Introduction

These notes form the basis for the course and constitute essential reading.

The approach in this course is as follows:

[a] introduction to OB and HRM, the underlying disciplines of work psychology and sociology
[b] individual aspects of work and consumer behaviour
[c] group behaviour and group influence
[d] organizational behaviour and culture
[e] cross-cultural and international issues

There will be case studies used to illustrate most of the major areas, and analyses of these plus presentations is part of the assignment requirement.

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Chapter 1

Introduction to Organizational Behaviour and Human Resource Management
Origins in Psychology and OB/HRM

The main traditions in psychology are relevant to areas of application in OB and HRM, examples are given below, with comments:

i  Psychoanalytic tradition: not a dominant influence, but may explain some aspects of emotionality in the workplace, consumer motivation and how people respond to groups and leaders

ii  Trait tradition: related to psychometric testing for recruitment, selection and development

iii  Phenomenological tradition: started with encounter groups [Carl Rogers in 1950s] which then evolved into sensitivity training at work; later evolution into TQM [total quality management] and similar approaches. Also the self-actualisation side from humanistic psychology relevant to motivation at work

iv  Behaviourism tradition: many applications, including reward systems at work, performance management, behaviour modification approaches and mentoring. Generally relevant to appraisal, OD, training and career and personal development.

v  Social cognitive tradition: this may be applied into areas of occupational which involve schemas and information processing, so could for example be relevant to how we process social information in the interview, or help our understanding of organizational culture.

Work psychology has its origins in 2 main component parts:

[a] Fitting the man to the job/fitting the job to the man [FMJ/FJM].
FMJ involves career guidance, recruitment and selection, appraisal, training and development.
FJM involves equipment and workplace design, work and job design, human-machine interaction, impact of physical, social and economic environment on the individual.
The origins of FMJ/FJM go back to job design for the munitions workers in WW1, Taylorism, selection tests for the forces in WW2, assessment centres for the Office of Strategic Services [the OSS, US equivalent of SAS], Hawthorne experiments, measurement of intelligence by Spearman, etc.

[b] Human relations.
Early areas within human relations included heavy emphases on socio-technical systems and motivation theory in work design. The approach also now includes areas such as organizational structure and culture, change management and resistance to change, social construction theory, organization theory, different approaches to management and management style.
The origins of the Human relations approach go back to the Hawthorne experiments; Maslow; Woodward and socio-technical systems and cybernetics; theories of organization hierarchy structure and culture; Edgar Schein and process consultation; Vroom and Porter and Lawler on expectancy and utility theories; etc.

Origins in Sociology

These origins go back to Durkheim, Marx etc. There are origins in studies of industrialisation, the role of management, alienation and the assembly, lines, bureaucracy and organizational theory. Many books are relevant here, such as Douglas MacGregor's 'The Human side of Enterprise', Erving Goffman's 'Psychic Prisons' and David Goldsmith et al's series of books called 'The Affluent Worker' in the 1960s which investigated the extent to which earning money yielded power and position in the workplace. Earlier in the 1950s, Walker and Guest's book 'Man on the Assembly Line' and in the 1960s Joanne Woodward's writing on socio-technical systems were seminal in the development of this area of understanding behaviour in the workplace.

Sociology has resulted in several influences on how we understanding organizations: one from the perspective of organizational theory, particularly critical organization theory which often challenges findings from positivist research. Another influence is in reflexivity, whereby interventions are evaluated by the interventionist. A further major influence has been in terms of how we study industrial relations.
The changing world of work
There are four main areas of change in the last few decades that need to be considered throughout this course:

[a] Technological changes
IT has reduced demand for labour, in some cases by 90% in manufacturing. It has also created new jobs, such as those in software development. But the jobs lost and the jobs created are not the same.
IT has also changed many existing jobs by de-skilling some parts, increasing skills in others, changing the composition of tasks and creating a great dependence on computers in many cases.
There are also aspects of human-machine interaction to be considered, such as the ergonomic issues associated with large amount of time seated and in front of VDUs.
New jobs have included those in call centres [how much are these now the 'new sweatshops' of the 2000s?], often with highly prescribed and controlled work].
New issues involve home-working, which now includes not only the computer and software issues but also social interaction and group issues.
Virtual teams need special consideration, for example when the team members come from different cultures.

[b] Economic changes
These include issues of payment and wages, changes in benefits, work harmonisation, performance management, use of contracted and agency workers, full-time vs. part-time work, homeworking, relocation to where jobs are and possible cross-cultural issues.

[c] Demographic changes
HR planning was important in the 1970s and even, despite job losses, in the 1980s. By 1990s, changes in the demographics of the population were pointing towards emphasis on younger recruits, but by 2000 the emphasis shifted again and will change yet again in the 2010s as the actuarial 'time bomb' kicks in.

[d] Rights and Roles
These have changed a lot in 50 years, moving towards issues such as equal opportunities and diversity, increases in numbers of women in the labour market, bringing dual career stress. These look set to continue to have major influences on the world of work.

Issues for the future in the changing world of work
The further changes in IT will mean major issues of trust, security, new forms of organization [virtual organizations, ebusiness, teleworking etc.].

Changes in employment legislation will mean organizations focusing increasingly on their core competencies for their core workforce, resulting in few lifetime careers and employment security as non-core competencies are done by agency and subcontracted workers.

The demographic problems will get worse in the next 25 years as large amounts of skills are lost through retirements; also fewer workers will be earning relative to the numbers of pensioners, and this will be exacerbated by the failures of company and government pension schemes to have continued their investments by short term expediency. Possible rises in retirement ages due to needs of employers as well as needs of individuals to earn money.

Increased emphasis on knowledge management, performance management will change many jobs.

Economic changes as companies increasingly refocus on service and knowledge industries and also, for example advanced manufacturing, energy generation and new technologies in UK.

New issues in recruitment and selection will include biodata, conditional reasoning, virtual reality measures, genetic testing, neurological testing, electronic selection methods and measurement of Emotional Intelligence.

Reference:
Chapter 2:

Culture and structure in organizations
1 Introduction

"Organizations are social arrangements for the controlled performance of collective goals".

There are very many types of social arrangements e.g. clubs and societies. What distinguishes organizations from them is the preoccupation with performance and the need for control. Organizations do not have goals- only people have goals.

The goals that individual members of an organization seek to achieve can be quite different from the collective purpose of their organized activity. This creates a central practical and theoretical problem in the design and study of organizations; it is called the organizational dilemma, arising from the inconsistency between individual goals [e.g. self-esteem, pride, status, money, etc.] and the collective purpose of the organization [increased share income, reputation, investment, large product range etc.].

Organization theory must take into account:
structure-whether flat with few levels, or tall with many levels;
the span of control in terms of number of subordinates per manager;
the time-span of discretion;
the ratio of those employed directly on the product/service to those employed indirectly.

The links between grade and the routes to reach them are also part of this study of organizations. The British armed forces, for example, have for many years had carefully designed progress routes mapped out so that it is clear to all what qualifications and experience are pre-requisites for promotion.

Should the jobs be broken down into narrow areas for specialization, or widened to give greater scope and responsibility? Should jobs and departments be grouped together in a functional way or according to the services or products offered? Should control be centralised or decentralised? These are all questions of organizational structure with no absolutely right answers.

The areas of study and theory of organizations change slowly with time and are also vastly different between countries: there are differences, for example, between France, Britain and Germany concerning grades, payments, job structures etc. even for comparable jobs.

The whole issue of whether organizational theory has any universality at all has been raised in many recent textbooks and articles. It is now clear that the theory must be rethought for different cultures; there are no easy prescriptions derived from Western texts that can be applied for Asian, South American or African organizations.

Culture

Hofstede defines culture as the "collective programming of the mind which distinguishes one category of people from another", being entirely learned and specific to the group. At the centre of culture are values, which are reflected in national culture. But culture resides in a social environment, so there are also practices, which are mostly how organizational cultures are defined.

