style. Wants to tell rather than to listen and expects unquestioning obedience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democratic leader</td>
<td>Prefers to work with others in a free and co-operative way. Likes to listen to the ideas of others and to discuss problems and possible solutions. Aims to achieve consensus where possible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laissez faire leader</td>
<td>Is a non-involved leader. Stands back and has little input into the activities of the team led. A leader in name only.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leader</td>
<td>Someone who can get others to willingly follow.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>Someone appointed to a position and given the authority to administer defined tasks</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What is leadership and how does it differ from management?

A leader is anyone who influences a group toward obtaining a particular result. An individual who is appointed to a leadership position has the right to command and enforce obedience because of the authority of his position. However, this person must have adequate personal attributes to match his authority. In other words having the position isn’t enough to guarantee that people will listen to you. To be effective a manager or team leader must be competent and be able to influence others. This means that a good manager must have leadership skills. Every organization needs leaders at every level. (Wikipedia, 02/02/09) Teams need effective leadership to succeed and this leadership my come from a formal leader or any member of the team who shows leadership potential.

However, a clear distinction between management and leadership may nevertheless prove useful. This would allow for a reciprocal relationship between leadership and management, implying that an effective manager should possess leadership skills, and an effective leader should demonstrate management skills. One clear distinction could provide the following definition:

- Management involves power by position.
- Leadership involves power by influence.

Warren Bennis (1989) explored the difference between managers and leaders and drew twelve distinctions between the two groups:

- Managers administer, leaders innovate
- Managers ask how and when, leaders ask what and why
- Managers focus on systems, leaders focus on people
- Managers do things right, leaders do the right things
- Managers maintain, leaders develop
- Managers rely on control, leaders inspire trust
Ensure team effectiveness

- Managers have a short-term perspective, leaders have a longer-term perspective
- Managers accept the status-quo, leaders challenge the status-quo
- Managers have an eye on the bottom line, leaders have an eye on the horizon
- Managers imitate, leaders originate
- Managers emulate the classic good soldier, leaders are their own person
- Managers copy, leaders show originality

Paul Birch (1999) also sees a distinction between leadership and management. He observed that, as a broad generalization, managers concerned themselves with tasks while leaders concerned themselves with people. Birch does not suggest that leaders do not focus on "the task." Indeed, the things that characterise a great leader include the fact that they achieve. Effective leaders create and sustain competitive advantage through the attainment of cost leadership, revenue leadership, time leadership, and market value leadership. Managers typically follow and realize a leader's vision. The difference lies in the leader realising that the achievement of the task comes about through the goodwill and support of others (influence), while the manager may not.

In contrast to individual leadership, some organizations have adopted group leadership. In this situation, more than one person provides direction to the group as a whole. Some organizations have taken this approach in hopes of increasing creativity, reducing costs, or downsizing.

A common example of group leadership involves cross-functional teams. A team of people with diverse skills and from all parts of an organization assembles to lead a project. A team structure can involve sharing power equally on all issues, but more commonly uses rotating leadership. The team member(s) best able to handle any given phase of the project become(s) the temporary leader(s). According to Ogbonnia (2007), "effective leadership is the ability to successfully integrate and maximize available resources within the internal and external environment for the attainment of organizational or societal goals". Ogbonnia defines an effective leader "as an individual with the capacity to consistently succeed in a given condition and be recognized as meeting the expectations of an organization or society."

**Styles of leadership**

A definition of three different leadership styles was provided by Lewin, Lippitt, and White in 1938 (Money-zine.com: February 2, 2009)

**Autocratic Leadership Style**

The autocratic leadership style is sometimes referred to as the directive leadership style.

- Work methods that are dictated by the autocratic leader
- Limited employee participation in most aspects of work
- Unilateral decision making by the leader
Democratic Leadership Style

The democratic leader gives followers a vote in nearly every decision the team makes. The process involved with being a democratic leader is very time consuming because decisions are nearly always made together.

The democratic leadership style is able to quickly build flexibility and responsibility and can help identify new ways to do things. This leadership style is best used when the followers are knowledgeable about the organization's process and change is needed. For example, this style is used when the leader needs to introduce fresh ideas into the organization to help with an old process.

Laissez Faire Leadership Style

The laissez faire style is sometimes described as a "hands off" leadership style because the leader provides little or no direction to the followers.

The characteristics of the laissez faire style

- Allows followers to have complete freedom to make decisions concerning the completion of their work or ask questions of the leader
- The leader provides the followers with the materials they need to accomplish their goals and answers questions to the follower’s questions

The leadership continuum

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leader centred</th>
<th>Group centred</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Use of authority by leader</td>
<td>Area of freedom of the group</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Leader decides & announces decision | Leader decides & announces decision | Announces decision, permits questions | Presents tentative decision group | Presents problem for ideas, decides | Presents problem and boundaries. The group decides | Gives group as much freedom as he has to define problem and decide
Gene study finds the born leader

The Telegraph - London, Wednesday

Shakespeare was right: some people are born great, according to new scientific research that suggests the existence of leadership genes.

The number of famous political dynasties has long hinted at the possibility of genes for leadership. Now results from the first study on whether leaders are born or made show a powerful genetic influence.

Psychologists compared the results of personality tests on identical twins, who share the same genetic blueprint, and ordinary twins. Of almost 250 pairs of twins, identical twins were more likely to achieve similar scores for leadership traits, such as charisma and the ability to inspire others.

They also found the genetic influence was surprisingly strong, with more than half of differences in leadership ability linked to genetics, compared with a genetic influence of 40 percent for other personality traits.

“Most of the leadership dimensions examined in this study are heritable” said Professor Andrew Johnson of the University of Western Ontario, Canada, who led the study. He said the results showed a strong genetic link with “transformational” leadership, where people persuaded others to follow them by inspiring them to put aside their interests for the sake of others.

Optional Group activity – Group discussion and decision making

The scenario

A cruise ship The Andaman Explorer is wrecked off the coast of New Guinea. Apparently only 5 of the 150 people aboard have survived the wreck. The ship has run aground on the island of Wokkeo. The hulk of the ship is partially submerged on a reef 5 km offshore from the island. The island of Wokkeo is roughly oval in shape, being 25 km long and 6 km wide. The five survivors have come ashore on the South side of the island. There is a small mountain in the middle of the island. A native tribe, The Wokkeo, live predominantly on the Northern side. On the South side of the mountain, drums can be heard from the North and smoke can be seen.

Various options present themselves for the survivors:

1. They can make contact with the natives and attempt to get help in leaving the island.
2. They can avoid the natives, attempting to be self-sufficient until help arrives (if it arrives).
3. They can build a boat and try to sail to New Guinea 170 km away.
The survivors

Kevin Barnes, 55, a Victorian policeman is a quiet and determined man. He tends to be a man of action rather than words and is physically fit although at the moment he has a broken leg as a result of the shipwreck. Has worked as a trainer for the police force in bush survival courses.

Bob Rodgers is 24 of slight build, has an aggressive and unpleasant personality and generally poor social skills. He has managed to salvage some canned food from the shipwreck and a hunting knife. He has buried these items in a location known only to himself. He is a builder by trade. Bob’s hobby is martial arts (Karate) but he is actually not very good at this.

Isabella Connors is 29 and a lawyer with a Melbourne legal firm. She is strikingly beautiful, articulate, clever and quite charismatic. She is an expert in company law and has also done volunteer legal work for Legal Aid in Fitzroy, Melbourne. She has regularly appeared on morning television as a legal expert. Isabella’s hobby is sailing, she is physically fit and has been a crew member in the Sydney to Hobart yacht race.

Dr Nigel Woodford 43 is a medical doctor and his area of specialisation is Paediatrics (children’s medicine) although he has worked as a General Practitioner (GP) and in the casualty department of a major Melbourne hospital. He is a small man, shy and has a stutter. Uncomfortable in social situations he is happiest on his hobby farm outside Melbourne where he raises livestock, grows organic produce and has an interest in self sufficiency.

Professor Sheila Campbell, 62, is a lecturer in Sociology and Anthropology at Melbourne University. She is an expert in the tribal groups of New Guinea although she has not directly studied the Wokkeo Tribe. She remembers the Wokkeo are patriarchal (follow the male line) but do pay special respect to grandmothers. Unfortunately she cannot remember if the Wokkeo tribe were traditionally cannibalistic and warlike. She is a generally a pleasant and charming woman but can have a sharp tongue and be sarcastic if annoyed.

Types of Power

Positional power
Some people have power from the position they hold. Police and judges fit into this category.

Reward power
Some people have power because of their ability to reward others. Rewards may be material goods, favours or services.

Coercion or punishment power – the ability to hurt
Some people have power because they have the ability to punish those who don’t follow them. This punishment may be physical, psychological or may be the deprivation (taking away) of money, luxuries, freedoms etc.
BSBWOR502B
Ensure team effectiveness

Expertise power
Some people have power because they are experts in their field and this knowledge gives them power.

Charismatic or referent power
Some people have power because they have the mysterious X factor and people are attracted to them on a personal level. This power comes from personal attractiveness and/or charm.

Activity
Form groups of 3-5. Discuss the 3 survival strategies available to this group and the different sources/levels of power available to each individual dependent on whether they choose option 1, 2 or 3 (previous page). Fill in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Positional power</th>
<th>Coercion or punishment power</th>
<th>Reward power</th>
<th>Expertise power</th>
<th>Charismatic or referent power</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kevin Barnes</td>
<td></td>
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<td>Bob Rodgers</td>
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<td>Isabella Connors</td>
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<td>Dr Nigel Woodford</td>
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<tr>
<td>Professor Sheila Campbell</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Who are these people and what made/makes them leaders?
See appendix 4 for answer review questions – Chapter 7

1. What are the characteristics of an autocratic leader?
2. What are the characteristics of a democratic or participative leader?
3. What are the characteristics of a laissez faire leader?
4. Define a manager.
5. Define a leader.
6. What is the difference between a leader and a manager?
Chapter 8 Groups, teams & teamwork

Welcome to the chapter on groups, teams & teamwork. The role of this chapter is to provide readers with a framework through which to assess, build, and maintain an effective work team.

This chapter will cover:

- Identifying the differences between teams and groups
- Listing the benefits of working in a team
- Differentiating between the process, maintenance and task dimensions of a team.
- Identify steps to team building and give examples of the activities that would be undertaken in each step
- Identify strategies for dealing with conflict in teams
- The importance of the following to team building:
  - role functions
  - feedback
  - conflict
  - groupthink
  - openness
  - trust
  - feelings

List of Terms used in this chapter

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bludger</td>
<td>Slang term for an individual who avoids work and relies on the efforts of others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cohesive</td>
<td>Unified, integrated ‘stuck together’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>Assembly, collection, faction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Groupthink</td>
<td>Tendency for groups who become too cohesive to lose touch with reality because of excessive loyalty to the group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slacker</td>
<td>Idler, loafer, free loader. Relies on and uses others rather than completing work him/her self</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norm</td>
<td>Standard, average, model or customary behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social aggregates</td>
<td>Groups of people who belong to the same category but who may not know each other or have any actual direct contact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team</td>
<td>Side or squad. People who have a defined purpose and specified roles that are interdependent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teamwork</td>
<td>Co-operation, collaboration, joint effort</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Aggregates, groups and teams

Society is made up of people or individuals. These individuals can be categorized as belonging to a range of aggregates, groups or teams. The group or team is the mechanism that links the individual to organisations and to society at large (It consists of people who feel they belong together and are united in a common purpose). Groups can be small or large, official or unofficial, permanent or temporary, task-oriented or people-oriented (or both), strongly or weakly cohesive, effective or ineffective, and so on.

Membership of these structures will obviously overlap and we all belong to many groups – some very large and generalised and others that are quite small and specialised. It is sometimes difficult to distinguish between groups and teams.

What is a team and how is it different to a group or a category of people (a social aggregate)? Perhaps it is wise to begin at the ‘broadest’ level.
GROUPINGS WITHIN SOCIETY

Categories or social aggregates

Social aggregates are groups of people who belong to the same category but who may not know each other or have any actual direct contact. Examples of social aggregates or categories include:

- All people on the same salary
- All people of the same weight
- All electricians
- All Buddhists

List 5 social aggregates that you belong to. Remember list broad social aggregates, not small specific groups.

Exercise

Group and teams are not the same things although it can be difficult to distinguish clearly between them. Groups can come in all shapes and sizes, and include the following:

- Committees
- Families
• Sporting teams
• Supporters of sporting teams
• Criminal gangs
• Juries
• Musicians
• Fan clubs
• Members of a commune
• Combat units
• Problem solving teams
• Construction gangs
• Lynch mobs
• School classes
• Members of a teaching department
• Followers of a particular religion

Which of the groups above are simply groups and which may be considered as teams?

**What is the distinction between a group and a team?**

Groups tend to be larger, less focused on common, specific goals, and are often less defined and rigid in structure. Their membership is also usually less clearly defined. Students having a tea together in the canteen probably constitute a group. If one person leaves the area to go to class and two others join the gathering it will not usually affect the group dramatically. A class is also a group. People enroll in a course for many different reasons and may have quite different goals. Class members probably tend to form smaller sub-groups or clusters within the class based on friendship.

Teams on the other hand tend to be formed to achieve goals common to the members who are specific and clearly defined. Teams also tend to have a defined membership and specific roles and accountabilities are assigned to team members. The local soccer team is a team rather than a group. Players usually want to win matches (common goals), they follow set rules (structure), get a game based on their specific skills (assigned roles) and a finite number of players constitute the team each week.

**Exercise**

List 5 groups that you belong to and 5 teams (if possible)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Teams</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>*</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

When we examine, groups and teams, we might also consider leadership. Do all groups and teams need leaders, or can they do without them?
Groups and teams are often spoken of in organisations in recent years because of changes that have taken place in the workplace, including:

- A 'flattening' of organisational structures - a reduction in the number of decision-making levels in the hierarchy of organisations
- Increase in delegation of power and responsibility from top leaders to workgroup members - a move towards organisational democracy
- An increase in the complexity of decision making, so that in some circumstances individuals acting alone no longer have enough technical knowledge and skills to make decisions without the help of others.
- A focus on achieving quality through devices such as 'quality circles' that require a team based culture. Quality circles are small teams formed in the workplace to solve workplace problems and to look for 'opportunities for improvement'.

**Group membership**

Every individual is usually a member of many groups. For example, Peter is a member of at least three groups although he is the only person who is a member of all three groups shown.

![Venn diagram showing Peter's membership in three groups: Social club, Despatch department, and Management Team.]

**What are the benefits of and motivations for belonging to teams and groups?**

Why should people try to achieve aims or goals together with others? Why is the world not composed of lone individuals pursuing their own particular aims and goals? In other words, why do people join groups in the first place? Membership of groups and teams serve a variety of organisational and individual needs. People are social creatures and have from earliest times formed groups for a variety of purposes.
Security:

Belonging to a group may make us feel safer against external threats. There is safety in numbers. Being a member of a group may make us feel more secure in a hostile environment and therefore satisfy our security needs. United we stand, divided we fall is an old saying related to this in English.

Task complexity:

Belonging to a group may allow combinations of specialists to tackle tasks that, individually, they would not normally tackle. Primitive humans joined together in-groups or bands not only to satisfy security needs but also to handle task complexity. An individual might be able to trap a small animal or gather a small number of plants, but to trap a big animal or gather a large amount of plants required the coordinated efforts of a group. In modern work environments, groups are almost totally unavoidable - there are very few jobs that can be done by one isolated individual (for example, a lighthouse keeper) and even then, such an individual is dependent on a network of individuals and groups in the outside world to support the solitary role.

Social interaction:

Belonging to a group may help satisfy a need for human company as groups can also satisfy the social interaction needs of humans. For many people, work does not simply satisfy economic or survival needs, it provides a social aspect as well. It is for this reason that some people would not quit work tomorrow if, say, they won a large lottery prize tonight. They may not be passionately enthusiastic about the people they work with, but it is their work peers, and the physical environment where the work takes place, that provide a structure for interaction among people. Some people find that this structure gives a sense of meaning to their lives, and when it is taken away - on retirement, for example – it is such a stressful life change their health suffers as a result.
Exchange:

The exchange theory of group membership could best be summed by the expression ‘what's in it for me?’ In other words, exchange theorists argue that we all - consciously or unconsciously - weigh up the costs and benefits of being in a group. If a person decides that the costs involved in being in a group such as time, effort, putting up with others’ idiosyncrasies (strange habits), stress etc exceed the benefits such as companionship, economic gain, networking communication etc, then that person may well leave the group.

Group versus individual performance

The next issue to consider is who is better at getting things done - groups or individuals? It's clear that when many complex tasks have to be performed simultaneously (at the same time), then groups will perform better than individuals. When many complex tasks can be performed non-simultaneously (in a sequence, for example) groups may be more effective than individuals, but not necessarily. When tasks can be performed by individuals independently of others, the presence of others may still have an effect - often beneficial - on an individual's performance. Individuals can be motivated by the presence of others because of:

- The sheer stimulating effect of other people
- Self-presentation, or the desire to show others how good you are (which may take the form of competition).

Nevertheless, the presence of others is not always a blessing. We have all probably had the experience of doing something badly because others were watching. In fact, the presence of others makes good individual performance more likely only when tasks are familiar; if tasks are unfamiliar, the presence of others tends to lower performance.

Synergy and the ‘Slacker’

Synergy refers to the old, but true cliché that ‘a champion team is better than a team of champions’; the whole group's performance is greater than the sum of its individual parts.

A ‘slacker’ sometimes referred to as a ‘bludger’ is a group member who puts in less effort if he/she believes that their underperformance will not be noted - the phenomenon of one group member getting a 'free ride' while others do the work.

We use groups when we believe that two plus two will equal five - that is, when synergy occurs. This means that group productivity is greater than the sum of its parts. Two plus two however, sometimes might equal one, when synergy does not take place. Sometimes the group's performance is worse than that of the sum of its individual members' performance because:

- Conflict destroys effort
Ensure team effectiveness

- Members of a group try less as the group size grows
- Objectives are not clear to all
- Workers 'slack-off' as they feel they are not under individual scrutiny.
- The end product is not evaluated
- Task is easy, boring or the same as others'. Individual contributions not necessary
- No individual or group incentives

'Slacking' or a lack of personal responsibility can be overcome when group members become more accountable for actions, when the activities of the group become more interesting, and when group pride is present.

**Exercise - A Simulation Activity**

**Survival in Canada**

You and your companions have just survived the crash of a small plane. Both the pilot and co-pilot were killed in the crash. It is mid-January, and you are in Northern Canada. The daily temperature is 25 below zero, and the night time temperature is 40 below zero. There is snow on the ground, and the countryside is wooded with several creeks criss-crossing the area. The nearest town is 32 kilometres away. You are all dressed in city clothes appropriate for a business meeting. Your group of survivors managed to salvage the following items.

- A ball of steel wool
- A small axe
- A loaded .45-caliber pistol
- Can of Crisco (solid fat used for cooking)
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Newspapers (one per person)  Cigarette lighter (without fluid)

Extra shirt and pants for each survivor  20 x 20 ft. piece of heavy-duty canvas

A sectional plastic air map  One quart of 100-proof whiskey

A compass  Family-size chocolate bars (one per person)
This activity involves a number of steps.
Your first task is to rank the 12 items in order of importance for your survival. Do this as an individual without discussion with others in the group. Consider the uses for each item. Fill in your rankings in column one (Step 1) on the following table.

Form groups of 3 – 4 and develop a team ranking for these items. Consider the uses for each item. Aim to achieve consensus (full agreement) in your ranking. Fill in your rankings in column two (Step 2) on the following table.

As an individual work out the difference between step 1 and step 2. Don’t worry whether the difference is positive or negative just fill in the difference in column 3 (Step 3). Total this column and fill in the figure at the bottom of the column.

Fill the survival expert’s ranking in column 4 (Step 4) when it is read to you.

As an individual work out the difference between Sep 1 and Step 4. Don’t worry whether the difference is positive or negative just fill in the difference in column 5 (Step 5). Total this column and fill in the figure at the bottom of the column.

As a group work out the difference between step 2 and step 4. Don’t worry whether the difference is positive or negative just fill in the difference in column 6 (Step 6). Total this column and fill in the figure at the bottom of the column. You should all have the same result for this column.

A Simulation Activity Worksheet

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Step 1 Your Individual Ranking</th>
<th>Step 2 The Team's Ranking</th>
<th>Step 3 The difference between 1 &amp; 2</th>
<th>Step 4 Survival Expert's Ranking</th>
<th>Step 5 Difference between Step 1 &amp; Step 4</th>
<th>Step 6 Difference between Step 2 &amp; Step 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A ball of steel wool</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A small axe</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A loaded .45 calibre pistol</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can of Crisco shortening (solid cooking oil/fat)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newspapers (1 per person)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cigarette lighter (without fluid)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extra shirt &amp; Pants for each survivor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 x 6 metre</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Roles and norms
A group may be defined as people with shared norms and roles.

What is a role?

A role is an expected behaviour. An actor plays a role on stage or in of the camera, but we all play roles in our day-to-day lives. Roles can also be thought ways of thinking, perceiving and acting. As we are socialised into our society we learn a range of roles. We learn to be a son or daughter, a sibling, a grandchild, a friend, a student, a worker a lover, a partner, a parent, an employee an employer etc. All roles that we play place special requirements on us and sometimes we may experience ‘role conflict’ as the demands of the various roles we play are not compatible (well matched). Our friends’ desire for us to go out with them may conflict with our parents’ desire for us to help around the home and both these demands may conflict with our teachers’ desires for us to study our school work at home.

Types of Roles

Task roles are played by people when they are concerned solely with getting the job done. When we say that a particular person is adopting a particular task role, then we are considering this person and his or her work from a functional viewpoint. We are more concerned with the quality and the quantity of the output than we are with his or her feelings, values and perceptions.

People or maintenance roles are played by people when they are communicating feelings, values and opinions about the task, and about the world beyond the task.

Destructive roles or self-oriented roles are played by people when they - consciously or unconsciously - wish to sabotage (harm or damage) the efforts of the group.

Sometimes people play only one type of role in both work and personal situations. Sometimes people play quite different roles in work and personal situations. Effective groups show a healthy mix of task and maintenance role-playing, and a minimal amount of destructive role-playing. Effective groups understand that all roles have strengths and weaknesses, and that maximum synergy is created when the mix of strengths is brought to the fore and the mix of weaknesses is kept under control. Too
much emphasis on task roles may lead to an over-emphasis on facts, and not
enough weight given to opinion and feeling (which can be as important, and
sometimes more important, than facts). Too much emphasis on maintenance roles
may lead to a lack of emphasis on facts and not enough concern with producing real
outcomes from the group. There should be a good mix of roles played, otherwise too
many group members playing the one role may lead to a group having blind spots,
and thus making bad decisions.

**Activity**

Do people play more than one role in the same group? Do they play different roles in
different groups?

List 12 different roles that you currently play in life in the table below

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Informal Norms</th>
<th>Formal Norms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Workers often refer to each other by nicknames</td>
<td>Workers must observe safety regulations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some workers engage in practical jokes and horseplay.</td>
<td>Workers in this group have lunch in the cafeteria from 12.45 to 1.30 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workers in this group always sit at the one table and always drink three cups of coffee.</td>
<td>Workers have 4 weeks annual leave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff members are fare welled by a ‘pub lunch’</td>
<td>Working hours are 8:30 – 5:00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A moderate amount of private telephone usage is acceptable</td>
<td>Leave forms must be submitted for absences</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In work situations, formal norms are usually laid down by management and represent
the formal organisation (depicted on an organisation chart); whereas informal norms
are usual laid down by the group of non-management employees and represent the
informal organisation. The system of communication for the informal organisation is
known as the *grapevine*.

Rules, whether formal or informal, have to be enforced. Enforcement of formal norms
is straightforward, whereas enforcement of informal norms is usually more subtle.
Workgroups often have clearly defined informal norms, such as:
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- You don’t ‘dob’ (tell tales) on your friends
- A fair day’s work around here is x amount of output
- We trust each other a lot, and we can try out weird and wonderful ideas on the group without being laughed at
- We don’t express too much emotion when discussing things
- This group's output is higher than that of other groups and we like it like that.
- We don’t like working with women (men)

Such norms can be negative and punitive (punishing), or positive and rewarding. If anyone deviates from these norms, they may be punished by various group behavioural mechanisms, such as ostracism ('sent to Coventry', 'freeze out') or ridicule ('Workaholic' or 'Management Stooge') for overachievers. People who don’t conform to norms are referred to as deviants and all groups try to maintain conformity to their norms.

**Teambuilding**

Is it possible to help teams form and work effectively?

**What is teambuilding?**

Teambuilding is one of a range of activities aimed at improving an organisation's effectiveness. It can be defined as a systematic, long range approach to improving interpersonal relationships among those workers who are functionally interdependent.

Its ultimate purpose is to increase the effectiveness and efficiency of a team in pursuit of its personal and organisational objectives. Teambuilding centres on activities that are designed to enhance the operation of teams of people who work together to achieve a specific function or goal.

The goal of any teambuilding activity, whether concentrating on task or process issues, is to bring about an improvement and increased effectiveness of work teams.

**Characteristics of an effective team**

An effective team is one in which group members
- Truly listen to each other in order to understand and empathise, rather than to defend, explain or interact
- Speak openly, honestly and spontaneously about the ways, in which their interaction is or is not, fulfilling organisational objectives
- Deal with specific, task-related behaviours
- Openly inquire into the ways in which they might improve their work together as a team

**Characteristics of an ineffective team**

Similarly, it is clear that an ineffective team is one in which the members:
- Try to defend themselves against feedback by explaining, justifying, defending
- Use 'hurt feelings' as a defence against understanding
- Share information only as part of a 'strategy' i.e., say only what they think others want to hear and use information as a weapon to achieve hidden personal objectives
Ensure team effectiveness

- Are inappropriately competitive to one another, using their energy to demean or diminish one another, rather than to work towards common objectives

Characteristics of a healthy team

You are supervising a healthy team when its members can say:

**Mutual Trust**
I can state my views and differences openly without fear.

**Mutual Support**
I can get help from others on the team and give help to them without being concerned about roles.

**Communications**
I don’t have to be guarded and cautious about my communications because of mutual trust and support, I can say what I feel and how I am reacting. When I communicate, I know the rest of the team is listening and will work hard to understand me. I also listen to and try to understand other team members.

**Team Objectives**
No objective will be assumed by the team until it is clearly understood by all members.

**Conflict Resolution**
We accept conflict as necessary and desirable. We don’t suppress it, nor pretend it doesn’t exist; we work it through openly as a team.

**Utilisation of Member Resources**
My individual abilities, knowledge and experience are fully utilised by the team.

**Control Methods**
I accept the responsibility for keeping discussions relevant and focused on our goals.

**Organisational Environment**
We respect individual differences. We don’t push each other to conform to central ideas or ways of thinking. We work hard at keeping our team climate free, open and supportive of each other.

**Teambuilding, then, can result in the following benefits for your department and organisation:**

- A better understanding of each team member's role in the work group
- A better understanding of the team's character - its purpose and role in the total functioning of the organisation
- Increased communication among team members about issues that affect the efficiency of the group
- Greater support among group members
- A clear understanding of group process - the behaviours and dynamics of any group that works closely together
- More effective ways of working through problems
- The ability to use conflict in a positive, rather than a destructive way
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- Greater collaboration among the team members and the reduction of competition that is costly to individual, group and organisation
- A group's increased ability to work with other work groups within the organisation
- A sense of interdependence among group members

These result in a more cohesive, supportive and trusting group that will have high expectations for task accomplishment and will, at the same time, respect individual differences and values, personalities and skills. Successful teambuilding should nurture individual potential.

If these elements exist in your work team, you will be able to observe people actively co-operating with each other to achieve the goals of their organisation/department and deriving satisfaction from their efforts.

If this is not the case, you may wish to consider teambuilding as a means of bringing about this happy state of affairs.

Note, however, that not all working groups are teams. In order to qualify as a team there are four conditions that must be satisfied:

1. The group must have a charter or reason for working together
2. Members of the group must be interdependent - they need each other's experience ability and commitment in order to arrive at mutual goals
3. Group members must be committed to the idea that working together as a group leads to more effective decisions than working in isolation
4. The group must be accountable as a functioning unit within a larger organisational context.

The most obvious example of a team is a sporting team. The members have a purpose that gives him or her identity. Each player has a unique function that must be integrated with those of the other members. The players are aware and supportive of the need for interdependent interaction and the team usually operates within the framework of a larger organisation.

If these conditions are satisfied, there are three more factors that must be present before teambuilding can begin:

1. Individual members must be capable of achieving the goals of teambuilding
2. Individual members must have clearly defined and understood work and interpersonal goals (task and process). This allows the focus of teambuilding to be on achieving these goals and eliminating forces hindering goal achievement
3. Individual members must be willing to grow, to improve their effectiveness and to be committed to doing so

Although establishing teams frequently involves much hard work, the effort provides three important factors to group effectiveness: synergy, interdependence and a support base.
Synergy

Energy is to the individual what synergy is to groups. The synergy of a group is always potentially greater than the sum of the combined energies of its members. There is an old saying that a champion team will always beat a team of champions which sums up the concept of synergy.

Interdependence

Effective teams are made up of highly independent individuals who must combine their separate efforts in order to produce an organisational result. The focus of the team effort is on combining, rather than on co-ordinating, resources. Interdependence in today’s organisations is a simple reality. Most products and services are too complex, and their respective technologies too specialised, for any one individual to accomplish alone.

Support Base

The effective team has the potential to provide social and emotional support for its members, producing a more satisfying and work productive environment. Sometimes it is simply more fun to work with someone else than work alone.