Culture in organizations has also in the past been more narrowly defined as: "the ideologies, beliefs and deep-set values which occur in all firms...... and are the prescriptions for the ways in which people should work in those organizations" [Harrison, 1972] or as "its customary and traditional way of thinking and doing things, which is shared to a greater or lesser degree by all members, and which the new members must learn and at least partially accept, in order to be accepted into the services of the firm" [Jaques, 1952]

There are many different ways of describing cultures but most can be better interpreted, as Hofstede suggests, as sets of rules and norms of behaviour. Thus, we refer to [for example] an "absence culture" as those norms of absence and attendance which typify a certain group- in some groups it is normal not to take time off work unless one is severely ill whereas in other groups it would be the norm to take time off for very minor ailments. Groups develop norms for all sorts of behaviours quite quickly and these rapidly become established. Indeed, "custom and practice", which means well-established norms of work behaviour, has been cited often as justification for behaviour that management disapprove of in industrial tribunals.

Workgroup norms have been extensively studied in many settings. It has been shown that workgroups which are high producers are not always those who are the happiest and that some very satisfied groups have low work rate norms. Where individuals break the norms [by "rate busting" or by doing too little], they may be ostracised their workmates.

These principles apply wherever people work together, even if they do not have interacting jobs. What we cannot explain is why some groups develop norms for hard work whereas other groups develop norms for much less work. Changing norms and values is difficult and takes a long time but it is possible to achieve some movement if carefully planned.

Handy [1985] has derived four main ways of classifying culture:
a] Power Cultures
Perhaps one or possibly a ‘clique’ of power holders. The structure is best represented as a web and can frequently be seen in smaller, entrepreneurial organizations, or smaller units of larger organizations. The organization depends on trust and empathy for its effectiveness, there are few rules and procedures and communication is often by personal contact.

Working in such organizations requires that employees correctly anticipate what is expected of them from the power holders and perform accordingly. If this anticipation is right, people can be very happy and committed to the ‘corporate goals’; if it is wrong, then dissatisfaction, high labour turnover as well as a general lack of enthusiasm can result. Thus, because a lot of faith is invested in the individual rather than in committees, the selection and choice of the ‘right’ employees by the centre is crucial to this type of organization.

In a power culture that is working well, there is flexibility, decision-making unencumbered by rules and bureaucracy, a stimulating environment. In a power culture that is not working well, there is little back-up and a lot of ‘faith’ which may mean things go badly wrong.

If the decision is to operate with a power culture, then work units need to be kept small [it is difficult to retain this culture in a large unit] and unit managers would have maximum independence.

b] Role Cultures
This culture has lots of rules - for jobs, performance, disputes, recruitment etc. and the structure is bureaucratic. Role cultures are very common in older, well-established organizations, especially those who are not developing very fast. Performance that digresses from the rules, either by doing too little or too much, can be dysfunctional or counterproductive. Power is predominantly endowed by position rather than by any other base. Individuals can acquire specialist expertise without risk and are offered a predictable rate of climb up a pillar. The reward system is based upon satisficing, i.e. doing a job up to standard. These cultures are predictable and stable and can be efficient if the environment changes little over time. If there are long product life cycles, a large amount of programmed work, or if economies of scale are more important than innovation and flexibility, then role cultures will operate well.

The biggest problem in these cultures is built-in inertia; when situations need to change, these cultures cannot easily adapt, nor can they handle experimentation to any degree. Local Government in the UK and the Marketing Boards in Zimbabwe are good examples of this type of culture.

c] Task Culture
This culture has no central single power source endowed by hierarchical location. Senior management allocates projects to various parts of the organization and projects are worked on and developed by teams of people, who may only be together for that project alone. The team may cross functions and levels, relying on expertise rather than subjugated authority.

Task culture is often associated with a matrix structure in organizations. For such structures to work, teamwork is more important than individual effort or reward. If individuals feel that their skills are superior to those of others in the team, then the culture can be badly damaged.

The strength of a task culture is that it is flexible and responsive. It also has features which are considered in the Western culture to be desirable for motivating individuals, such as personal space and freedom, less routine work etc. The disadvantages of a task culture are that economies of scale cannot be exploited, since work is project rather than quantity based; there are relatively short life-cycles; the culture needs maintenance for it to continue to work and there may be resistance if it is introduced because of the extra managing required. There may also be budgetary implications because project groups may need their activities to be underwritten if the project is to be successful. Task groups can be very difficult to control once they are underway, since group members may become motivated to sustain the group rather than achieve organizational goals.

In practice, task culture can be extremely effective. But it can also be quite disastrous if there is insufficient money, or role ambiguity or role conflict because of the ‘pull’ on the individual from both sides of the matrix.
Although the arrows are unidirectional in these diagrams, many will also operate in reverse directions, reflecting 2-way communication. However, the reverse arrows may not be in the same position as the ones in the diagrams because upward communication may follow different routes.

**d) Person Culture.**
This a relatively uncommon form of culture, found in pockets of large, complex organizations, where individuals of similar background or training or profession cluster and form into groups to enhance their expertise and share knowledge, skills, ambitions and personal aims. This type of group can be seen amongst professionals such as lawyers, accountants, architects etc. These cultures rarely persist for long, becoming role or power cultures as the organization slowly takes on a life of its own that is less dependent on purely professional expertise.

**2 Approaches to studying Culture**
Management theories and approaches Historically, writers have attempted to define the good manager-
- * in terms of function and activity,
- * derived from what the ‘theory’ said it should be,
- * what factors differentiate good from bad,
- * where the manager ‘fits’ in the organization,
- * as a leader

It can easily be seen that some theories are complementary whereas others directly conflict with one another. Summarised below are some of the main groups of theories and theorists

- * Classical functional management theories, eg Fayol, Mintzberg, Drucker,
- * Role and trait theories- eg Herzberg, McGregor, Sloan, Iacocca, Whyte, Lupton, Bingham, Carlson
* Behavioural approaches- eg Cyert-March, Schein,
* Management as Competence- eg Boyatzis,
* Quality- eg Crosby, Deming,
* Leadership theories, eg Fleishman, Fiedler, Blake-Mouton, Ohio and Michigan studies,
* Management of Change- eg Schein, Bennis, Argyris, Likert, Reddin, Beckhard, Tichy
* Defining excellence- eg Peters, Waterman, Hickman & Silva,
* Scientific Management- eg Taylor, Urwick
* Contingency theories- eg Vroom-Yetton, Porter-Lawler, Fiedler, Lawrence-Lorsch
* Management techniques- eg Kepner-Tregoe, Drucker, Blake-Mouton, Blanchard-Johnson, Humble, Adair. Also JIT, TQM etc
* Management processes- eg Schumpeter, Simon, Cyert-March,
* Management 'Gurus' - eg Kanter, Peters, Herzberg, Deming, Gellerman
* Strategic Management- eg Ansoff, Porter, Thurley-Wirdenius
* Cultural differences- eg Hofstede, McClelland, England
* Management philosophy- eg Edstrom, McGregor, Brown
* Management as power/authority- eg Cartwright, Dalton, Fox, Dahrendorf
* Human Relations- eg Mayo-Roethlisberger, Tavistock Institute
* Managing of innovation- Koestler, Brown, Jacques, Burns-Stalker, Leavitt, Burnside

All these different theoretical positions may be boiled down into two schools of thought. The first of these, the "Applicable" approach says that getting the culture 'right' for the organization is critical for corporate success; it is also critical for human resource management to be effective, in achieving commitment to organizational goals and strategies.