How can a supervisor develop teamwork?

The supervisor is like the coach of a football team or the conductor of an orchestra, in that each member has a position or part to play but the important thing is how they play together. They improve their performance by practicing as a team, not as individuals.

Before undertaking a rather more formal approach, there are a number of things a supervisor can do. Ask yourself if you’re doing them!

- Are you aware of interpersonal relationships?
- Do you avoid putting people who dislike each other together and try to put friends together? (This may result in more talking and distractions but also in greater harmony and co-operation and thus higher productivity.)
- Do you provide help and attention to anyone who seems left out?
- Do you avoid setting up situations of extreme competition or where competing sub-groups can emerge?
- Do you try to keep the groups together and avoid excessive transfers?
- Do you rotate jobs within the group, to increase individual skills and strengthen identification with the group as a whole?
- Do you help group members to get to know each other?
- Do you employ group incentives where feasible?
- Do you look after new members and induct them fully into the group?
- Do you take steps to cause group members to identify with the team and its goals?
- Do you set or agree clear, specific objectives/targets?
- Do you ensure everyone knows how his particular job fits in?
Task and process dimensions of teams

We can now return to the earlier issue of task and process. We know that formal work groups are there to accomplish a task - maintain machinery, process invoices, prepare computer data, assemble televisions or whatever. How they accomplish their tasks is often a focus of teambuilding. This is the Task Dimension of a team.

Once people work in proximity, they will naturally form into groups – some informal, others formal (the official work team). It is the social organisation that binds the work team together, how members relate to one another, which is the Process Dimension (sometimes called the maintenance dimension).

One cannot exist without the other. It may help to relate this to a rectangle, which has two dimensions, one of height and the other of width. Height cannot be separated from width without destroying the rectangle itself. Although height and width may be observed and measured separately, they are nevertheless inseparable. The same holds true for the task and process/maintenance dimensions of teams.

Task roles (functions required in selecting and carrying out a group task)

- **Initiating Activity**: Proposing solutions, suggesting new ideas, new definitions of the problem, new attacks on the problem, or new organisation of material.

- **Seeking Information**: Asking for clarification of suggestions, requesting additional information or facts.

- **Seeking Opinions**: Looking for an expression of feeling about something from the members, seeking clarification of values, suggestions, or ideas.

- **Giving Information**: Offering facts or generalizations, relating one's own experience to the group problem.

- **Giving Opinions**: Stating an opinion or belief concerning a suggestion or one of several suggestions, particularly concerning its value rather than its factual basis.

- **Elaborating**: Clarifying or giving examples.

- **Co-ordinating**: Trying to pull ideas and suggestions together, trying to draw together activities of various sub-groups or members.

- **Summarising**: Pulling together related ideas or suggestions, restating suggestions after the group has discussed them.

Group building and process roles

These are functions required in strengthening and maintaining group life and activities.

**Encouraging**: Being friendly, warm, and responsive to others, praising others and their ideas, agreeing with and accepting contributions of others.
Gate keeping: Trying to make it possible for another member to make a contribution to the group by saying, “We haven’t heard anything from Jim yet,” or suggesting limited-talking time for everyone so that all will have a chance to be heard.

Standard setting: Expressing standards for the group to use in choosing its content or procedures or in evaluating its decisions, reminding group to avoid decisions which conflict with group standards.

Following: Going along with decisions of the group, thoughtfully accepting ideas of others, serving as audience during group discussion.

Expressing group feeling: Summarising what group feeling is sensed to be, describing reactions of the group to ideas or solutions.

Both group task and maintenance roles

Evaluating: Measuring progress against goals.

Diagnosing: Identifying sources of difficulties, and the main blocks to progress.

Testing for Consensus: Tentatively asking for group opinions in order to find out whether the group is nearing consensus on a decision.

Mediating: Harmonising, exploring differences in points of view, making compromise solutions.

Relieving Tension: Draining off negative feeling by joking or “pouring oil on troubled waters” (calming the situation).

From time to time, more often perhaps than anyone likes to admit, people behave in non-functional ways that do not help and sometimes actually harm the group and the work it is trying to do. Some of the more common types of such non-functional behaviours are described below.

Types of non-functional behaviour

Being Aggressive: Criticising or blaming others, showing hostility against the group or some individual, deflating the ego or status of others.

Blocking: Interfering with the progress of the group by going off on a tangent, citing personal experiences unrelated to the problem, arguing too much on a point, rejecting ideas without consideration.

Self-Confessing: Using the group as a sounding board, expressing personal, non-group-oriented feelings or points of view.

Competing: Vying with others to produce the best idea, talk the most, play the most roles, gain favour with the leader.

Seeking Sympathy: Trying to induce other group members to be sympathetic to one’s problems or misfortunes, and ignoring the group’s shared goals.
Ensure team effectiveness

**Special Pleading:** Introducing or supporting suggestions related to one’s own pet concerns or philosophies, lobbying.

**Horsing Around:** Clowning, joking, mimicking, and disrupting the work of the group.

**Seeking Recognition:** Attempting to call attention to one's self by loud or excessive talking, extreme ideas, and unusual behaviour.

**Withdrawal:** Acting as if indifferent or passive.

### Improving member roles

Any group is strengthened and enabled to work more efficiently if its members undertake self-training to improve their range of team skills.

### Activities

1. What are the strengths and weaknesses of task, maintenance and individual roles?
2. What is the ideal balance of task and maintenance roles?

### The feedback process

One basic objective involved in teambuilding is feedback. This concept was covered in chapter 2 and is very important in effective teams. Feedback is a term borrowed from engineering to refer to corrective information that is “fed back” from a given situation to a controlling mechanism, in order to maintain an optimal state in that situation. A heater thermostat is a familiar example of a feedback mechanism. Here, the concept is used to refer to information that members of a group receive from others regarding their impact on those others.

To be helpful, feedback should be specific, descriptive, focused on things that can be changed, and phrased in such a way as to enhance probability that it will be responded to constructively. Groups of individuals can be taught to give each other feedback in helpful ways.

A fundamental part of any teambuilding program is the session, in which team members gather together, without commitments or tight time constraints, to accomplish a number of aims related to group effectiveness. Among these:

**To share information** that can be used as the basis of corrective action to improve personal and organisational functioning.

**To create an atmosphere of enquiry** within which the participants can learn about the relationship between their own behaviour and achievement of organisational objectives.

**To discover how one's own behaviour aids or hinders** the task accomplishment of others.

**To clarify goals and objectives** being sought by the participants in their organisational behaviour.
Where is your team?

Teams progress through sequences of typical behaviours that are referred to as stages of development. These stages are predictable and, to some extent, controllable.

All models view a team in its initial stage as a collection of individuals, and in its ultimate stage as a cohesive group working together effectively. This model is useful in the teambuilding process to (a) help point out where teams are and indicate what needs to be corrected and (b) indicating where the team could best be heading.

5 stage theory
This model identifies five stages of a team's development:

**Forming** is a stage where team members are still a gathering of individuals. In the forming stage, they will begin to sort out issues such as purpose, objectives and leadership. Think of when you first arrived at your class. You probably felt some slight apprehension (butterflies in the stomach, perhaps); found yourself wondering what the group would be like, what the teacher would be like and so on. You may have wondered how to behave, how to address the teacher and how casually you should dress. You were probably also very conscious of the teacher, the formal leader of the group and watching him or her for clues to appropriate behaviour. During the first meeting of the class, you all probably discussed issues revolving around the question “Why are we here?”

**Storming** is the second stage of development. It is viewed as a conflict stage where aims and objectives, as well as issues of power, influence and other roles are examined and clarified. Leadership may be challenged and power struggles develop. In this stage, the team often appears to be “stuck” in some way, sometimes due to the conflict described above, sometimes due to the reverse - a crisis of energy, where team members seem to lack their earlier spark and enthusiasm; there may be a sense of apathy evident. There may be disagreements about what the group is to do and how to do it or a sense of hopelessness and a reluctance to really get “stuck into it”. All in all, this is time of disillusionment for group members. In Stage Two, the leader should not be upset by this but continue to show his confidence in the team.

**Norming** is the next stage, where norms and practices are established, both formally and informally. How the team should function, behaviour codes, decision-making process, levels of trust and openness, will all be clarified in the Norming stage. This results in a renewed sense of hope and in working more seriously. Process Issues often become more important as team members begin to see each other as individuals. Roles emerge in their patterns now that they have been resolved and clarified in Stage Two. Task functions are also important, as is the leader, to whom members continue to look for guidance and confirmation that things are progressing in the right direction although there will be less dependence on the leader than in Stage One.
Performing is the next stage, often "blurred into" by the Norming Stage. This stage requires the successful completion of the preceding three stages and is regarded as a "mature" stage, resulting in high productivity on the task side and high satisfaction on the process side. It is this stage that teambuilding is aimed at helping a team attain. The team is operating at high levels of efficiency in Stage Four. It directs most of its energy into attaining its goals. The leader is likely to be seen as a peer and resource person.

Adjourning is a final phase of team development, in which the team disbands. It applies to committees, special project teams, classes of further education and so on. Many work groups will never reach the adjourning stage. It is often marked by arranging to keep in touch through reunions and/or such activities as reminiscing and holding farewell get-togethers. It is met with mixed feelings: sadness at impending loss of the group and excitement about "setting off" and "going it alone".

5 Stages of group development in summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stages</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Forming</td>
<td>Getting to know you, ice-breaking stage</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group members attempt to identify what tasks they should be working on</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Members also begin to develop a sense of the group's independence</td>
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<tr>
<td>Storming</td>
<td>Socio-emotional responses to task demands come to the fore</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Conflicts over leadership, control and influence - 'who's in charge'</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Misunderstandings about role and style behaviour and norms, conflicting goals, poor feedback and listening, ineffective group decision-making and problem-solving processes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norming</td>
<td>Formal and informal norms emerge</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Cohesion begins to develop. Opinions are now stated more readily and are received in a less defensive manner</td>
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<tr>
<td>Performing</td>
<td>Formal and informal norms emerge</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Cohesion begins to develop</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Opinions are now stated more readily and are received in a less defensive manner</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Balance of rules (norms) and roles emerge</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Synergy develops via positive role-playing (optimal mix of task and maintenance roles, with destructive role-playing under control)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group begins to produce solutions to the problems it is focusing on</td>
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<tr>
<td>Adjourning</td>
<td>Group reaches closure on tasks</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Members may leave for a variety of reasons</td>
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</table>
What enables a team to move from one stage to another?

Leadership is an important factor. A leader's ability to listen, to empathise, to treat people as individuals while still looking after the needs of the group is important to teambuilding.

As well as the leader, the team members themselves are important. Group cohesiveness seems to depend on how well the group members can relate in the same stage or phase at the same time. A group will proceed through these five stages only as far as its members are willing to grow. Each member must be prepared to give up something at each step in order to make the move to the next stage.

Throwing a group of individuals together does not make them into a team any more than tossing a pile of bricks together makes them into a house. Building an effective team requires careful planning as well as active management. Here are some suggestions for creating teams who get the job done:

1. When choosing team members, consider each individual as a whole person.

It is vital to choose team members with the right range of skills for the project, but it is also necessary to choose people who are interested in the project and have the time to devote to it. As you consider potential team members, be sure to take into account the responsibilities each potential team member already has. Make sure that no one is getting unduly overloaded.

2. Make sure each team member understands his or her role.

You may know exactly why you chose each person for the team, but the employees cannot read your mind. Spell out exactly what you need each team member to do so that the team will not waste time delegating tasks or arguing over who should do what. When each person on the team understands his or her role, there will be less conflict and more productivity.

3. Designate one team member as your contact.

That person will report to you regarding the team's progress and come to you with any questions or concerns. Doing this will ensure that you will not have to hear the same information from multiple team members. Also, it will encourage team members to communicate with the contact person. This helps make sure that team members communicate with each other rather than working as individuals.

4. Be clear about the duration of the team.

Is this a work group that will continue to function for years to come, or is it a task force that will be dissolved when the project is complete? A team that will be together for the long haul needs to work on optimizing issues such as workload and delegation of tasks. On the other hand, a team organized for a specific purpose just need to focus on getting the job done, even if it is not done in the most efficient way.

5. Define goals for the team.

A team with a well-defined, measurable goal will be more productive than a group of people who wonder what they are supposed to be doing. When you set goals for the
team, be sure to make them realistic and measurable. Explain exactly what you expect to be done and give a date by which you need it to be completed.

6. Continue to monitor the team's progress.

Employees are generally more effective as teams than as individuals, but that does not mean your job as a manager ends once the team is formed. Continue to monitor the team by asking for formal updates from your designated contact. Also, get more casual information by finding opportunities to ask each team member how the project is progressing.

If a team member is not pulling his or her weight, you may need to have a meeting with that person and find out what the problem is. If the team is running into logistic difficulties, you will need to see what assistance you can offer. Perhaps the team's goals will need to be modified or deadlines will have to be extended. On the other hand, a successful team that completes its goal early may be able to take on additional assignments.

Teams, like individuals, will have struggles as well as successes, and just like individual employees, teams can benefit from a caring, involved manager.

**Groupthink**

Can a team be too cohesive?

Is there such a thing as too much teamwork?

It appears that the answer is yes and the result is a phenomenon called the ‘Groupthink Syndrome’. When teams become highly cohesive, their efficiency in critical thinking and decision making can be adversely affected. They will be very loyal to the group and reject any criticism of the group’s behaviour or decisions. This may mean that the group is no longer able to realistically judge their progress and results.

Irving Janis, a social psychologist developed this model. The particular symptoms of Groupthink that Janis identifies:

1. **Illusion of invulnerability.** The group believes it is invulnerable, which leads to excessive optimism and risk taking.
2. **Rationalisation.** Group members rationalise away warnings or threats.
3. **Belief in inherent morality.** Group members believe that their decisions are inherently moral, brushing away thoughts of unethical behaviour by saying ‘How could we do anything wrong?’
4. **Stereotyping.** Opponents of the group are stereotyped as being too evil, stupid or weak to take seriously.
5. **Direct pressure.** Anyone foolhardy enough to question the status quo within the group will experience direct pressure applied to conform.
6. **Self-censorship.** Group members with doubts censor themselves to preserve the appearance of consensus.
7. **Illusion of unanimity.** Because silence is interpreted as consent, there is an illusion of unanimity.
8. **Mindguards.** Just as bodyguards protect us from physical harm, so some people themselves as mindguards (censors or gatekeepers) in order to prevent challenging or threatening information available outside the group from appearing before the group.
The paradox with groupthink is that the groups it afflicts are usually quite pleasant company to work with: the ‘we’ feeling is very high, and group members often like each other a lot. In fact, the more cohesive the group, the greater the chance of groupthink occurring. The groupthink model was originally used to explain US foreign policy decision making US Presidents Roosevelt (Pearl Harbour), Kennedy (Bay of Pigs, Cuban missile crisis) and Johnson (Vietnam). It has also been applied in analyses of the 1972-1973 Watergate crises under President Nixon, the invasion of Iraq in 2003 led by President George W. Bush, the psychological mechanisms that could trigger a third world war, and the space shuttle Challenger disaster 1986. Other later space shuttle flights have experienced problems that may also be attributed to groupthink. (wikipedia.org/wiki/Groupthink)

All groups - whether political cabinets and ministries, sporting teams, charity fund-raising committees, teenage gangs or workgroups - are susceptible to groupthink, so how can it be avoided?

Reducing the effects of groupthink:

- Examine alternatives, generate contingency plans
- Appoint devil’s advocate (someone who will argue an opposing view)
- Increase group size – encourage diversity
- Remove physical isolation – expose to a variety of influences
- Reduce competition with other groups
- Create multiple affiliations (relationships)
- Provide training for group members
- Defer finality in decisions
- Manage impact of high-status members
- Don’t be trapped into thinking that there’s only one solution. Always have a plan B, and preferably, a plan C and plan D.

Cohesion and Conflict

We are brought back to the question of cohesion. Without cohesion, a supervisor will have a difficult time in achieving his objectives. Without cohesion, no teambuilding can take place, but, with too much cohesion, the supervisor will also have difficulty, as too much of a good thing is counter-productive.

Teambuilding aims on the one hand to reduce conflict and build cooperation and, on the other, to use conflict constructively.

In any team, conflict is inevitable because different people have different viewpoints. In a work group or organisation, particularly, individuals see the needs of the organisation differently because of their different job orientations; inter-group conflict often results. We have already covered the key concepts of dealing with conflict in chapter 4.

Since much conflict is natural, the goal of a team is not to eliminate it, but to view it as essentially healthy. In a mature team, it can be healthy if it is handled and resolved constructively. Exploring differences; new ideas and new skills enhances the team or organisation. Usually, when conflict arises and is dealt with openly, people are stimulated to creativity, alternatives are considered, better ideas come
forth and a better course of action results. Teambuilding can help to achieve this. Airing conflict is a way to avoid 'groupthink' emerging.

Optional Activity

Objective:
The object of this exercise is to construct a tower, using only paper clips and playing cards, in groups of 3 – 5 people.

Resources:
Each group will require one pack of playing cards and one packet of paper clips. At the end of the building phase your tower will be judged on four criteria: These criteria are listed in descending order of importance.

- Height
- Strength
- Aesthetic appeal (good looks)
- Economic use of resources

Structure of the Exercise:
You will have 20 minutes with your team in a planning phase. Use this time to develop team strategies and to practise construction of your tower. Ideally you should be placed away from other groups to avoid spying eyes. After this planning phase the groups will be brought together to construct their towers in a 10 minute period.

Rules:
1. Each group will have 20 minutes to plan.
2. Building must be completed in a 10 minute period.
3. Any number of team members may be involved in construction.
4. The tower must be free standing – no props.
5. Paper clips may only be used as fasteners. They must not be bent or distorted in any way.
6. Cards must not be bent, folded or mutilated. They may be gently curved as long as a permanent crease is not created.
7. If the tower falls during the construction phase continue to build, as you will be judged at the end of 10 minutes.
8. All cards and paperclips must be completely separated at the start of the construction phase – no pre-prepared modules.

Questions for you to consider, as an individual, after the activity is over.

1. How did your group form?
2. How did you feel about your group?
3. Did the size/composition of your group affect performance?
4. Were you happy with the leadership demonstrated in your group? Why/why not?
5. Which of the following diagrams best represents the interaction pattern of your group?

![Diagram Options]

A
B
C
D

6. Were you committed to the task? Why/why not?
7. How tasks assigned in your group?
8. Were all group members equally committed to the task?
9. Were the goals of your group clear? How did this affect performance?
10. Were you happy with your leader’s performance? Why/why not?
11. How did competition between the groups affect your performance and that of your team?
12. Write down 2 words which best describe each member of your team.

When you have answered each of these questions meet in your group to discuss your individual answers.

1. Have group members perceived the experience differently in relation to:
   - Roles
   - Performance
   - Leadership
   - Success

2. How did competition affect individuals within the group and their relationships within the group? No change? Better? Worse?
Review questions – Chapter 8

1. What differences are there between groups and social aggregates?
2. List at least three reasons why people join, stay in or leave groups.
3. List three factors that may encourage group members to engage in “bludging or slacking?”
4. List four possible approaches to preventing groupthink.
5. List five phases of team development. Why is this sequence not always followed in all teams/groups?
6. Identify five advantages of teams.
7. Identify five disadvantages of teams.
8. Identify four different types of communication skills that we may need to use in group/team settings.
9. Create a list of strategies and points that might be useful in controlling destructive role-players.
10. Discuss groupthink with others. Has anyone experienced it? What value might the approaches to it suggested in this chapter have had in those actual situations?
11. Someone accuses you of ‘not being a team player’, which you feel is inappropriate and wrong. Devise at least one response to the charge.
12. What is the relationship of leadership to team dynamics?
Chapter 9 Oral presentations
Welcome to this chapter on preparing and giving an oral presentation to an audience. This chapter will cover:

- Defining the purpose of your presentation
- Identifying your audience and their needs
- Establishing your environment
- Planning your presentation
- Developing and using notes
- Practicing your presentation
- Appropriate non-verbal communication
- Use of support materials
- Handling questions

Terms used in this chapter:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety</td>
<td>nervousness, worry &amp; fear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertain</td>
<td>amuse and interest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inform</td>
<td>provide with new information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persuade</td>
<td>convince to accept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>setting goals and targets and strategies to achieve them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presentation</td>
<td>formal, oral production given to an audience</td>
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</tbody>
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A recent survey in America found that, as many people feared public speaking as death! Sounds like an extreme reaction but consider your own feelings if you were to be told that giving a presentation to the class forms part of the assessment in this module. What is it about standing in front of a group that sends us into a panic? Fear of public ridicule (being laughed at) and/or humiliation (shame, embarrassment) probably represents a large part of anxiety. So, when was the last time you ridiculed a class member for their presentation skills? You haven’t? Well then why do you assume that will be your fate when you present to the group? My point is that this fear is largely irrational (not real) but none the less real. How can we overcome this fear? It is probably impossible to completely eradicate (eliminate, get rid of) these insecurities but planning and preparation certainly help.

Presenting to groups is an important personal and workplace skill.
We may have to speak to groups:

- At social events such as weddings and other celebrations
- At funerals if called upon to give a eulogy (tribute)
- At a workplace if called on to ‘say a few words’ if someone is leaving, getting married, having family leave or being welcomed to an area
- At work if called on to introduce a project, new product or new marketing approach
- To carry out group training at work
- To give an informational report to a group on research results
- To give a team briefing
- To report to management on the progress of a team

Planning your presentation

All forms of public speaking should begin with thorough preparation. Careful preparation can overcome much of the anxiety that is felt by people who must give a presentation. To be effective and overcome fear, a speech should be planned and prepared carefully. This involves considering the following aspects:

- The purpose of your presentation
- The audience
- Research skills
- Writing an outline or plan
- Writing the speech
- Rehearsing

Defining your purpose

When you are invited to speak to a group, you must make some initial decisions. First, you must select your goal or purpose. What is the general aim of your talk?

You may be:

- Sharing your views with others to gain their support
- Presenting vital information on a problem
- Teaching a new skill
- Demonstrating a new product
- Explaining a new procedure

The purpose of the presentation is the guiding force behind the material we choose to use in our presentation and how we present it. The purpose becomes a guide to the information that you must find and to the style of your speech presentation. One way of determining the purpose of your talk is to ask yourself,

- What do I hope to achieve by talking to this group?
- What outcome do I seek?
- Do I aim to inform the audience, to influence or persuade them or do I simply want to say something to interest them?

The specific aims of your presentation represent the steps your talk will follow in support of your purpose. That is, your purpose will make up part of your introduction and each of the specific aims will form the body of the talk. The purpose and specific aims tie the talk together. For example, the purpose of your talk may be to inform staff of proposed changes to their Occupational Health and Safety System. Your specific aims might be to inform permanent, part-time and casual staff of these changes.
Analyse your audience
Analysis of your audience is very important in the planning stage. The interests, wants and needs of the audience should decide the main message of your speech. This doesn’t mean that you only tell an audience what they want to hear but that your speech should be constructed in a manner that will make it readily acceptable.

It is important to know these details so that you can pitch (aim at the correct level) your presentation to meet the needs, interests and level of knowledge of your receivers. If you do not know these details about your audience you may make the mistake of providing them with material that is too difficult or too basic, or entirely misses their needs and interests. It is better to talk with people rather than to them and to do this you need to know something of their personal and business backgrounds.

When researching an audience there are a number of basic things that you will need to know.
1. Find out how many people will be in your audience. With a large number, there is little room for audience feedback, but with a small group, you should provide opportunity for questions and comments.
2. Find out the age of your audience. The age group of your audience will determine the content and style of your speech.
3. What are your audience’s interests? You need to know this so that you can be receiver orientated. Is your audience likely to have a ‘special interest’ in an aspect of the topic?
4. What level of knowledge does your audience have about your subject? It is important to pitch your presentation at the appropriate level. Speak above their level of knowledge and they will resent you for making them feel stupid, speak below their level and they will resent being condescended to.
5. What is your audience’s professional background?
6. What is your audience’s educational background?

You will generally find speaking with those within your organisation is easier than speaking to those outside the organisation as you know the audience or can readily find out their interests or needs.

Your relationship with your audience should be a powerful one.

At this stage in your preparation you will have a subject and a specific purpose in mind and you will have considered your audience. You should have analysed the
subject to some extent so that you will not waste time searching for unnecessary, irrelevant information.

The next step is to investigate the subject and so usually research is called for. You will have one perspective on your topic but you need to explore information available so that you can present your audience with ‘the whole picture’. Research shouldn’t be aimless (directionless) so before you begin you will need a plan – a set of headings under which the information you gather can be placed. You will get this first set of headings by analysing the question you have set yourself.

The Three Steps in the Research Process
1. Define the problem information needed. What information do you already have? What do you need to know?
2. Where are you likely to find this information?
3. Locate the information

Possible sources of information:

Observation – ensure you observe on several occasions to ensure your observation is of typical and not unusual circumstances.
Experiment – experiments may provide more accurate information than observation. For example ideas for a better office layout could be tested by trying a few different arrangements before recommending a specific plan.
Interviews – talking to people who have had firsthand experience with your topic area is often helpful.
Libraries – will provide access to audio-visual material, videos, books, magazines, DVDs, databases, CD’s etc. Library staff is also trained to help you with your research.
Directories – hard copy and on-line telephone directories will help you track down relevant organisations and businesses.
The Internet – contains a wealth of information on countless topics. Be aware however that not all information on the Internet comes from reliable sources.

Keep a record of where you gained information from as you carry out your research so that you cite (reference, name) your sources should your audience want to know where your content comes from.

Activity 2
List 5 possible sources of information for a presentation on buying a home computer system.

Organising Information
To be convincing, information must be organised, as organised ideas are easier to follow. Know what you are going to talk about and when you will deal with each point. There are a number of different ways of organising information. Think about an appropriate structure for your topic and presentation.
Ensure team effectiveness

**Chronological** – Explain in the order things occurred. This is appropriate when following an historical sequence of events e.g. the history of the Internet.

**Geographical/Space** – Appropriate for looking at difference between areas e.g. climate in Australia, different areas of a factory.

**Cause and effect** – Describe effects and then look at the causes (or the other way around) e.g. power surges and their effects.

**Process** – Follow a process from start to finish e.g. production of a car.

**Problem solving** – Present the position, outline the problem, look at the possibilities pick and describe the best solution for your purposes.
Compare and contrast - Use when comparing different alternatives or market options. You look at similarities and differences as a means organising your content.

Activity
What method should be used to organise presentations on the following topics?
Combinations of approaches may be appropriate for some.

Touring China
Buying a car
Development of Electronics
Common causes of disease
Building an amplifier
Selecting a home loan
How to buy a used car
Marketing a new product
Common computer hardware faults and their consequences
Preparing an oral presentation

Organisation
No matter how you sequence the information in your presentation there are three phases that must be included in your speech:

The introduction – Tell them what you’re going to tell them. Say what you intend to achieve and summarise the content you will cover in your speech.

The body – Tell them. Give the facts logically and persuasively.

The conclusion – Tell them what you’ve told them. Highlight the action you want to occur now as a result of your speech. Make sure that your conclusion is an “action ending”.

The Introduction
The purpose of the introduction is to introduce yourself, “hook” your audience’s attention and orient them for the rest of your presentation.

Common ‘Hooks’
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Ensure team effectiveness

**Tell a joke** – a joke that is relevant to the topic can be an effective means of drawing your audience together through laughter. A reference to the joke can be made in your conclusion to tie your presentation together. Beware of the risks of this technique however. The joke must amuse all of your audience, must not offend anyone (important in these politically correct days). The function of the joke is to be uniting, not divisive. You must be sure you will be able to remember the ‘punch line’ during the stress of performance.

**Ask a question** – a simple closed question (one that can be answered with one word) is an effective way to attract your audience’s attention and involve them in your presentation. This can help reduce your nervousness as your audience responds positively to you in the early stages of your presentation. Avoid asking questions that may elicit (obtain) long, complex responses.

**Present a startling statistic** – this is an effective way to attract attention to your topic. Graphs and charts on Power Point displays or overhead projector transparencies can illustrate your statistic.

**Use a relevant quotation** – quotations by famous people or relevant experts can be effective ‘attention grabbers’ and provoke thought and interest in your audience. If you visit your library you will find books of quotations, indexed by topic area, suitable for this purpose.

**Relate an anecdote (story)** – people love to be told a little story and a relevant anecdote can hook your audience’s attention quickly.

**3 Questions an audience will ask about a speaker**

- Why should I listen to the speaker?
- What am I going to hear?
- How am I likely to benefit?

An introduction succeeds if it causes members of the audience to think, “This sounds interesting. I want to listen to what this speaker has to say.”

**The following should be accomplished in an introduction:**

**Indicate your topic** – be wary of assuming the audience really knows what you are speaking about. Often you need to explain the topic.

**Establish a relationship** – you need to win audience acceptance for yourself at the start.

**Define your terms** – in complex presentations it will help your audience understand your topic if you define your terms and scope.

**Gain the audience’s confidence** – you must convince the audience that you have control over your topic and your presentation. You do this verbally and non-verbally. You must not only sound convincing but look convincing.
Activity
What are some important aspects of body language you should ideally display during your introduction?
___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________

Activity
Work in pairs to write an introduction for a speech on why a job in the power industry represents a good career choice. Make sure you include an attention grabbing “hook” in this introduction.
___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________

The Body
The body is the central part of the presentation that presents the detail. This is where you inform, persuade and/or entertain your audience.

This is where the aims outlined in your introduction are fulfilled. Organisation is very important here so that your audience understands the detail.

It is best to have 3 – 5 major points in your body. Each of these points may have its own supporting facts, ideas and information.