The 'Excellence' literature [e.g. Peters and Waterman, 1982] suggests that cultures designed to facilitate innovation, experimentation, corporate entrepreneurship with heavy investment in human resources, are often more successful. The types of organization that they defined as successful were those who were very profitable, were developing new ideas or who were generally acclaimed at being very good at what they did; such as McDonalds, 3Ms, DisneyWorld in California and Florida and Apple Macintosh. These organizations have set out to reward in some way behaviours that are experimental or innovative or involve good personal interaction, etc. This research presents a 'snapshot' of success during the late 1970s and early 1980s, and does not examine what would be associated with success in the future. Nevertheless, the methodology of comparing the best with the rest is sensible enough; indeed the current 'leading edge' research [1994-95, at London Business School] uses exactly the same approach. The results are probably valid for that time and raise issues that cannot be ignored even though priorities may have changed or that some of these issues are culture-bound.

We need to consider what behaviours we will reward. If innovative behaviour is important, then we should reward attempts to innovate rather than the outcomes. If excellence in personal handling of customers is important, then we should seek ways of recognising and rewarding that. and so on. This issue is currently causing huge problems in the managing of people, because the whole nature of the psychological contract is changing fundamentally in the 1990s, with extreme lowering of morale and commitment in many organizations [e.g., Cooper, 1995].

It is likely that excellence depends upon different characteristics at different times. Some of the so-called excellent companies have slipped from their pedestals and it now seems likely that the superiority of Japanese companies will be [partly] eroded. So it may be even less clear whether there is much at all in common for different organizational cultures that are "excellent" at any point.

Very few organizations exhibit one culture only; nearly all show a mixture and most change slowly over time. Most organizational activities reflect the predominant or prevailing culture, with all its idiosyncrasies, which is likely to be the one operated by the senior management if there is a consensus between them. The process needed to introduce changes to the culture involve the analysis of the current system(s), deciding on some target for change and then planning a strategy to achieve it. This is a long and complex process and currently many international organizations are trying to achieve major cultural shifts.

Peters and Waterman [1982] identified eight basic attributes of corporate success, all of which stem from getting the culture right. To these has been added an extra attribute suggested by Schwartz and Davies [1981]:

Bias for action- 'getting on with it', as opposed to forever analysing without taking decisions to act.
Close to the customer- learning from clients and aiming for quality, reliability and service.
Autonomy and Entrepreneurship- fostering the organization's leaders and innovators
Productivity through people- we/they attitudes are unhelpful, the labour force are the root of quality and productivity
Hands-on, value driven- managers should keep in touch with all areas of the organization
'Stick to the knitting'- staying close to the businesses you know
Simple form, lean staff- keep organizational structure simple and top management levels 'lean'
Simultaneous loose-tight properties- core values centred, autonomy and development decentralised.
Innovation/experimentalism orientation- a culture which favours these and to which all staff are committed.
The other school of thought is the "Analytical" approach, and this involves examining the history of the organization, the dominant mores and ideologies of its nation. The beliefs, attitudes and values of managers are related to the dominant belief systems in the wider, national context. This approach also incorporates the role of language in the formation of culture, because it is the primary way that the 'rules' of the culture are passed from employee to employee.

The analytical approach enables us to understand cultural differences in the way that organizations function; this has been particularly important in the understanding of differing cultures in the large multi-nationals.

For many years, there have been cross-cultural investigations within multi-nationals in order to maximise their operations in widely differing situations and environments. Ford motor company have, for example, tried to identify crucial differences in managerial style across their factories in the UK, Europe and the USA. More recently, Japanese companies have researched into the optimum way, in terms of structure, grading systems, lines of authority etc., of setting up their operations in UK and other European countries. Not all of the multi-nationals have addressed these issues particularly well and some have considerable problems with their different national operations.

Studies of cross-cultural differences in multi-nationals should show how organizations develop in different cultures but the literature is fairly spartan in this area, particularly when we look at behavioural rather than economic factors. Writers such as John Harvey-Jones suggest that they fail to see how Japanese business principles can work in the UK or the West, yet others say the opposite. New research [e.g. Fisher, 1995] is beginning to tease out whether the relevant issues [for cross-cultural management] are concerned with skills, cultural sensitivity, differing cultural values etc.

In the UK many organizations have been attempting major cultural changes. But this has also been happening at National level. From 1979 until 1990, Margaret Thatcher tried to change the culture of the nation to one of personal ownership, personal responsibility, enterprise, and reduced state dependence. There was also an inherent drive towards greater accountability and efficiency in many large state institutions such as the National Health Service and parastatals such as British Rail, whose whole natures were neither profit nor efficiency-centred.

It can be argued that the culture-shift required was too much in too short a time, but nevertheless, there has been some obvious movement towards those goals. Referring to Peters and Waterman's eight attributes, it can be seen that Mrs Thatcher and her ministers certainly had a 'bias for action', acted a great deal with the customer in mind [some would argue too much on some occasions], emphasised entrepreneurship, had centralised core values, and by the 'opting out' allowed to schools and hospitals, decentralised autonomy and development.

Mrs Thatcher's administration was itself characterised by many as a power culture, although she attempted to encourage organizations, particularly in the public sector, to develop task cultures. Her successor, John Major, seems to political observers, to have moved away from a power culture in his administration, toward a consensus-based task culture. His approach to public sector organizations and parastatals seems to be [similarly to Mrs Thatcher's] a task-based one but with some additional concern for the public as customers.

At the organizational level, some industrialists have become very famous in their attempts to change corporate culture. Early examples included Iain McGregor, who became chairman of British Steel, at a time when it was well and truly in the doldrums. To use Handy terminology, it was a role culture of the most bureaucratic kind and heavily in debt; morale was low and the organization was losing out to foreign competition.

McGregor set out to make British Steel competitive, and amongst other things [such as increased investment], embarked about changing the general dominant culture to a task one. This was reinforced by making clear the consequences of poor performance with redundancies, although these were also due to improvements in technology which considerably reduced the demand for labour. Following his 'success' [a competitive company, with a much reduced workforce] at British Steel, Mr McGregor was appointed chairman of the Coal Board [renamed now British Coal] where he tried to commence a similar strategy. This was much less successful, since it involved a major piece of industrial action, whereby a union leader attempted to bring the Coal Board management to its knees with an all-out strike. The strike was not all-out, caused much grief amongst the coal-mining community and resulted in a rather painful 'win' for Mr McGregor and the government. It can be said that this was a major contributor to the erosion of trades union power in the UK; it can also be said that union power was invested in a few people in a non-democratic way.

These examples raise many issues for the study of organizations. In particular, the issue of organizational change and its dependence on cooperation and commitment can be seen clearly in the above cases. It can also be seen that to facilitate change of this magnitude requires fairly assertive and strong-willed individuals supported by teams of senior employees who are committed to the change.

Another well-known figure in the UK who achieved significant changes in his organization is Sir John Harvey-Jones, who in the 1980s changed the culture from a bureaucratic, role-based one to a more dynamic one, although still role-based [it would have been impossible to achieve a complete culture change and to what?]. The company, ICI, had been in a real slump in the early 1980s. Harvey-Jones removed several managerial layers, and said that new ones could only be introduced if it could be
shown that the new layer could do a unique job to create 'added value'. He opened up communications, made objectives clearer, changed the remuneration system to make it more fairly reflect contribution, changed responsibilities to stretch people, gave managers 'headroom' to make decisions. All of these constituted structural changes to the fabric of the company, although there was little cultural shift in terms of Handy's categorization. It could be said, using the original definitions of culture instead of the four categories that Handy derived, that Harvey-Jones did achieve changes in the culture, in that innovation was encouraged more and bureaucracy was reduced and the relationships between performance and recognition/reward was more clearly stated.

It is interesting to observe that many of these activities are more common now than then and have been renamed to suit the 1990s- such as delaying, 'rightsizing' and empowerment. The implementation of these is indicative of the fundamental changes currently occurring in organizations and the drastically altered expectations etc. associated with the psychological contract.