Make use of ‘verbal punctuation’ in the body. Tell your audience when you are to about to start a new point, tell them when you have finished it and tell them the next point you intend to cover. This helps your listeners to keep pace with you. A speech is not like a report; your listeners can not turn back and re-read a page if they miss something.

Activity
Write the key points that you may cover in the body of this presentation on why a job in the power industry represents a good career choice. Don’t write the entire speech but rather the broad areas that would be covered. Rather like the topic sentences in the body of an essay.
___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________

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The Conclusion

This is where you ‘tell them what you have told them’. The conclusion is a brief overview of the key points, which provides your listeners with a sense of closure. Strive for some type of ‘action ending’ in your conclusion. Make it clear what you want your audience to take from your presentation and/or do. This may simply be to gain new knowledge or to remember points made, to try, to practice, to learn, to purchase or to repeat.

Plan your conclusion as carefully as you plan your introduction. The end or conclusion of a speech will usually echo the introduction in some way.

Commonly used techniques for conclusions:

Restatement of the purpose - restate the basic purpose using different words but focussing on the same ideas.

Summary of the key points – this technique emphasises the major ideas of the speech rather than on the basic purpose.

Completion of the story or idea of the introduction - this method of conclusion is particularly successful if in the introduction you used a quotation or anecdote that you can refer to or complete in your conclusion. The audience gains a clear sense of completion.

Action ending guidelines

- Summarise
- Don’t introduce new ideas
- Be positive
- Call for action now
- Don’t end with “That’s about all I can say”, “Well, that’s about it” or “Thanks for listening”.

Activity

Write the conclusion for this presentation on why a job in the power industry represents a good career choice.
Structure of the Speech

The plan
The final stage of preparation is to outline your plan. This is a one or two page overview of the main sections and points in your presentation. Your plan should cover:

- The introduction
- The body
- The conclusion

Your outline plan is the basis on which you prepare your final script. The plan or outline is an essential part of writing a speech. Once the plan is completed, the actual words of the speech will come to you more easily. A plan makes your speech ‘visual’ – you can ‘see’ what needs to be added or deleted.

Sample plan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Securing Your Home</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Presented by a community representative to a community group.</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INTRODUCTION**
- Introduce self
  - Statistics on crimes & robberies in your region.
  - Summary of areas to be covered.

**BODY**
- Locks & deadlocks
- Securing windows
- Alarm systems
- Dogs

**CONCLUSION**
- Recommend a house safety audit
  - Contact local police for further information
  - Relate to statistics in the introduction
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Visual Aids

Visual aids help focus the attention of your audience by using visual stimulus. A picture is ‘worth a thousand words’ and the more channels you employ in your presentation the more effectively you will communicate with your target group.

It has been claimed that immediately after a presentation an audience retains about 20% of what was said, 30% of what was shown but in combination, 50% of what was said and shown.

Imagine trying to explain to a builder what your new house should look like without the use of visual aids such as plans and elevation views. How confident would you be of the outcome if you relied on words alone to outline your requirements to the builder?

Example

Read the description of this creature. What do you think it is?

What am I?
The body is stout, with arched back; the limbs are short and stout, armed with strong blunt claws; the ears long; the tail thick at the base and tapering gradually. The elongated head is set on a short, thick neck and at the extremity of the snout is a disc in which the nostrils open. The mouth is small and tubular, furnished with a long extensible tongue. A large individual may measure 2 metres in length. In colour it is a pale, sandy yellow. The hair is scanty allowing the skin to show.

Is it easy to visualise? Why or why not?

Visual aids help to keep the listener and speaker active during the presentation by providing variety. An effective visual aid:

- Gains attention
- Increases interest
- Supports the point made
- Emphasises relationships
- Clarifies
- Aids the listener’s memory
- Helps arrange content in an orderly fashion
- Removes focus from the listener

When you incorporate visual aids into an oral presentation keep these points in mind:

- Use visual aids for major points or for information that needs clarification
- Keep visual aids simple
- Ensure all required equipment is present in the venue, works properly and you know how to operate it. Particularly important if you intend to use computer presentations.
- Ensure everyone can see the aid
- Talk to the audience not the visual aid

There are a number of aids that can be employed in your presentation.
**White/Blackboard**
Commonly found in businesses and classrooms and have the advantage of requiring little preparation. Easy to use and provide the speaker with an activity during the talk. Take care not to ‘talk to the board’ and remember to maintain eye contact with your audience. Write or print clearly in large letters.

**Overhead Projector**
The OHP is a popular, portable and effective aid for presentations. You can write on the overhead projector transparency sheets (OHPTS) during the presentation or prepare them before your talk. You can photocopy directly onto transparency sheets specifically made for the purpose. Make sure you use the correct photocopy transparencies or they may melt in the photocopier and the machine’s owner is likely to be very angry.

Remember that when you are word processing information to photocopy for transparencies use a font size of at least 16. Keep your transparencies simple and uncluttered. An audience will soon ‘turn off’ if your OHPTS are too complex or difficult to read.

**Summary of hints when using an overhead projector:**
- Keep it short – don’t write too much
- List main points only
- Keep the message simple
- 1 topic area only for each transparency

**Exercise**
List 3 advantages and 3 disadvantages of OHP transparency use in presentations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Advantages</th>
<th>Disadvantages</th>
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</table>
**Handouts**
Handouts are often used by speakers to support their presentation. These may be brochures, outlines of key points, graphs, charts, photographs, diagrams, technical data sheets or anything else which clarifies and supports the presentation’s content. Short handouts may be given out during your speech but longer handouts should be distributed after your speech, as an audience tends to read handouts when they are given out. Short handouts will provide a momentary distraction but longer documents distributed in the body of your presentation may cause you to ‘lose’ your audience’s attention permanently.

**Exercise**
List 3 advantages and 3 disadvantages of handout use in presentations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Advantages</th>
<th>Disadvantages</th>
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**Videos, slides and computer presentations**
These visuals can certainly add variety and interest to your presentation. Make sure that you have all of the equipment present and in working order before your presentation. Nothing destroys your credibility more than a technical ‘glitch’ in your speech. Make sure you are familiar with your speaking environment so that you know where screens are in relation to windows, power sources and network points etc. If using Power Point make sure that the software version your presentation is saved in is compatible with the software on the computer you will use on the day. Remember to maintain your relationship with the audience through eye contact and body orientation. Sometimes a speaker will become so focused on the technology and talking to the screen that the audience is forgotten.

**Exercise**
List 3 advantages and 3 disadvantages of videos, slides and computer presentations use in speeches.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Advantages</th>
<th>Disadvantages</th>
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<tbody>
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</tbody>
</table>
Charts, maps and photographs
Illustrations in ‘hardcopy’ can be used to illustrate your presentation. Make sure that your audience can see these clearly and easily. A small illustration that can only be seen by the front row is worse than no illustration at all.

Exercise
List 3 advantages and 3 disadvantages of the use of charts, maps and photographs in speeches.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Advantages</th>
<th>Disadvantages</th>
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</table>

Artefacts, pieces of equipment, samples of work etc.
Objects that are relevant to your presentation may be displayed or handed around the group. Be careful as these have the potential to be distracting if people hand them around and begin discussing or playing with them.

Exercise 12
List 3 advantages and 3 disadvantages of the use of artefacts, pieces of equipment in speeches.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Advantages</th>
<th>Disadvantages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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Impromptu Speeches
The impromptu speech occurs unexpectedly and does not allow time for preparation. Examples of this type of speech may include welcomes to new staff or visitors, acknowledgments of achievements or congratulations on a job done well.

As this type of speech normally surprises us it is important that we are able to respond appropriately. We must be able to analyse the situation and respond in a brief and suitable fashion. The order of presentation listed below provides a sound structure for this type of speech.

- Indicate the reason for the speech
- Explain why it is important to the audience
- Conclude with some distinguishing features of the individual/s

A successful formula used by many speakers for an impromptu speech is the PREP formula.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>P</th>
<th>Stands for main point</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>Stands for reason</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>Stands for example</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>Stands for restating the main point</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A speaker following this formula would start with the main point and then state the reason for talking to that point. In a farewell speech to a retiring staff member the speaker would state that the individual is leaving and must be reluctantly farewelld (Main Point) because of retirement (Reason) would give some amusing/touching anecdotes from the individual's career (Example) and would them conclude by wishing the individual success in the next phase of their life (Restating of main point). By following this formula both the speaker and the audience reach the main point quickly. I'm sure we have all experienced the poor impromptu speaker who left us bored, embarrassed or irritated. Use of this formula should reduce the chances of these reactions.

Optional Exercise

Class members should write a topic suitable for a short speech on a piece of paper and place it in a receptacle. Topics on leisure activities, pet hates, work, selling an idea or product, the influence of the media, entertainment, privacy, and security on the Internet etc would be appropriate. Everyone is then to choose a topic from the receptacle and spend ten minutes preparing a one to two minute speech using the PREP formula. Constructive feedback from your audience should help you to identify your public speaking strengths and weaknesses.
Notes

In a prepared speech you should have notes for support. You should not read your speech from these notes but rather use the notes, which list your key points, as a guide to keep you ‘on-track’. Refer to them but make sure that you maintain a relationship with your audience through your non-verbal communication, eye contact etc. Word processed notes in a large font are clear and easy to read. Place your note on cue cards that are about ¼ A4 size. This size is easy to hold and less obvious than a full A4 sheet. Card is often a good choice to print on, as it is less flexible to hold and will not ‘flap about’. Number the cards so that is you should happen to drop your notes they are easy to place back in sequence. You can use your notes to highlight when to use support material such as overhead projector transparencies, slide shows, whiteboard etc.

Practise your presentation

It is impossible to gauge how long a speech will run without practising it aloud. Reading a speech ‘in your head’ is not the same thing and will not accurately indicate how long the speech will take. So, run through your presentation before the big event simulating use of the whiteboard or computer to accurately gauge its duration. Falling within the timeframe given is very important and audiences react badly to speeches that are over or under time. Try to find a helpful friend or family member to view one of your practice sessions. They can be a valuable source of help, pointing out areas for improvement, points that don’t make sense and weaknesses in your non-verbal communication. If you practise, find that the presentation lasts the requisite 10 minutes and that your practice audience say that you were, clear audible, made eye contact, used purposeful gestures and that your presentation made sense it can give you great confidence for the actual speech.

Guidelines for effective non-verbal presentation skills

As well as words a person giving a speech communicates through their non-verbal communication. Some communication experts say that more than half the meaning others gain from our communication is non-verbal. In other words how we look and sound when we present is actually more important than what we say. A range of non-verbal behaviours affects how others perceive us. Some of these are:

- Eye contact
- Use of space
- Gestures and movement
- Posture
- Tone of voice and pacing
- Facial expressions
- Our use of artefacts and personal presentation

Eye contact

Establish eye contact with your entire audience and shift your gaze around the room so the whole audience feels involved and that you are speaking to them. Make eye contact with individuals for a few seconds and then move on, constantly sweeping the room. Sometimes when we are nervous it is tempting to fix our gaze on one individual, a friendly face or acquaintance, and give the presentation to them. If we do this then we are excluding the rest of the audience and they will feel that your presentation is not meant for them. Also avoid fixing your gaze on a spot on the back wall for the same reasons. Any teacher will be able to tell you that eye contact
is an excellent control tool. If you don’t look at your audience and use your gaze to command their attention you are giving your listeners permission to ignore you, as you are ignoring them.

**Use of space**
It is important to look in command of your “stage”. If you are comfortable using a lectern then by all means use it if available. Don’t forget however a lectern is also a barrier between you and the audience. It can be effective to move confidently around the space provided to display audio-visual support, use the whiteboard and to respond directly to questions etc.

![Image](image.png)

**Use of gestures and movement**
Planned gestures can be used to an advantage in a speech, but unconscious and distracting mannerisms can detract from your performance. Because nervous gestures like fiddling with keys, moving from foot-to-foot, fidgeting, nervous pacing, playing with pens, shuffling notes etc are largely unconscious and only become apparent under stress we often don’t realise that we do them. Practise at home and ask someone to watch you in order to become aware of and eliminate these distracting behaviours. If possible videotape yourself and watch the speech critically, looking for negative non-verbal behaviour.

Purposeful gestures on the other hand can add strength, emphasis and interest to your presentation. Practise including gestures into your speech that emphasize and illustrate key points.

**Posture**
Be aware of your posture during your presentation. Avoid slouching and look confident and positive. Purposeful movement conveys that you are energetic but pacing suggests agitation so, aim for a balance. Leaning toward your audience and the avoidance of barriers such as crossed arms, or hiding behind a desk makes you appear interested in your audience and receptive (open) to them.

**Use of voice**
Record your speech prior to your presentation and listen to yourself objectively. It is difficult to perceive how we really sound while we are speaking. Listen for faults in your delivery and correct them before you present to an audience. Ask someone to listen to your speech as you practise and ask him or her for constructive feedback. A range of pitch, tone, pacing and the effective use of pauses will add greatly to your presentation’s effectiveness.
Voice tips to follow:
- Project your voice to the audience, they must be able to hear you
- Speak steadily and a little more slowly than usual
- Vary the pitch of your voice, avoid a monotone
- Help eliminate “ums” and “errs” from your delivery by knowing what comes next in your speech and practice
- Articulate your words clearly and correctly

Facial expressions
A smile is a very powerful thing, as it tends to gain a positive response. Smile at your audience and establish rapport in your introduction. Show your emotional response to what you are saying in your speech. If you are animated then your audience will find you interesting and your non-verbal message will support your words.

Use of artefacts and personal presentation
The way in which we dress, our grooming and the artefacts that we use such as jewellery and accessories all 'say something' to our audience about us. If you are well groomed, presentably dressed and look convincing your audience is more likely to listen to you and to accept your message. Scruffy (untidy) people have to work much harder to convince listeners of their credibility.

Questions
Your audience may wish to ask questions about your presentation. You may be willing to answer questions as you speak or may prefer questions to be left to the end of your presentation. Make your preference clear in your introduction. Listen carefully when a question is asked and repeat (reflect/paraphrase) it to ensure that you have heard and understood correctly. Try to predict the types of questions you may be asked before your presentation so that you have some responses ready. If you are asked a question that you don’t know the answer to, admit it! Offer to find out and let the questioner know at a later stage if possible. Nothing destroys credibility faster that someone who unsuccessfully tries to bluff their way through a response.

Check the Venue
You will feel more comfortable in a venue you have ‘checked out’ prior to your speech. Check where aids such as whiteboards, overhead projectors, screens, network points, microphones, lecterns and power sockets are located.