3 Choice of Culture
If one was in the position of being able to choose and implement a structure for an organization, or if an existing culture required change, what factors need to be considered?

Centralised ownership will lead toward a power culture, whereas diffused ownership will produce a diffused power structure. New organizations need to be aggressive and independent [power culture] or flexible adaptable and sensitive [task culture]. Mergers can create special problems where two differing cultures are required to combine.

Larger organizations are seen to be more formalized, develop specialised groups [clusters?], operate role cultures, even though they may be linked together in a sort of web; they are also seen to be potentially more friendly and are thought by employees as being more efficient and more authoritarian, than are smaller organizations. This phenomenon also extends to workgroups, where the highest size before communications start to change and sub-groups form is eight in the group. Different work-groups can develop quite different norms and show some cultural differences.

Routine, programmable operations are more suited to role cultures; high cost, expensive technologies where the cost of breakdown is high tend to encourage close monitoring and supervision and require depth of expertise-all of these are best situated in a role culture.

Technologies where there are large economies of scale to be made tend to encourage role cultures., whereas non-continuous, discrete operations, one-off unit production operations are best suited to power or task cultures.

Where technologies are rapidly changing, task or power cultures are most effective.
Tasks where there is a high degree of interdependence, or where uniformity and co-ordination are more important than adaptability are all best situated in a role culture.

If the goal is:  
- quality of product, this is more easily monitored in a role culture.
- to provide jobs, a good place to work, this is best in a role culture
- to produce growth, this is best in a power or task culture.

[5] The Environment
Different nationalities prefer different cultures. These are explained in a later section of these notes. The implications of these differences are interesting for many reasons, but particularly so with the development of Japanese management methods in many companies. The Japanese, according to Hofstede, are more collective, cautious, authoritarian and materialistic than many other countries, which raises the issue of how well many management methods can work in differing environments.

Individuals with a low tolerance of ambiguity, or high needs for security will be best suited to a role culture. Also, lower calibre people will best respond where jobs can be precisely defined, as in a role culture.

Individual skills and talents will be more marked in power or task cultures, and a need to "establish one's identity at work" [to 'make ones mark'] will be better suited to these cultures.

A mismatch between individual and culture, i.e putting someone into a culture which they find unsuitable or alien, can have consequences for productivity, morale, absenteeism, etc.

4 Organization Design and Development
**Organizational design** is the process of implementing an appropriate organization structure and culture. However, organizations gradually change their dominant cultures: most start as power cultures, and as they mature, develop specialization, become more formalised, and move toward role cultures. Then, there develops the need for flexibility, perhaps new technology becomes needed for progress, and the organization is faced with the fact that it needs a range of different cultures.

Any organization has four sets of activities, which may require cultural diversity:

- **steady state** - all those activities which can be programmed, are routine. This usually accounts for 80% of an organization's personnel - the infrastructure, production, secretarial system, accounts, sales etc.
- **innovation** - all activities directed to changing the things that the organization does or the way that it does them. R & D, parts of marketing, production development, corporate planning, O & M, parts of finance.
- **crisis** - all the parts that deal with the unexpected, such as parts of marketing and production, maintenance, middle management are the sectors most exposed in this activity.
- **policy** - all that activity concerned with priorities, setting standards, allocation of resources, initiation of action. There may be a policy department, but also top management are included here.

It is suggested that differing cultures are appropriate to these four main activities. These activities overlap to some degree:

- **steady state** - role culture
- **crisis/breakdown** - power culture
- **innovation** - task culture
- **policy** - power culture

So, if the appropriate culture prevails where that set of activities prevails, then that part of the organization is supposed to be more effective. Organizations should differentiate their cultures and structures according to the dominant kind of activity in that department, division or section.

One culture should not be allowed to swamp an organization. Too often, organizations wish to bring everything into the steady state, which they think will lead to greater security but which also leads to decay. Similarly, a task culture or a power culture is likely to be inappropriate for the bulk of an organization's activities. An individual who is right for one culture may not fit at all into another one. This is a version of the 'Peter principle', which holds that a person is promoted to their level of incompetence. Some people thrive on dealing with breakdown, and derive much satisfaction from getting things put right; others favour experimentation and investigation and would be best in the task culture of R & D.

It is important that these different cultures and activities are integrated, and this may be achieved by appointing a co-ordinator, with expert power, with interpersonal skills, and appropriate status in the organization who is given the information needed in his/her position in order to take the necessary decisions. It has been found that high levels of differentiation between departments, in terms of time horizons, orientations to the market, interpersonal styles and formality of organizational structure are indicative of the "high performers" amongst organizations. [Lawrence and Lorsche, 1967]. Morse and Lorsche [1970] found very different styles of management in a successful laboratory compared with a successful manufacturing plant. Joan Woodward found that the more effective organizations were the ones whose structure seemed appropriate to the technology. Peters and Waterman, with their studies of 'excellent' companies, mentioned earlier, showed that a mixture of cultures was effective.

**5 Example: safety culture [SC]**

Safety culture has been 'blamed' for a number of incidents, including Deep Water Horizon, Exxon Valdisie, the failure relating to the MoX pellets of plutonium from BNFL to Japan and even Fukushima. So it is important to understand what SC comprises.

The number of factors within SC has been shown in investigations to be somewhere between 3 and 17. The most commonly occurring within these researches include:

- Risk awareness and perception
- Risk taking, risk avoidance, and loss avoidance behaviours
- Perceived personal responsibility and involvement
- Perceived management responsibility
- Management style communication
- Trust, Loyalty and Commitment
- Job satisfaction
- Safety standards and goals

And all of these have been shown to relate to incidents as well as accidents [as in the safety pyramid]. Thus Sc is an important predictor of safety performance and is responsible for higher or lower levels of injuries, near misses, etc. Latent conditions and active failures refer to the underlying organizational context and then other [active, behavioural] problems on top of that. SC can even be used to predict worker injury involvement and can determine what behaviours are acceptable or will be rewarded. A safe culture is informed, just, flexible, based on problem-solving rather than blame, and an essential element is reporting.
Successes may be attributed to ‘safety intelligence’, which involves certain types of leadership and management skills related to the above list but also including empathy with the shop floor.

**How many safety cultures are there? Examples where there are at least two**
- Airplane cockpit crew and cabin crew
- Management and employees
- Management and technical/professional
- Tribal or ethnic groupings
- Men and women
- Retail or Manufacturing or Chemical/petroleum?

Is safety culture conceptually different at different job grades, e.g. management or employee?
- Almost certainly yes, to some degree

Is it conceptually similar in different organizations, e.g. would we expect it to have the same dimensions in a retail outlet as in a chemical plant?
- Often no, as people become sensitised to their own work environment

**SC links with HR include**
- Performance management
- Knowledge management
- Selection issues
- Training issues
- Employee relations
- Motivation and reward
- Blame culture and attributions
- Stress and presenteeism
- Job design issues
- Work scheduling, e.g. shiftworking

**SC links with organizational policy include**
- Strategic decisions need to take safety implications into account. In both MoX and Piper Alpha the management [strategic] imperatives created both these problems
- Use of agencies
  - Does one ensure that they have the same working conditions as one’s own employees
- Use of subcontractors
  - Should one insist on the same SMS and HR conditions?

**SC and how employees feel**
- Trust is crucial
- The damage of one ‘bad’ incident outdoes 10 or 20 good ones
- Affect heuristic
- Risk and ‘the other’
- Technocratic bias of many safety initiatives
- Ideological or religious influences on behaviour

**6 Organizational Development [OD]- a Western technique with nothing to offer other cultures?**

OD has been defined as "a long-range effort to improve an organization's problem-solving and renewal processes, particularly through a more effective and collaborative management of organizational culture...with the assistance of a change agent, or catalyst, and the use of the theory and technology of applied behavioural science".

OD is very much orientated to Western values and ideals, which, amongst other things, aim for employees to accept "constructive criticism". This phrase has been mentioned increasingly in literature on management development and it is hard for many people to accept. In Western organizations, the notion of confronting problems head on, being assertive about the work of colleagues, admitting that you need training and development seems to be an increasingly mentioned part of the way we are encouraging managers to behave.

If people have value systems that seek to emphasise pride in work, relationships with colleagues and family, status and position, but where the values treat poor performance as being shameful rather than something to be admitted to and remedied, then OD will be totally inappropriate. Instead, management development would need to build upon those values, so that it could be achieved by reinforcing pride and self-esteem for good work and by learning new activities and new ways of doing things to gain status and position.

Many organizations choose to focus on the development of their staff in order to improve efficiency and make changes for the 'better', self-development is often perceived to involve trusting the employee to take responsibility for their own actions, i.e.
autonomy and responsibility. However, the organization may also often send signals which contradict that trust, autonomy and responsibility. An example here would be the introduction of tough disciplinary measures, indiscriminately applied, for absence from work.

OD has often been described as involving 'action research' and it centres around interpersonal behaviour, attitudes and values, as well as the more traditional aims and objectives. There is usually an emphasis on openness between colleagues, improved conflict resolution methods, more effective team management and the collaborative diagnosis and solution of problems. Collaboration implies not only trust, but shared expertise and a loss of the status that is associated with expertise and position. As a technique, OD favours bringing issues and emotions out into the open rather than 'brushing them under the carpet'; it tends to confront issues head on in order to resolve them; this will be intolerable to people who have pride in what they do and who are motivated to improve by new, positive training rather than the implied criticism that conflict and accusations bring. To use OD requires special help, usually a consultant in this kind of method. It seems to be the wrong methodology for much of Third World management and it is possible that it is also inappropriate for the newly emerging East European countries but it is important to know that it is a powerful technique for Western managers, although not necessarily popular with many of them when applied to them personally.

OD would also have fundamental philosophical and conceptual problems if transferred to a Japanese culture, where the group is the focus of attention. New ideas are not developed unless one's work group has approved and adopted them; work is done by managers because it is needed rather than because they are told to do it; there is little reinforcement on an individual level; everyone dresses and behaves in a more equal way. Perhaps the whole idea of OD needs to be rethought if it is ever to be applicable across such different cultures as have been described.

So, it can be seen that culture is a crucial aspect of an organization's functioning. This paper has considered differing types of culture and their appropriateness to organization, department and individual. It has also examined the effect of culture on measures of organizational success and has looked at some aspects of culture that differentiate between Western, Japanese and African concepts of culture.
Chapter 3:

International and cross-cultural issues
Geert Hofstede's five factors

power distance [PDI] - concerns the inequalities of power and how society, organizations or even families have different solutions. It may be concerned with the amount of power a manager has over his/her subordinates or the height of and number of levels in the organizational hierarchy. It is typified by how much fear subordinates have about expressing disagreement with managers.

uncertainty avoidance [UAI] - if this is high, the culture likes to control the future, and this may imply dogmatism, authoritarianism, and traditionalism; it is higher in the 'new democracies' [e.g. Austria, Japan, Italy] than in the 'old democracies' [e.g. Great Britain, USA, Canada]. At an individual level, uncertainty avoidance would mean a preference for structure and well-defined work rather than flexibility and 'ambiguity'.

individualism [IND] - is the opposite of collectivism. When individualism is low, people expect more help from family, friends and organization and give them more commitment in exchange. Individualism is rather high in the 'Anglo-Saxon' countries [USA, UK, Australia], whereas collectivism is high in Venezuela, Colombia, Pakistan and Japan.

masculinity [MAS] - for individuals, this means being more quantitative and connected with ambition, the desire to achieve, to earn more, whereas its opposite, femininity, is more qualitative and concerned with interpersonal relationships, the environment and a sense of service. Japan, Germany, USA, UK and Australia are all more masculine whereas the Scandinavian countries are more feminine; this is reflected in the greater amount of social, safety and environmental legislation in the Scandinavian countries.

long vs. short term orientation [LTO]. this is not simply whether we view things over longer or shorter time periods, but is more fundamental rooted in Confucianism. This dimension is more correctly called Confucian dynamism and long term orientation is viewed as being more concerned with harmony and therefore desirable.

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Table: Main Hofstede dimensions comparing ImportNET and other countries

The original work by Hofstede, published in 1983 was based on IBM and usable data were obtained for 40 of the original 50 countries and four dimensions were found. Only one country has changed significantly since then- South Africa- where original data were based on white managers only. Other countries may have changed but not to a great extent in terms of the dimensions although many have developed considerably economically since then. Some countries’ data have been added relatively recently, being those in Eastern Europe and some African countries. In the 1990s, the research by Hofstede with Bond identified a fifth dimension, being what is now called Long term-short term orientation, but this was really based on Confucian values, so reflects a wider set of values than simply time based one.

The five Hofstede factors are now discussed in terms of their implications, using each dimension in turn.
Figure 1 shows the average values of European and Asian countries as well as USA and the world average. Not surprisingly the value for Individualism (IDV) is significantly high for USA and low for Asian countries. That means the people in USA are expected to look after him/herself and his/her immediate.

**Power- distance**

**Low PDI:** The types of values reflected here are those relating to beliefs that: inequality should be minimised, equal rights, the way to change a social system is to redistribute power, harmony between the powerful and the powerless is better than conflict, older people should be neither respected nor feared; people should be interdependent. Denmark and Austria most reflect these beliefs, but UK, Finland and Germany are also lower.

**High PDI:** Hierarchy is important, and there should be order in inequality and people knowing their place; older people should be respected and feared, power holders are entitled to privileges, superiors and subordinates consider each other as being of different kinds. India, Croatia and China score highly on this scale out of the countries shown.

**PDI differences in SME interaction and communications**

SMEs in India and Denmark - we would find very different attitudes to authority and the 'managers' rights to manage'. So an engineer in an SME in India might need clearance and approval from a senior manager or may be less able to negotiate something on behalf of his/her company. Decisions could take longer to be approved in India than in Denmark or Austria, causing potential delays. Both sides need to understand that the relationship with authority will be different in the different countries.

**Uncertainty avoidance**

**Low UAI:** Lower levels of work stress, less anxiety. Emotional feelings suppressed. Willingness to take risks. Comfortable with ambiguity and chaos. Company loyalty is not a virtue. Managers selected on ability rather than seniority. Preference for smaller organizations. Optimism about employer's motives. Most people can be trusted. Can admit dissatisfaction with employer. Acceptance of foreigners as managers. Facial expressions more easily readable. If necessary, employees may break the rules. Individual decisions, authoritative management and competition among employees acceptable, people more likely to change jobs and employers. Favourable attitude to young people, smaller generation gap. Willing to take unknown risks. More trusting. Flexible in orientation, low resistance to change. Keen for advancement and promotion. Belief that one can influence one's own life. GB, Denmark, India, China lowest on this.

**High UAI:** High levels of stress and anxiety, expressing emotions is normal, but not always easily read by others. Tendency to stay, value loyalty, managers selected for seniority. Critical attitudes toward young people and large generation gap. Less tolerant of diversity. Only known risks are taken. Inner urge to be busy. Conservatism, law and order, stick to the rules. Need for clarity and structure. Preference for larger organizations. Less trusting, need to be careful. Harmony with nature is appealing. Croatia, Austria and Hungary highest on the countries shown.

**UAI differences in SME interaction and communications**

For example, a company in China and one in Austria may disagree on the risks involved in a project; one member of one company may be happy with ambiguity in what is expected of them as they see that as giving them some 'freedom of...
manoeuvre' whereas the other wants to see the rules, procedures etc. all laid out and then they should stick to them. There will be different levels of trust. The ambiguity which is happily tolerated by someone from, say GB, may cause stress in someone from one of the two high UAI countries.