- Prior to the Presentation
- Check you are fully prepared
- Read through your notes
- Check all support material is ready
- Ensure all equipment is present and operating
- Place your support material in order and within easy reach

You do not have to complete a formal presentation in this module but we have included a sample assignment and some sample assessment sheets in Appendix 3 to illustrate the important criteria in giving a presentation. Spend a little time looking at these criteria and if time allows, spend some time assessing each other as you give short presentations to each other in small groups. Presenting to a small group allows you to practise your skills without having to face a large audience. The best way to improve your presentation skills is to practise, practise and practise!
Review questions – Chapter 9

1. List 5 possible reasons you may have to speak in public.
2. List 3 possible purposes you may have in giving a speech.
3. A good speech has three parts, what are they?
4. List 3 possible techniques for ‘hooking’ audience attention in your introduction.
5. List 4 possible aids you might use when giving a speech.
6. List 4 possible ways of organising the content of your speech.
7. Explain why your non-verbal communication is important when giving a speech.
8. How can you reduce your nervousness when presenting to a group?

Chapter 10 – Problem solving and decision making

Welcome to the chapter on solving problems and making decisions.

This chapter will cover:
- Identifying problems
- Defining needs and objectives
- Following a decision making process
- Problem solving tools
- Assessing and evaluating options

Terms used in this chapter

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brainstorming</td>
<td>Technique to generate a lot of ideas within a group quickly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Check sheets</td>
<td>Chart for progressively recording frequency of events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consensus</td>
<td>Genuine and complete agreement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision</td>
<td>To make a choice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flowchart</td>
<td>Graphic representation of a process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goal</td>
<td>Target or objective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Histograms</td>
<td>Bar Graphs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implement</td>
<td>To put in place or action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ishikawa Diagram</td>
<td>Problem solving tool, also called a fishbone diagram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monitor</td>
<td>To check progress toward goal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objectives</td>
<td>Targets or goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Options</td>
<td>Alternatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem</td>
<td>A difficulty or dilemma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Process mapping</td>
<td>Visual representation of steps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stakeholder</td>
<td>Person affected by the current situation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Problems are a part of life and confront people in organisations on a daily basis. Teams are often faced with problems relating to reaching the goals of the team. Issues and problems can be seen positively as opportunities for improvement. In its broadest sense, problem solving is the process of applying previously acquired knowledge to new and unfamiliar situations. When faced with a problem decision making is necessary in order to diagnose and solve the issue.

For important decisions and for those decisions where it is absolutely critical that you get it right it is essential to use a structured decision making process and appropriate decision making tools.

Decision making is generally defined as the act of choosing between two or more alternatives. Effective decision making is the process of reducing doubt and uncertainty about each decision option and then choosing the option which is most beneficial and has the best chance of success.

The key to making an effective decision is to gather as much information as possible about the problem, to analyse it carefully and then to select the best option.

**The decision making process**

1. Define the problem
   - Don’t confuse *cause and effect*
2. Establish your goals and objectives
3. Generate a range of options
4. Pick the best option
5. Work out your implementation plan
6. Monitor the effectiveness of your solutions

Let’s explore these steps in a little more detail.
BSBWOR502B
Ensure team effectiveness

Step 1 – Define the problem
When faced with a problem or issue spend some time deciding exactly what the problem is. Remember to ask the six questions:

- What?
- Where?
- When?
- How?
- Who?
- Why?

You may use questionnaires, surveys, interviews, books, journals, the Internet etc to collect information about your problem.

Be careful not to confuse symptoms of the problem with the cause of the problem. As an example if you were to find that your car had a flat battery every morning when you went out to drive it you may decide that you needed to buy a new battery. If however you replaced the battery and found that the battery was once again flat the next morning you may wonder if the flat battery is a symptom or effect of another problem. If you bought a new battery every day for a week it would be very expensive and you would be sure that the flat battery wasn't the basic problem but rather a symptom of another problem such as a faulty alternator. So, spend time clearly defining what the problem is and separating cause from effect.

You may consider the use of Fishbone or Ishikawa diagrams at this stage. Other tools such as flow charts, process mapping, check sheets and histograms may be useful ways to research, illustrate and diagnose the problem. These tools are explained later in this chapter.

Step 2 – Establish your goals and objectives
You must establish your needs in relation to the problem that you face. Spend some time clearly defining your objectives so that you reach a solution which satisfies you and the needs of other stakeholders. Try to aim for a win/win outcome, solutions that satisfy all stakeholders lead to stable outcomes.

Step 3 – Generate a range of options
Consider all of the alternatives available to you during this phase. It is often useful to use a creative problem solving tool such as Brainstorming during this stage to generate alternative solutions. Once you have come up with a range of options to meet your needs pick the best option and check that your solution is expressed as a SMART goal, (refer to the chapter on time management).
**Step 4 – Work out your implementation plan**

Once you have decided what you intend to do look at the steps necessary to put the solution in place. Decide what needs to be done, by whom and in what sequence and timeline the process to ensure all necessary resources (equipment and people) are available.

**Step 5 – Monitor the effectiveness of your solutions**

Once we have implemented (put into effect or action) our solution we hope that it will solve our problem. However it would be a foolish person who did not check to ensure the solution is working. This process is called monitoring and the steps involved are to:

- Set a target
- Check your progress toward the goal
- Take corrective action if necessary

This problem solving process may be applied to any issues that arise at work.

**Problem solving and decision making tools**

**Decision making methods that involve voting**

**Group consensus method**

This voting method involves all relevant people in a vote. In order to have consensus (agreement) everyone must vote in the same way. True consensus can be very difficult to achieve and very time consuming because it requires talking through issues until everyone sees things in the same way. The advantage of this method is that if you do reach consensus then there will be no disagreement and everyone will be motivated to implement the decision.

**Majority vote method**

As the name implies in this method the majority decides the outcome. This is the type of method used in democratic elections. This is an effective decision making tool when: the decision is not critical; the decision is to be made by a large number of individuals; the voters have all the necessary information and/or if time is short.
The main disadvantage of this method is that it can divide the group into winners and losers. This can have negative effects during the implementation of the decision as some people may not be committed to the decision and motivated to 'make it work'.

**Minority vote method**
This occurs when a small committee or task force is set up to review and assess information, then make a decision on behalf of a larger group. If the committee works well this can be an efficient use of time and resources. The main disadvantage is that people who are not participating in the committee may feel that they haven’t had any input into the decision making process and hence have little commitment to the decision made.

These voting methods are often used with medium to large groups. Other methods listed below may be more appropriate for smaller groups.

**Fault tree Analysis**
A fault tree analysis gets its name from the diagram that is developed when using the tool. It often resembles a tree with its underground root system. It is similar to a Fishbone or Ishikawa diagram.

The problem is defined and written in a box at the top of the page. The second row identifies the main areas that may have contributed to the problem, in other words the scope of the potential problem.

The third and subsequent rows give specific detail of possible faults that could have led to the problem occurring.
For example if an operator cannot start a piece of earth moving equipment this becomes the statement in the top box. Look at the example below illustrating the way in which this problem could be shown. Sometimes seeing a problem helps to solve it.

**Fault tree analysis**

```
Equipment won't start

- Mechanical Failure
  - Ceased engine
    - Fuel pump not working
      - Dirty fuel

- Human Error
  - No fuel
    - Fuel tank empty

- Electrical Failure
  - Faulty Starter Motor
    - Fuel filter blockage
      - Faulty filter
```
Brainstorming
Brainstorming with a group of people is a powerful technique. Brainstorming is a means of generating a lot of ideas quickly and getting everyone involved in a decision making process. It is a useful tool in managing OH&S and it motivates and develops teams. Brainstorming motivates because it involves members of a team in bigger management issues, and it gets a team working together. People are sometimes reluctant to offer their ideas in a group as they are worried their ideas may be wrong or considered foolish. The fact that no criticism or judgement of ideas is allowed in the first stage of the brainstorming process means that people feel more confident about presenting their ideas.

Brainstorming process
- Define and agree the objective or problem
- Brainstorm ideas and suggestions within an agreed time limit
- Categorise/condense/combine/refine
- Assess/analyse effects or results
- Prioritise options/rank list as appropriate
- Agree action and timescale
- Control and monitor follow-up.

In other words:

Plan and agree the brainstorming aim
Ensure everyone participating in the brainstorming session understands and agrees on the aim of the session (for example, to look at ways carry out the next safety audit). Always try to keep the brainstorming objective simple and allocate a time limit.

Manage the actual brainstorming activity
Brainstorming enables people to suggest ideas at random. Your job as facilitator is to encourage everyone to participate, to dismiss nothing, and to prevent others from criticising the wilder suggestions (some of the best ideas are initially the craziest ones and people won't participate if their suggestions are criticised). During the random collection of ideas the facilitator must record every suggestion on the flipchart.

Implement the actions agreed from the brainstorming
With the group, assess, evaluate and analyse the effects and validity of the ideas or the list. Develop and prioritise the ideas into a more finished list or agree what the next actions will be. Agree on a timescale and who’s responsible. After the session circulate notes, monitor and give feedback.

Brainstorming Practice Activity
There have been a number of accidents at your power plant regarding the use of ladders.

- Form groups of 4-5 people and Brainstorm possible reasons for these accidents
- Record this information on a Cause and Effect Diagram. Use the sample form at the end of this chapter.
- Brainstorm possible ways of preventing these accidents
The Cause and Effect Diagram

These diagrams are also known as Ishikawa or fishbone diagrams. They were developed and used by Kaoru Ishikawa, one of the great Japanese management thinkers. Fishbone, or cause and effect diagrams are his best-known contribution to quality management.

These can be a useful tool in analysing cause and effect. The effect to be improved or removed is written in a box at the right hand end of a long arrow. The possible causes of that effect are then listed and connected to the effect like bones connected to the backbone of a fish. It is then possible to look at all of the factors relating to that cause. The level of detail required will vary according to what you are analysing. This way of visually representing problems often helps teams to understand issues because they can “see” them.

To give a simple example - what are the possible causes of staff leaving before the end of a project? They may include environment, ambition, career prospects, satisfaction (variety, challenges, and recognition), remuneration (basic pay, benefits - car, health, and pension).

This can be represented on an Ishikawa diagram:

**Ishikawa, Fishbone or Cause and Effect Diagram**

![Ishikawa Diagram]

**Balance sheet**

A balance sheet analysis is a method of evaluating the pros (advantages) and cons (disadvantages) of a particular proposal in a group. For example should we:

- Relocate
- Upgrade the plant
- Introduce new software
- Introduce a new OH&S training program

Use a black/white board or flip chart so all participants can see what is written. There are two simple steps to perform this analysis:
The group brainstorms all the advantages (good points) in one column of a table and disadvantages (bad points) about a proposal in a second column.

1. List all the forces in favour of the change in one column
2. List all the forces opposed to the change in another column
3. Discuss and evaluate each column to decide if the proposal is worth pursuing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Points for (pros)</th>
<th>Points against (cons)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A Force Field Analysis

This problem solving tool is very similar to a balance sheet but you add a numerical dimension by attaching a score to each force of between 1 and 10 (1 being weak and 10 being strong). You can then total your scores to see which side has the higher score.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Points for (pros)</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Points against (cons)</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>*Will increase output of electricity</td>
<td></td>
<td>*Cost of new equipment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Will reduce current maintenance costs</td>
<td></td>
<td>*Disruption to work</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Will enable new technologies to be used</td>
<td></td>
<td>*Training costs for staff</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Will reduce hazards and accidents</td>
<td></td>
<td>*Increase in waste disposal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TOTAL | TOTAL
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Criteria Rating Sheet

This tool is used in decision making. The key factors relating to a decision are listed and given a score relating to their importance. A number of alternatives can then be compared on the criteria defined, scored and given a total. This tool can be used to as an aid in job interviewing to compare the applicants for a position. Each applicant has a score at the end of the interview based on their performance and skills related to the Key Performance Indicators (KPI) for the position (job).

Job Decision Interview Worksheet
Criteria rating sheet

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Performance Factors</th>
<th>Candidate 1</th>
<th>Candidate 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>MUSTS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Completed or current study in IT area at Cert. IV level or above.</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current Driver’s Licence</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrated interest in electronics</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Wants weighted in order of importance</strong></td>
<td><strong>Weight</strong></td>
<td><strong>Score</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Excellent communication skills</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Computing skills</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Excellent personal presentation</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Customer contact experience</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Desire for advancement</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Fault finding and problem solving skills</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Ability to use test equipment</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Telephone experience</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Ability to instruct others</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Sound product knowledge</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Quotation skills – maths level?</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Experience in ordering stock</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total Score - 800

Interviewer Signature Date

The same type of rating sheet could be used to compare two different types of protective clothing to be purchased for workers at a power station. The criteria for this situation may include cost, durability, washability, ease of disposal, degree of protection etc.
Unknown Factors Worksheet

This tool is useful in the researching of the problem phase. It is a way to identify key information relating to the problem that needs to be researched and the means of finding it. This useful in Step 1 of the problem solving process, define the problem.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The problem or issue</th>
<th>What don’t we know about the problem?</th>
<th>How can we find out?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tally Sheets

These are useful tools for collecting data about the frequency of events related to problems or issues in the workplace. It is essential that records are kept and stored at work about the frequency of accidents, injuries and near misses. There is a saying regarding a quality management approach that - if you can’t measure it you can’t improve it.

Check sheets

Check sheets allow us to record data in a form that is easy to use and analyse. Note the example below which relates to late deliveries.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons for late deliveries</th>
<th>Occurrence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Order information incorrect</td>
<td>III III III II II II II III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dates not supplied</td>
<td>III III III III III III III III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incorrect address</td>
<td>III III III III III III III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low supplier stock</td>
<td>III III III III III III III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carrier unavailable</td>
<td>III III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Reasons</strong></td>
<td><strong>105</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Preparation

In preparing check sheets we should consider the following:

1. What is the purpose of the check sheet? Will it do what it is intended to do? Can it be improved?
2. What action is supposed to be taken as a result of the information on the check sheet? What action is taken? How quickly is action taken? Who needs to get a copy? What check will there be that the required action is taken? Where will the information be stored?
3. Where a number of check sheets on the same production run are used, each sheet should be coded sequentially so that by comparing them in order you can track any changes in the process over time to help identify the causes of the changes.

Used well check sheets is a valuable way to systematically categorise and record the output of a process. Check sheets provide data used in other statistical tools and are probably the most widely used of all the statistical and measuring tools we use.
Repetitive Analysis
In this approach the problem is written on the board or worksheet and the questions how and why did this happen are asked. Write the answer to this question and then repeat the process. Ensure that you keep repeating this process until you have identified the root cause or you feel there is no point in going any further.

Sequence of events analysis
This is another technique for tracking back to the root cause of a problem. Write the problem on the board or worksheet and then ask what are all the events that led to this situation? It is recommended that you write down all the events mentioned in chronological (by time) order. Create a timeline beneath the sequence of events or write the actual time each event occurred next to the event itself. As the events are written down they will help the group to identify gaps in the story. From this point you need to develop questions that when answered will fill the gaps as to what happened and why.

Remember, problems are a part of life and a natural part of any organisation’s day to day business. You will face issues relating to health and safety and environmental management in your future careers. You success in solving problems will depend on your success in applying a problem solving process and in using appropriate problem solving techniques.
Solving tools. Review Questions – Chapter 10

1. List the steps in the problem solving process
2. List three (3) different methods of making decisions that involve voting.