Masculinity/Femininity

**High M:** More masculine countries tend to be more competitive. Challenge and recognition important. Ego orientation. Values of women very different to those of men. Work central to one's life space- live in order to work. Men should be tough and take care of performance and women should be tender and take care of relationships. Money and things important. Men should be assertive and ambitious. Stress is on what you do. Belief in individual decisions. Employer may invade employees private lives. Promotion by protection. Achievement in terms of ego boosting, money and recognition. Austria and Hungary highest M, and GB, Germany and China above mid point on scale.

**High F:** Relationship orientation. Quality of life and people are important. Modesty preferable to assertion and ambition. Minimal social and emotional role differences between the genders. Small and slow are preferable to big and fast. Private life protected from employer. Promotion by merit. Achievement in terms of quality of contacts and interaction and the environment. Finland and Denmark score high on F, as does Croatia to a lesser extent.

**M/F differences in SME interaction and communications**

Examples include the likely greater numbers of women engineers and designers in Finland and Denmark. than in most other countries. There may be problems in accepting women's views as valid in high M countries. Different emphases on performance orientation in projects. May be less easy to contact employees on Finland and Denmark out of company hours( remember time differences here!)? People more likely to be available at all hours in higher M countries. More likely to see assertive, dominant behaviour amongst higher M countries, even where all men involved so they might vie for achievement and recognition.

Individualism/Collectivism

**High I:** Typically very high are GB, USA and Australia, Denmark lower but still high I. Importance of employees personal lives, freedom and challenge in jobs. Qualification for jobs in terms of performance of previous tasks. Identity based on the individual. Self-started activities. Individual initiative, achievement and leadership ideal. Tend to be emotionally independent. Calculative involvement. May change organizations more often. Earnings more important than interesting work. May be more hedonistic. Guilt (rather than shame).

**High C:** 'Extended' families protect in exchange for loyalty. Identity based in social system, emphasis on belonging. Shame (rather than guilt). Values standards differ for in-group as opposed to out-group. Greater emotional dependence on institution or organization. Greater importance attached to what is provided, e.g. physical working conditions. Qualifications for job based on years of education and experience. Moral involvement with company. Interesting work as important as earnings. Knowing the right people is important. Duty, expertise and prestige important as life goals. Large company may be more attractive than small local one. China highest C of all countries.

**I/C differences in SME interaction and communications**

In a project, high I much more likely to work individually, take less notice of what others think, use their personal initiative more. High C countries much more likely to discuss issues with the group or company, not want to take big decisions without discussion, will take group responsibility rather than individual credit or blame. Seniority in terms of age, experience and education will determine whether issues are approved or not, and consultation times may make things slower than UK/US people would wish. The role of networking within and between high C organizations is important and must not be underestimated, as it can kill potential projects. High I people may be more likely to be impatient with some of these issues. High individualism may be interpreted as arrogance, hedonistic, bombastic and selfish. High collectivism may be interpreted as deliberately slowing proceedings down, being too cautious and not willing to commit to things.

Long term/short term orientation

**Long term:** China scores very highly on long term orientation, although in some places this may be partly being eroded as Chinese businesses look towards making money more than in the past. Nevertheless the primary orientation of Chinese people is not so much to short-term gain as it would be in European countries. Some of the values associated with the long term orientation as define here include: persistence and perseverance, thrift, having a sense of shame. Ordering relationships by status and observing that order. Also personal adaptability, steadiness, protecting your "face" is common although may be viewed as a weakness. Respect for tradition but prepared to adapt to new circumstances. Reciprocation of greetings, favours and gifts- but need acre not to over overspend. Most important events will occur in future.

**Short term:** This is associated with expectations of quick results, not feeling shame, knowing how to spend rather than being thrifty. Leisure time is important. Status is not an issue in relationships. Tending to focus on the past or on the present. Tendency to save only in smaller amounts; investment preferred in mutual funds rather than real estate.

**LT-ST differences in SME interaction and communications**

People will view businesses differently in terms of the long and short term future of the business and will look for quick results for ST organizations and anything up to 20 years into the future for LT organizations. Or, if a problem occurs in a project, there will be differences in levels of persistence to solve it. Another example would be spending money or taking more thrifty options. There will be different pressures to show results.

An example might be a project involving the UK and China, where a time scale was agreed, but this was actually nominated by the British, and the Chinese, not wanting to offend, acquiesced. Then maybe some slippage, through no particular person's fault, and the British might blame the Chinese for taking things too slowly, and the Chinese might blame the British but would
not say so as it would offend, so there would be tension and mistrust in both directions, which may extend to an unwillingness next time to commit to a project, but for nearly opposite reasons. Within the project, assurances might have been given about doing things "as a matter of priority" or "as soon as possible" or "hopefully by the end of next week", all of which carry some ambiguity which means the phrases not only need to be interpreted in terms of what they might actually mean (e.g. what does 'hopefully' imply?) but what in addition might beliefs about each other add to the interpretation of when thing would be done. So interpretation about when a job would be finished is a combination of the information from the original agreement (which might mean different interpretations), speed of working and prioritisation, values and expectations about whether the job should be done quickly or more slowly but accurately, literal interpretations of phrases, implied meanings of phrases, etc.

Other dimensions in addition to those of Hofstede

Time perception
This includes the concept from Trompenaars that relates to sequential versus parallel time, which is similar conceptually to the almost sanctified (time is money) linear time (monochronic time) which is so characteristic of the US, Switzerland and Germany to the concept of multi-active time which characterises the Southern Europeans (Lewi-06). Multi-active time (polychronic time) means doing as many things as possible at the same time and being less interested in schedules and punctuality, and this may offend the sense of order, tidiness and planning of the Swiss, Germans and Americans. In Eastern cultures, time may be viewed cyclically, where humans adapt to time; time is not viewed linearly or event-relationship related, but the days, weeks, season etc come and go and continue to do so in cycles. So there is not necessarily any need for quick decisions- the past constitutes the contextual background to the present, and the thinking, as per the long-term orientation, is well into the future. The same risks, problems, opportunities and issues may re-present themselves in the next cycle. The Chinese and Japanese and others from nearby countries may ‘circle round’ a problem and take time for reflection. However the Chinese like punctuality and may even arrive early, and appreciate the importance of time, but time serves other purposes, such as attaining greater closeness, common trust and intent (Lewi-06).

Linear time may be partly predictable, as it can be considered metaphorically as a (straight) road along which we proceed. Cyclical time may be more curved and observers of this are less disciplined in their planning for the future.

Attitudes to working late also vary across cultures- for example, the British see this as a sign of loyalty or enthusiasm, whereas the Scandinavians might see it as inefficient or incompetent; in Japan it would be seen as a necessary obligation to the organization and to the manager if it was required and would be done without question, as happens in many Japanese companies throughout the world (NeMi-92). Time perceptions in relation to action once decisions are taken may also vary- for example Germans might want work to commence as soon as a decision to implement was taken.

Universalism- particularism
This refers to a general belief that what is good and true can be identified and applied everywhere (universalism). But if society believes that unique circumstances and relationships prevail, then that society is based on particularism. Universalists are more likely to rely on contracts and legal strategies whereas particularists rely more on trust and relationships. Western societies are more likely to be universalist, whereas Eastern societies are more likely to be particularists.

Expression of emotion
This relates to how societies express emotions. In affective societies, such as Mexico and the Netherlands, expressing emotions openly is natural, whereas in neutral cultures, such as Japan and China, emotions are held under control. This dimension relates in part to the emotional component of UAI in the Hofstede factors.

Specific-diffuse relationships
This relates to the degree to which people feel comfortable with dealing with other people. In a specific-relationship society, people prefer to keep their private lives separate and closely guarded; typically, this describes the US and UK. In diffuse-relationship cultures, such as Germany, individuals have large private and relatively small public lives. Because of this, Germans are likely to maintain formal relationships and see Americans or Britons as intrusive and disrespectful when they ask questions like ‘Where did you go to school?’. But in contrast, Americans are likely to see the Germans as reserved and difficult to get to know.

Achieving versus ascribing status
This describes how status and power are determined. Status can be achieved by either an individual position or identity. In achievement orientated societies such as Austria or the US, workers and managers are evaluated by how well they perform the tasks associated with their jobs, and people are judged by how well they compare with others in similar positions. In ascribing societies, such as China or Venezuela, status is associated with such variables as age, gender, qualifications, or the importance of theee task or project.
Chapter 4

Perception
[i] Sensation:

Preccedes perception an concerns the basic senses-

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<td>Touch</td>
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[a] Marketers make use of fact that sense of smell is more complex than taste. E.g: advertising perfume using 'smell samples' or allowing smell of baking bread to permeate large food retail outlets. How well does this marketing tactic work?

[b] Thresholds- (i) absolute - e.g. the smallest amount of something that can be perceived, such as speech in a noisy working environment or sounds in adverts and (ii) difference thresholds in terms of the smallest difference that can be perceived, for example in inspection procedures at work or in package colours etc. Also Weber's law, that jnd is a constant. Thresholds are defined in terms of capability; e.g.: how much difference will be noticed. However, the product and the reference price need to be taken into account- for example, a £1 rise in the price per room of the Malmaison will be unlikely to be above the jnd, whereas £1 rise in the cost of a beefburger would be, as would £1 rise in a product costing £99 or £999 [CzK 2800 or 28000].

[c] Blind tasting experiments; many consumers cannot tell the difference between products, e.g. the recent case with the Cola cans from Sainsburys and the fact that blind tasting of cola shows few people can differentiate by taste.

[ii] Perceptual Selectivity:

[a] selective exposure- choosing to be exposed to situations which we think will be interesting or necessary. These might frame perception, i.e., create perceptual sets. Allport (1955) introduced the term 'set' as meaning a perceptual bias or predisposition and claimed that motivation and emotion do not directly influence perception themselves, but do so by influencing sets. There are several ways in which set influences perception:

[a] by selecting certain high priority stimuli to gain immediate access to consciousness, creating expectations whereby the observer knows what to look for and what information to select from the incoming flood.
[b] it acts as an interpreter - e.g. Bruner (1949) showed how poor children overestimated the size of coins compared with wealthy children.

Other ways in which set influence perception includes perceptual defence (which prevents us perceiving things which we do not wish to perceive, perhaps because they are distasteful or frightening) and perceptual sensitization, which will speed up or enhance recognition e.g. by recognising shapes as 'food' when we are hungry. Many factors influence set - motivation and emotion as Allport suggested, and also expectancy, reward/punishment and individual differences including age and personality factors. Gregory said that "a perceived object is an hypothesis, suggested and tested by sensory data" and perhaps the most vital fact here is that the order in which the hypotheses are put up for trial to check their interpretative viability is determined by sets. It has been suggested that 'strong perceptual expectations provide a sort of right-of-way into consciousness by determining which structures and meanings will be tried first" i.e., the influence of sets is at the very core of the making of a perception.

[b] selective attention- choosing from the available stimuli which remain. Can be planned, spontaneous or involuntary. We are able to concentrate on what we see even at a physiological level, in that accuracy of vision is greater in the centre of the retina than at the periphery. We can also concentrate selectively both at a conscious and a sub-conscious level because our attention span is limited in capacity. The limits are set by processing capacity and size of the short-term memory systems and also by fatigue, practice effects etc.; one could liken the whole process to a set of filters that remove most of what is actually before us. Certain types of stimulus are more likely to attract attention than others - e.g. in very young babies where contrast, colour movements are more likely to attract attention. Studies in this area have been valuable in setting guidelines about what sort of stimuli might be best used as warning devices egg car brake lights, warning signals in aircraft etc. and also in advertising where it is imperative (to manufacturers at least ) that we see an advert.

[iii] Selective interpretation, perceptual categorisation and inference

Use of LTM to aid how the material is interpreted. Perceptual organization- Gestalt principles of figure/ground; proximity; similarity; continuation; common fate; closure; symmetry. Constancies, context, set.

Repertory Grid. Schema. Problems of mis-categorisation or inability to categorise new brands or products. Example is Woolworths' attempt to change their categorisation, also Gerber food in USA. Need to help consumers to categorise, using exemplar strategies.

Making judgements, attribution theory. Development of beliefs about products. Stimulus cues are important and inferences are made rapidly. Cues could include colour, brand name, use of family branding [name of company linked to brand]. Example: Advertising products in newspapers and magazines: AIDA.
[iv] Use of knowledge of perception and consumer inferences

attract attention
* the use of colour, relative size, position, motion, contrast effects, music, celebrities, eye-level effects
* use of novel stimuli, hedonism, complex pictures, edits and cuts, typefaces, company logo, 'white space'
* cues to aid recognition [not recall]. figure-ground: eg black on yellow, contrast effects, embedded figures
* typefaces: as imagery, some more easily read

maintain attention
* enhance relevance to self- ask rhetorical questions, use drama [both for consumer behaviour and workplace training] , enhance curiosity about brand, use of suspense, surprise, humour, withhold information, use 'realistic material [eg job adverts, selling houses]
* what is the USP [unique selling proposition]?

other issues
* Tolerance of perceptual ambiguity- related to stress and shows cross-cultural differences
* Ergonomics: display and control design of products
* Signal Detection theory, e.g. stimulus frequency, fatigue.
* Use of "atmospherics" and the management of stimuli to attract particular customers.
* Perceptions of value, e.g. a 'bargain' vs. 'you get what you pay for'
* Perceived self-image.
* Perception of risk.
* Price perceived as an extrinsic cue to aid judgement about the quality of the product.
* Reference pricing [e.g. sale vs. regular price].
* Price lining- setting prices at top end of customer price preference and show against much lower price to obtain result at higher price; depends upon consumer research to identify relevant consumers.
* Image management, to coordinate each of the elements of the marketing mix [product, price, place, promotion]. Does this work when 90% of new product launches fail?
* Effects of personal characteristics- age, sex, job, social class; benefits sought by consumer- eg. style, quality, behaviour of consumer- eg. loyalty, likes and dislikes, values and beliefs.

Example: changing food preferences and rise of junk food for children show key trends of [a] short term: more snacking and 'grazing', less formal meals, more special food products, greater health awareness and [b] long term: increased consumption of fats and sugars, rising status of children within households, more special provision for children, more institutional mechanisms to protect standards (Gofton, 1992 and Mintel reports) . How has all this changed perceptual phenomena in advertising?

[v] Basis for Perception

Much behaviour is rooted in the perceptual process which, whilst appearing simple, is actually complex. Perception can be distinguished from sensation, the latter being when stimuli reach the receptor cells which convert the light waves etc. into electrical impulses, and the former being “a dynamic searching for the best interpretation of the available data” which goes beyond the evidence given (Gregory, 1996). Barber and Legge (1976) argue that "perception involves the operation of the senses and is effected in the shadow of the expectations, hopes, fears, needs and memories that make up our internal world".

Brunswick's model of perception
a. Remote past experiences eg. motivation, set
b. Present world and objects in the environment
c. Sensory stimulation
d. Perception of objects etc. around us
e. Physiological responses ready for action
f. Overt action
g. Predicting future consequences and actions.

Over 90% of information about the world is received through the visual sense; it is not surprising, therefore, that the majority of experimental work has been done on visual perception, although some work has attempted to link visual with other sensory modes, particularly in the applied areas of perception, such as the consumer and industrial fields. However perception goes beyond the immediate evidence of the senses and is both interpretive and predictive; it is an active system, converting the sensations into a state of awareness of the world around us and how it is organised. Brunswick (1952) proposed a model of perception that relates its role to an individual’s overall behaviour.