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Ishikawa Cause–Effect/Fishbone Diagram
Worksheet

Problem Label

Major Cause

Major Cause

Major Cause

Major Cause
3. List (3) three problem solving tools.
**Appendix 1**

An overview of the evolution of management theory

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Management approach</th>
<th>Characteristics and effects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Scientific management</strong></td>
<td>The main focus was on productivity and efficiency. Workers were seen as factors in production that impacted on productivity but little recognition was given to their individuality. The focus of study was on the design of the work in order to find the best way to perform the task. Workers were trained in the ‘correct’ way to perform the task and then judged on output.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work design</strong></td>
<td>Frederick Taylor (1856-1915) Late 1800's and early 1900's</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Time and motion studies</strong></td>
<td>Frank and Lillian Gilbeth were married in 1904 and were partners in the management consulting firm of Gilbreth, Inc. The most famous example of a time and motion study is that of the bricklayers building a wall. It is often cited as an example of the scientific method.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The assembly line</strong></td>
<td>Henry Ford introduced the concept of the assembly line, an innovation that still reigns today. Cycling components past a stationary employee meant that labour time was reduced and productivity increased and so cars became cheaper and more readily available. The focus was still very much on the design of the work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Administrative management</strong></td>
<td>Henri Fayol was concerned with efficiency at the level of the organization rather than at the level of the task; with general management rather than with individual workers and a specific task. Fayol originally proposed that there are five primary functions of management. His work has stood the test of time and has been shown to be relevant and appropriate to contemporary management. Many of today’s management texts have reduced the five functions to four: (1) planning, (2) organizing, (3) leading, and (4) controlling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The Hawthorn Studies</strong></td>
<td>Elton Mayo together with the Hawthorn Institute measured the effects of changes in the physical environment on productivity. Ironically a key study showed that any changes in lighting (positive or negative) improved productivity because of the positive effect on employee self esteem. This positive effect of management attention on workers is known as the ‘Hawthorn Effect’ This study alerted theorists and social researchers to the fact that individual motivation in workers was a key factor in productivity and warranted further study.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Human relations approach</strong></td>
<td>During the human relations movement more consideration was given to people, feelings and attitudes. It was emerging that workers’ performance improved when treated like people rather than machines.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mass production</strong></td>
<td>Mass production occurred with the invention of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time Period</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940’s</td>
<td>Mass production as a result of WW11. Workers enjoyed specialised jobs on the assembly line; however, dissatisfaction soon occurred as employers set higher targets, sped up production, regularly laid people off and offered few wage increases. Women were often employed to meet increasing production needs. Motivating workers became a focus. From the 1940’s – 1980’s organisations became taller and more hierarchical.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hierarchy of needs theory on motivation</td>
<td>Maslow provided a theory to explain worker motivation. He theorised that workers are essentially “wanting creatures” who always want more. He stated that what humans want is determined by what they already have. He developed a series of needs from the most basic survival needs to self fulfilment or reaching an individual’s full potential. Maslow argued that as each need was satisfied it decreased in importance. A person would then move to the next level satisfying needs from lowest to highest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1950’s</td>
<td>The emerging computer age meant that machines were used to improve automation, speed and efficiency in factories and offices.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two factor theory on motivation</td>
<td>In the late 1950s, Frederick Herzberg surveyed 203 accountants and engineers as to what events at work led to either a marked improvement or significant reduction in their job satisfaction. From this research, he developed a two-factor theory of work motivation which (like Maslow) had lower and higher levels of needs that were classified as hygienes (lower level dissatisfiers) and motivators (higher level satisfiers).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theory X &amp; Theory Y</td>
<td>McGregor’s theory assumed there were two views of workers. Theory Y people wanted to work, took pride in their efforts and required little supervision. Theory X people didn’t want to work, took little pride in their efforts and had to be watched to prevent them wasting time and avoiding work. Managers could take a theory Y or a theory X view of their staff.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Closed systems</td>
<td>Prior to the 1960’s organisations focussed on internal mechanical efficiency and on finding the one ‘right way’ to perform a task. Managers were responsible for selecting, training and motivating workers to follow this ‘best way’ in their section. A big picture holistic view of the total organisation was not a high priority.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Systems theory</td>
<td>From the 60’s on organisations focussed on developing open systems that recognised that all parts of an organisation are interrelated and also relate to their environment in a dynamic way. Today most companies use terms like inputs, processes, outputs and feedback. These terms come from an ‘open system’ approach. This theory suggests management must guide their organisation through internal and external changes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategic Management</td>
<td>Strategic management involves the idea that plans and strategies should be developed for the total organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contingency Management</td>
<td>This theory came from the realisation that not all organisations manage or should manage their people in the same way. Situations should be analysed and a management approach selected to best fit the current situation or contingency.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management by objectives</td>
<td>Shared setting of goals by employees and employers was seen as a way to align workers’ individual objectives to those of the company. Involving employees in the setting of targets produces shared understanding, increases motivation and gives a clear direction to all staff.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information technology</td>
<td>Breakthroughs in computer-aided manufacturing and design, increasing production automation, desktop computers and e-business rapidly changed workplaces.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Quality Management</td>
<td>TQM refers to an integrated approach by management to focus all functions and levels of an organization on quality and continuous improvement. TQM focuses on encouraging a continuous flow of incremental improvements from the bottom of the organization's hierarchy. TQM is not formula but a lasting commitment to the process of continuous improvement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Downsizing/Lean manufacturing</td>
<td>The challenge of the 1990’s for many organisations was to reduce costs to be able to compete in a globalised economy. The effect was a flattening of the management hierarchy, a reduction in staffing levels, greater reliance on outsourcing, and innovative practices such as lean manufacturing and JIT.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustainability/Ethical management</td>
<td>Current preoccupations in the new millennium are to make sustainable industries that do not damage the environment and that are run honestly and fairly</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 2
Guide to Games & Activities with Balloons for fun, team building, & experiential learning.

Why Balloon Activities?

Balloons - in one form or another - have fascinated human beings for centuries.
- Balloons are incredibly forgiving and help in building people’s confidence.
- Balloons are fun, portable, and inexpensive.
- Balloons add suspense to the atmosphere - there is a healthy sense of prolonged hope when playing with balloons!

Balloon games can be used as party games, fun 5 minute fillers, energizers, icebreakers, or for longer trust-building, team building or therapeutic sessions.

Conducting Balloon Activities

From the descriptions of balloon games below, create a sequence to help meet team building, icebreaker or fun goals.

- **Time:** 5 mins to 1 hour
- **Location:** Preferably inside. Balloons are susceptible to even the slightest wind which can be frustrating. Plus, there are fewer accidental balloon bursts inside.
- **Equipment:** Ideally, start with 2 to 3 assorted round 9 to 12 inch (medium to large) round latex balloons per person (deflated). The actual number needed depends on group size, the specific activity and whether it involves bursting balloons. Sports equipment, permanent markers and slips of paper are optional.
- **Hygiene:** Only one person inflates each balloon.
- **Environmental:** Latex balloons are biodegradable (at the same rate as an Oak leaf). Latex is a natural substance, produced from the milky sap of the rubber tree. To learn more about environmental aspects, see Balloon Industry Links..

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BALLOON ACTIVITY</th>
<th>DESCRIPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Balloon History</td>
<td>Balloons - in one form or another - have fascinated human beings for centuries. Ask participants to guess who and when the balloon was invented (Answer: In the mid-1800s by Michael Faraday). However, mass production of modern-day blow-up-buy-yourself coloured latex balloons came in 1931. To learn more, see Balloon Industry Links.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balloon Inflation</td>
<td>Each person blows up a balloon. Balloons work best for games at about 85% of inflation capacity. Keen participants often inflate which leads to higher burstage. Less confident participants may underinflate. You can turn this into a game and demonstration. Show the ideal inflation and walk around coaching people as they inflate. 85% inflation also allows a handy distance for tying a thumb-knot in the neck of the balloon. Some participants may need a hand to tie the balloon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Game</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Balloon Juggle &amp; Sort</strong></td>
<td>Challenge participants to keep all balloons (1+ person) in the air. This gets the group moving and cooperating. Once they've got the hang of it, make it harder by adding in more balloons or placing restrictions e.g., no hands to keep balloons up. Ask participants to keep juggling the balloons, but sort them into colours (works best with large groups).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Balloon Frantic</strong></td>
<td>Two to three inflated balloons per person are needed and a stopwatch. Each person has a balloon, with the rest in a nearby pile. Everyone begins bouncing their balloons in the air. Every five seconds, another balloon is added. See how long the group can keep the balloons bouncing before receiving six penalties. A penalty is announced loudly (to create stress!) by the leader when a balloon hits the floor, or once on the floor, if it is not got back into play within five seconds. The leader keeps a cumulative score by shouting out &quot;one&quot;, &quot;two&quot;, etc. When the leader gets to &quot;Six&quot; the time is stopped. After some discussion time, the group tries to better its record with another attempt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Catch the Balloon</strong></td>
<td>A handy name game involving balloons. Participants stand in a circle. Toss a balloon in the air and call someone's name. That person must catch the balloon before it touches the ground. If the person succeeds he/she then tosses the balloon up and calls the next name.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Balloon Bop</strong></td>
<td>An extension of Catch the Balloon. Now the balloon is not caught, but kept in the air. As well as calling out someone's name, also call out a body part which that person has to use to keep the balloon in the air until he/she calls another person's name and body part.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Balloon Help</strong></td>
<td>The objective is for everyone to be in the centre keeping all balloons afloat! Start off with everyone in a circle, facing inwards, and hands behind back. Put between zero and three balloons in people's hands behind their backs. Participants should not let on to others how many they have. The leader starts by trying to keep three balloons afloat in the centre. When it becomes difficult, the leader calls somebody's name and says &quot;X, I need your help!&quot; That person comes in with all their balloons and helps until it becomes difficult and then they call &quot;Y, I need your help!&quot; If a balloon falls on the ground, it must be picked up by the centre and tried to be kept afloat. Game is over when everyone is in the centre trying to keep all the balloons up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Balloon Pass</strong></td>
<td>Best suited to large groups (e.g., 15 to 100). Everyone has a balloon, standing or sitting is a circle. All balloons are passed in one direction. The group should continue doing this is fast as possible, until each person's original is returned. If a balloon touches the ground or bursts, restart. It can be helpful to draw on some of the balloons to know when they return.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Balloon Finger Balance</strong></td>
<td>Try balancing a balloon on the end of your finger. Have a competition to see who can do it for the longest. The balloon must not be held, only balanced, and it must not be tapped. The finger must be in direct contact with the balloon at all times. Good for focus, concentration and physical movement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Balloon Pairs Volleyball</strong></td>
<td>A basic warm-up is to get people in pairs playing balloon &quot;volley-ball&quot;, knocking it between them. If you want to extend the session beyond a minute, teach the basic volleyball hits i.e., dig, set, spike. Can lead into more Balloon Ball Games (see below).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Balloon Ball Games</strong></td>
<td>Bat-ball sports take on a new dimension when a balloon is used instead, e.g., get people into pairs, 1 balloon between them. Get them to play a series of 1 on 1 sports e.g., soccer, volleyball, table tennis, etc. - add equipment if you want, but without equipment people will improvise wonderfully. On a soft surface there can be dramatic diving. Variation: Ask participants to play some points in slow-motion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Balloon Group Volleyball</strong></td>
<td>Fun game, especially for children. Fill a black garbage bag up with balloons and tape it together. Tie a net or rope from one wall to another. You now have a volleyball net and balloon ball. Make sure that you leave enough space between the top of the net and roof for the balloon ball to fly over. Make up your own rules and have fun.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Balloon Scramble</strong></td>
<td>This can be done with large or small groups, although any one group over 20 might be unmanageable. Line the group up, one behind the other. Place a balloon between each set of two people, sandwiched between stomach and back. Continue along the rest of the line. Each person should have a balloon pressed against their stomach and their back, except for the front and trail person. Participants cannot use their hands to keep the balloon in place. Have them move through a course that you have set up. This is a good icebreaker, and a good communications exercise. Some variations are to blindfold various members of the line or to fill the balloons with water.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Balloon Juggling Tag</strong></td>
<td>In pairs, one balloon each. The game is played like normal tag between two people. However, you must always be in possession of your balloon. The catch is you can’t hold your balloon - you can only keep knocking it into the air. So people play tag in pairs but must keep knocking their balloon in the air as they run around. If a person's balloon touches the ground, they instantly become 'it'. It’s up to you whether to allow knocking a partner's balloon away.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Balloon Pairs Bounce</strong></td>
<td>Have people pair up with someone else of equal size. One balloon per pair. Announce a competition to see who can hit a balloon the most times against the ceiling and/or balloons. Balloons must be constantly in motion (they cannot be caught) and each pair must stick with its original balloon. Pairs shouldn't interfere with other pairs, but partners can compete with one another. If the balloon touches the</td>
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<td>Activity</td>
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<tr>
<td>Balloon Pairs Lower</td>
<td>Have people pair up with someone else of equal size. One balloon per pair. Announce a competition to see which pair can lower their balloon to the ground. The rules are: one finger each is to be placed on the underside of the balloon. Each person's finger must be constantly touching the balloon. The balloon cannot be forcefully sandwiched between two fingers - it must be lowered ultimately by balance, patience and concentration. Not easy with small balloons - easier with larger balloons. Leader usually needs to reinforce the &quot;both fingers touching all the time&quot; rule.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Balloons on the Wall</td>
<td>Balloons are very excitable. By rubbing them for several seconds on your hair, clothes, etc. you can generate substantial static electricity. The balloon can then stick on walls or ceilings for several minutes. A game can go like this: Put a large pile of balloons in the centre of the room. Each player or team is allocated an area of wall. Players then grab balloons, rubs on him/herself, then attempts to stick to wall. If balloon sticks, players add another. After approx. 5 minutes the winner is the team/player with the most suspended balloons.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balloon Cacophony</td>
<td>Invite participants to try to create as much sound with inflated balloons as possible (without popping). This will probably be all sorts of squeaking. Could have a &quot;noise-off&quot; competition, with small groups trying to &quot;out-noise&quot; others groups. Hand out uninflated balloons and invite another cacophony - by blowing up balloons and letting the air out slowly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balloon Crazy Catch</td>
<td>Each participant blows up a balloon, but doesn't tie it off. Participants then hold the balloons above their head. On the word &quot;go&quot;, all balloons are released. The goal is for the group to catch all balloons before they hit the ground. Note to keep track of your own balloon for hygiene purposes.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Balloon Double Challenge</td>
<td>Challenge pairs to insert one balloon inside another and inflate both. Good problem-solving and teamwork exercise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balloon Holding Challenge</td>
<td>Who can set a Guinness World Record for holding the most balloons? Give each person a chance to hold as many balloons as possible (need about 10-15 balloons per person, on the floor). Participants must pick up balloons by themselves. Put them in your clothes, between your legs, under your arms, between your teeth, etc. Each person takes a turn while the others watch and laugh!</td>
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<tr>
<td>Balloon Globe Drawing</td>
<td>Hand out permanent markers. Invite participants in pairs to draw a globe of the world on a balloon, as accurately representing the continents as possible. This should be done using memory. How many times have we seen a map of the world, yet seeing is not necessarily knowing. An excellent geographical/cultural awareness exercise (e.g., ideal for an</td>
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<tr>
<td>Game Name</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Balloon Support</strong></td>
<td>Give out lots of deflated balloons and organize people into small groups (e.g., 3 or 4). Then explain a group competition - in as short a time as possible, get the whole group off the ground, supported only on balloons.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Balloon Balance</strong></td>
<td>In small groups (e.g., 3 or 4) challenge participants to &quot;float&quot; a person on a bed of balloons. The challenge is for the person to be fully supported by the balloons without touching the ground and without anyone else supporting the balloons.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Balloon Pop Relay</strong></td>
<td>Form into equal teams. Put a pile of inflated balloons in the middle, about 20 feet away from each of the teams. At the starting signal, race to the balloons, take one, pop it as quickly as possible by sitting on it, stepping on it, or any other means, then race back and tag the next team member in their line. The first team to have every player pop a balloon is the winner.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Balloon Messages</strong></td>
<td>Prepare balloons with action messages inside (e.g., sing a song, bark like a dog, and dance). The players sit in a circle. A balloon is passed around the circle. Each player has to sit on the balloon with all their weight for 3 seconds. If someone breaks the balloon, they must do what it says on the message. Be aware of sensitivities about weight and experiment first with getting the right amount of air in the balloons.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Balloon Questions</strong></td>
<td>Have each individual write a question on a slip of paper, put the question into the balloon and blow it up. Then group tosses the balloons in the air (and/or does other activities) and then after 10sec of balloon tossing have the person who drops the first balloon to pop it and answer the question.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Balloon Portraits</strong></td>
<td>Hand out permanent markers. Invite participants to get into pairs and draw a portrait of their partner on a balloon. Excellent for creativity. There is fun spin-off possibilities here e.g., put all the portrait balloons in the middle and see whether anyone can match each person correctly to a balloon. A balloon portrait can be a fun take-away from a game session.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Balloon Burst Race</strong></td>
<td>Balloon Burst Races are simple, but can be conducted in a variety of ways, e.g., all at once or in a series of playoffs, leading to a grand finale. Contestants start with a deflated balloon and on the count of 1, 2, 3 blow their balloon up until it bursts. This is a good indicator of lung capacity and VO2max, so is not only fun but can also be used in physical and health education. It also involves psychological challenge (dealing with fear).</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Balloon Fears Burst</strong></td>
<td>Hand out permanent markers and balloons. Participants inflate the balloon but don't tie it off (hold neck in hand). With the other hand, each person writes his/her fears on the balloon. Could be general fears or specific fears related to the situation. Optionally you add in here throw fears away (letting...</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Fire in The Hole</strong></td>
<td>Hilarious balloon-bursting activity - great finale with much laughter and challenge. Involves overcoming fear of balloon bursting and trusting someone. Requires a dramatic demo to really catch on. Hold a balloon in front of your tummy and ask for a volunteer. Make eye contact and then run directly towards each other, tummies pushed out, yelling &quot;Fire in the hole!&quot; [traditionally yelled out before dynamite fuses were lit] and burst the balloon between tummies. If you bounce back, try again. A little bit risky (physical collision), so watch out. Start by having people mill around with their balloon, make eye contact, one person holds a balloon on tummy, run in, &quot;Fire in the hole!&quot;, and Bang!</td>
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<td><strong>Balloon Give-away</strong></td>
<td>This is an excellent way to engage a group in the social community and do a small service. As the final activity, each group must get rid of their balloons in as short a time as possible, by giving their balloons away to a stranger (can specify to a child under the age of 10). Strangers may only receive one balloon each. Will take some time - maybe best to do over a break/lunchtime.</td>
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</table>
| **More Balloon Games & Activities** | - Balloon Keep-Up [www.firststepstraining.com]  
- Moonball [www.firststepstraining.com]  
- Balloon Party Games [www.disbelieving.com]  
- Looney Balloon Games for Kids Parties [www.buzzle.com]  
- Balloon Games (Balloon HQ) [www.balloonHQ.com]  
- Balloon Ideas for Preschoolers [www.perpetualschool.com] |
| **Balloon Industry Links** | - Balloon Artistics & Supplies Association of Australasia [www.balloonartists.com.au]  
- Balloon Council [www.balloonhq.com] |
Appendix 3
Oral presentation skills assessment and practice

Speech Assessment
You will be required to give a presentation of 5 – 10 minutes duration in class. You must plan your presentation in terms of:

- Your purpose. You should be able to sum up the purpose of your presentation in one sentence. “The purpose of my presentation is to….”
- Considering any special needs of your audience.
- Researching your content.
- Writing a plan including an introduction, body and conclusion.
- Creating cue cards.
- Organising your support material.

You will be expected to use two forms of support other than your own voice during your presentation. These may include, the whiteboard, Power Point, video, audiotape, the overhead projector, charts, photographs, diagrams maps etc.

Your presentation will be evaluated on the following criteria:

- Selection of a topic appropriate for your audience
- Evidence of preparation in terms of:
  - Content
  - Structure –
    - Introduction
  - Body
  - Conclusion.
- Delivery:
  - Confident and fluent
  - Clear and audible
  - Appropriate pacing and pitch
- Appropriate non-verbal communication
  - Eye contact
  - Purposeful gestures
  - Posture
- Use of visual aids:
- Types
- Effectiveness of use

DUE DATE:
BSBWOR502B
Ensure team effectiveness

Proposal for Speech
Name:

Topic:

Purpose:
The purpose of my speech is to...

Audience:
Define your audience
Consider targeting, special needs, and appropriate language. How will you cater to these needs?

Context:
Where will your speech be delivered? Resources available?

Resources and References:
Where will you find the information for your presentation?

Specific Plan
Introduction:
Attention Gaining Device?

Write out your introduction in full.

Body:
List key points:
* 
* 
* 
* 
* 

Conclusion:
Write out in full.
# Oral Evaluation Sheet

**NAME:**

**DATE:**

**TIMING:**  

**GROUP:**

### Criteria

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Not Adequate</th>
<th>Adequate</th>
<th>Very Good</th>
<th>Excellent</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Research</strong></td>
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<td>Evidence of research</td>
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<td>Relevant information</td>
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<td>Selected</td>
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<tr>
<td>Quality of content</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Logical Organisation:</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Introduction – ‘hook’?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Body – logical &amp; clear</td>
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<td>organisation?</td>
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<td>Conclusion – clear</td>
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<td>summary &amp; action ending?</td>
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<td><strong>Delivery:</strong></td>
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<td>Clear and audible</td>
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<td>Confident and fluent</td>
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<td>Range of pitch</td>
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<td>Timing</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Non-verbal Communication:</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Appropriate eye contact</td>
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<td>Positive gestures</td>
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<td>No distracting mannerisms</td>
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<td>Appropriate posture</td>
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<td><strong>Use of Notes:</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Use of Support Aids:</strong></td>
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<td>Types?</td>
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<td><strong>Dealing effectively with Questions:</strong></td>
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171
Sample Topics
Life is not meant to be easy.
The last film I saw.
The battle of the sexes. Who’s winning?
My kind of music?
A sportsperson I admire.
Improvements which could be made to this course.
Things I hate and/or love.
The best/worst show on television.
Freeways should be free.
Work!
My plan to end inflation
Leisure time, do we have too much of it?
Trade unions have outlived their usefulness.
China, land of…
Development is often at the expense of nature.
Marriage.
Women’s Liberation – they have it already!
A good book for a desert island.
Food, glorious food.
A place I would love to visit.
Where I come from.
Things life has taught me.
Green.
Alcohol.
Boxing is a blood sport that should be banned.
The best things in life are free.
My solution to unemployment
Dole bludgers.
The generation gap
Public transport.
Today’s youth are selfish, a “me” generation.
Five ways of reducing pollution.
The house I’d like to own.
Violence in the media leads to violence in society.
My favourite charity.
Children should learn obedience and respect.
Taxation.
Ways to reduce the road toll.
Some crimes deserve the death penalty.
Act local, think global should become our motto.
I voted the world was mad and the world voted that I was mad. Unfortunately the world outvoted me.

Genetic engineering may destroy the planet.
Action plan for improving presentation skills

After the Presentation
Write an action plan for improving your oral presentation skills. In your plan you should focus on such areas as:

Planning
- Introduction
- Body
- Conclusion

Use of notes

Posture

Use of gestures

Voice quality

Maintenance of eye contact

Use of audio-visual aids

Timing

Your action plan may be quite brief but should focus specifically on the presentation you have just given.
Appendix 4
Answers to activities

Leadership photographs

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Survival in Canada

EXPLANATION

Mid-January is the coldest time of year in Northern Canada. The first problem the survivors face is the preservation of body heat and the protection against its loss. This problem can be solved by building a fire, minimizing movement and exertion, using as much insulation as possible, and constructing a shelter.

The participants have just crash-landed. Many individuals tend to overlook the enormous shock reaction this has on the human body and the deaths of the pilot and co-pilot increases the shock. Decision-making under such circumstances is extremely difficult. Such a situation requires a strong emphasis on the use of reasoning for making decisions and for reducing fear and panic. Shock would be shown in the survivors by feelings of helplessness, loneliness, hopelessness, and fear. These feelings have brought about more fatalities than perhaps any other cause in survival situations. Certainly the state of shock means the movement of the survivors should be at a minimum, and that an attempt to calm them should be made.

Before taking off, a pilot has to file a flight plan which contains vital information such as the course, speed, estimated time of arrival, type of aircraft, and number of passengers. Search-and-rescue operations begin shortly after the failure of a plane to appear at its destination at the estimated time of arrival.

The 20 miles to the nearest town is a long walk under even ideal conditions, particularly if one is not used to walking such distances. In this situation, the walk is even more difficult due to shock, snow, dress, and water barriers. It would mean almost certain death from freezing and exhaustion. At temperatures of minus 25 to minus 40, the loss of body heat through exertion is a very serious matter.

Once the survivors have found ways to keep warm, their next task is to attract the attention of search planes. Thus, all the items the group has salvaged must be assessed for their value in signalling the group’s whereabouts.

The ranking of the survivors’ items was made by Mark Wanvig, a former instructor in survival training for the Reconnaissance School of the 101st Division of the U.S.
Army. Mr. Wanvig currently conducts wilderness survival training programs in the Minneapolis, Minnesota area. This survival simulation game is used in military training classrooms.

RANKINGS

1. **Cigarette lighter (without fluid)**
The gravest danger facing the group is exposure to cold. The greatest need is for a source of warmth and the second greatest need is for signalling devices. This makes building a fire the first order of business. Without matches, something is needed to produce sparks, and even without fluid, a cigarette lighter can do that.

2. **Ball of steel wool**
To make a fire, the survivors need a means of catching the sparks made by the cigarette lighter. This is the best substance for catching a spark and supporting a flame, even if the steel wool is a little wet.

3. **Extra shirt and pants for each survivor**
Besides adding warmth to the body, clothes can also be used for shelter, signalling, bedding, bandages, string (when unravelled), and fuel for the fire.

4. **Can of Crisco shortening**
This has many uses. A mirror-like signalling device can be made from the lid. After shining the lid with steel wool, it will reflect sunlight and generate 5 to 7 million candlepower. This is bright enough to be seen beyond the horizon. While this could be limited somewhat by the trees, a member of the group could climb a tree and use the mirrored lid to signal search planes. If they had no other means of signalling than this, they would have a better than 80% chance of being rescued within the first day. There are other uses for this item. It can be rubbed on exposed skin for protection against the cold. When melted into an oil, the shortening is helpful as fuel. When soaked into a piece of cloth, melted shortening will act like a candle. The empty can is useful in melting snow for drinking water. It is much safer to drink warmed water than to eat snow, since warm water will help retain body heat. Water is important because dehydration will affect decision-making. The can is also useful as a cup.

5. **20 x 20 foot piece of canvas**
The cold makes shelter necessary, and canvas would protect against wind and snow (canvas is used in making tents). Spread on a frame made of trees, it could be used as a tent or a wind screen. It might also be used as a ground cover to keep the survivors dry. Its shape, when contrasted with the surrounding terrain, makes it a signalling device.

6. **Small axe**
Survivors need a constant supply of wood in order to maintain the fire. The axe could be used for this as well as for clearing a sheltered campsite, cutting tree branches for ground insulation, and constructing a frame for the canvas tent.

7. **Family size chocolate bars (one per person)**
Chocolate will provide some food energy. Since it contains mostly carbohydrates, it supplies the energy without making digestive demands on the body.
8. **Newspapers (one per person)**
   These are useful in starting a fire. They can also be used as insulation under clothing when rolled up and placed around a person’s arms and legs. A newspaper can also be used as a verbal signalling device when rolled up in a megaphone-shape. It could also provide reading material for recreation.

9. **Loaded .45-caliber pistol**
   The pistol provides a sound-signalling device. (The international distress signal is 3 shots fired in rapid succession). There have been numerous cases of survivors going undetected because they were too weak to make a loud enough noise to attract attention. The butt of the pistol could be used as a hammer, and the powder from the shells will assist in fire building. By placing a small bit of cloth in a cartridge emptied of its bullet, one can start a fire by firing the gun at dry wood on the ground. The pistol also has some serious disadvantages. Anger, frustration, impatience, irritability, and lapses of rationality may increase as the group awaits rescue. The availability of a lethal weapon is a danger to the group under these conditions. Although a pistol could be used in hunting, it would take an expert marksman to kill an animal with it. Then the animal would have to be transported to the crash site, which could prove difficult to impossible depending on its size.

10. **Quart (1 litre) of 100 proof whiskey**
    The only uses of whiskey are as an aid in fire building and as a fuel for a torch (made by soaking a piece of clothing in the whiskey and attaching it to a tree branch). The empty bottle could be used for storing water. The danger of whiskey is that someone might drink it, thinking it would bring warmth. Alcohol takes on the temperature it is exposed to, and a drink of minus 30 degrees Fahrenheit whiskey would freeze a person’s oesophagus and stomach. Alcohol also dilates the blood vessels in the skin, resulting in chilled blood belong carried back to the heart, resulting in a rapid loss of body heat. Thus, a drunken person is more likely to get hypothermia than a sober person is.

11. **Compass**
    Because a compass might encourage someone to try to walk to the nearest town, it is a dangerous item. Its only redeeming feature is that it could be used as a reflector of sunlight (due to its glass top).

12. **Sectional air map made of plastic**
    This is also among the least desirable of the items because it will encourage individuals to try to walk to the nearest town. It’s only useful feature is as a ground cover to keep someone dry.

http://scoutingweb.com/scoutingweb/SubPages/SurvivalGame.htm

**Who am I?**
This is what the creature described on page 147 looks like.
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