Research has investigated the linkages between the various parts of the chain, e.g. work on depth perception and the constancies (shape, size, colour etc.) shows the links between 'd' and 'e' and studies of perceptual set show the effects of 'a' on the whole process. One of the most useful areas of investigation has been into perceptual selectivity and those (internal) factors such as set which influence it.
Social perception is the process of recognising the attitudes, motives, abilities etc. of ourselves and others; however, it also affects our responses to people and objects, and people will also alter their own behaviour in response to the way they are treated, eg. Rosenthal- Pygmalion in the classroom, where evidence suggests that children becomes more like the teachers' perceptions of them over a period of time - this is the paradox: that a perceptual hypothesis may alter the real world and almost create a self-fulfilling prophesy.

[a] Self Perception.
Since the late '40s Carl Rogers' work on counselling and therapy has led individuals in the direction of 'exploration and liberation of the self' and has also led to various sorts of management and social skills training.

Secord and Backman (1964) proposed three aspects to the self: the cognitive, the affective and the behavioural [see notes on attitudes, where the same three-way division is apparent]. The cognitive component represents judgements which are essentially descriptive and will be mainly factual; the affective component represents feelings and may not often be expressed in words - it may also includes general self-evaluation as well as specific judgements; the behavioural component is the tendency to act out characteristics such as posture, gesture, gait, etc.

These three aspects combine to form the self-image. The more integrated the self-image, the more consistent a person's behaviour. Self-image may suppress behaviour that is out of line. There have been many investigations into the development of the self-image from birth eg. how a youngster becomes aware of the independence of his/her own existence in terms of recognising that they have control of their own actions through to the importance of body image in adolescence and adulthood.

The study of this development has important implications for advertisers and for consideration of the impact of self-image on normal functioning in society. There is evidence that people choose supermarkets and department stores that correspond with their own self image (Statt, 1997). There is also evidence that if the development of the self-image is stopped, such as by young people aged 17-25 being unemployed and not in education, it can be difficult to restart, and if this goes on beyond 25, may be impossible to restart, leaving the person [especially males] with a poorly developed self-image that may make them unemployable.

Secord and Backman have identified how the individuals maintain and stabilise their self-image:-

(a) Misperception of incoming negative evaluation.
(b) Selective interaction - choose people with whom they can establish a 'congruent state';
(c) Response evocation - behaving and dressing to evoke particular responses;
(d) Selective evaluation of the other person - reducing the status and liking of someone who negatively evaluates you [see, for example cognitive dissonance theory or attribution theory]
(e) Selective evaluation of self - downgrade importance of aspects in which we are weaker;
(f) Affective congruency - defence mechanisms in response to unfavourable reactions from others;
(g) Roles - adoption and playing of certain roles to make behaviour more stereotyped, uniform and predictable;
(h) Constancy of interaction - spending most of our social lives in the company of a relatively unchanging group of friends and colleagues.

These maintenance and stabilising functions are basic psychological functions, and are thus relatively independent of culture and race. However, their operationalization has to take place within particular contexts so that many will vary according to certain norms and behavioural rules.

Self-image changes with age and as a result of changes in occupation either by level (i.e. with promotion) or by job changes. "Highly significant others" eg. people whom we respect and value as colleagues or friends, can also bring about changes in our self-image.

The Johari window of self image

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>A: Known to self</th>
<th>B: Known to self</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Known to others</td>
<td>Unknown to others 'hidden self image'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Unknown to self</td>
<td>Unknown to others</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sensitivity training, eg. in T-groups, has an objective of increased social awareness; this term refers not only to awareness of others but also to self-awareness and is seen in the "Johari Window". Sensitivity training will aim to open up B and C to
increase awareness; T-groups were once described as 'not for those of nervous disposition' since learning about how others perceive us may be quite painful!

The self-image may be measured using rating scales, checklists and projective techniques. There are also various 'sorting' techniques, but they have a poor record in terms of validity and bias. Most of the measuring techniques are subject to individual bias and therefore rely on honesty in order to have any validity. Some personality tests have attempted to reduce this bias by incorporating 'lie scales' or by presenting an ipsative forced-choice means of response, but these types of test are less frequently used because of length and/or complexity.

Cook (1997) defines this as 'the study of the ways people react and respond to others, in thought, feeling and actions'; this definition covers both the making of judgements and responses from simple communication through to the most complex evaluations.

There are large individual differences in the ability to perceive and respond to others. It is important to differentiate between dynamic and static attributes in interpersonal perception. There are many areas of perception which show sex differences, also differences in age, personality types etc. (e.g. Warr, 1985). The situation is further complicated by behaviour being situation-specific and so one's perception of people may be based on atypical samples of behaviour.

There are three reasons why we tend to select certain aspects of ourselves to put on view:

i. Social synchronisation eg. making safe conversation with strangers to avoid interaction which is emotionally disturbing or too demanding;

ii. The need to be liked by others: we seek to maximise our social attractiveness, thus we are careful initially not to reveal too much of ourselves or our beliefs for fear of rejection;

iii. Response bias; a person will often adjust their behaviour according to the perceived status or acceptability of the recipient. The inference model (see Cook, 1971) offers an explanation: we recognise or identify certain attributes in an individual, associate these factors with other attributes and then infer that the individual before us possesses these additional qualities (although they cannot be judged directly).

In interpersonal perception, there is a basic sequence of identify--associate--infer. When making identifications, we examine information in terms of content ('direct' information), context (environment) and non-verbal behaviours. The order in which we receive information is important - the recency effect has more influence over our perception of people we know well (Luchins, 1959), whilst the primacy effect affects our judgement of strangers. We then make associations using four sources: induction (experience); construction - invented, perhaps as defence mechanisms; analogy- if something is true of one person, it is probably true of another; and authority - what parents, teachers, managers etc., tell us.

Several factors affect this "identify--associate--infer" process, eg. age, culture etc. In the process of inference or judgement, factors may be judged as being of greater importance (central) or as less important (peripheral). The central dimension(s) will be the most salient to us and are the evaluative dimensions (hence the "halo/horns" effect). How dimensions become central to us - and this will obviously vary between individuals - is complex. Kelly (1955) developed Personal Construct theory which explains how one's "construct" system is essentially predictive in order to make some sense of the world. According to Kelly, we possess a hierarchical system of constructs which are constantly being modified to take into account new information and which enable us to make predictive judgements about what we perceive. These constructs can incorporate both object and person perception.

Other researchers considering dimensions of judgement include Osgood and Tannenbaum (1957) who developed the semantic differential technique; they researched the attributes which people use to evaluate objects, concepts, and people, and found three major dimensions of judgement: evaluative - good/bad types of judgement; potency - strong/weak types of judgement; and activity -active/passive types of judgement.

Stereotyping is the process whereby groups are identified eg. ethnic groups and certain characteristics are attributed to those groups. This attribution may be based on no actual knowledge whatsoever, but entirely gleaned from other people, television, literature etc. Then, any individual in that group is described as possessing all the attributes from that group. Attribution theory can also help explain some of these issues. Commonly held cultural stereotypes include the Germans being perceived as industrious and the English as traditional-loving. Social Identity theory considers how social mapping is central to interpersonal perception because we define our own identity and that of others in terms of group memberships. In advertising, reference groups are often presented as an ideal, especially for high involvement, high affect products.

Stereotypes are very resistant to change - early investigations indicated that decades are needed in some cases to produce any significant shifts. One serious effect of stereotyped judgements is in the process of selection interviewing where not simply ethnic stereotypes but sex-related stereotypes are of major concern. Recent evidence both here and in the USA suggests that
discrimination is still commonplace and may be no better than it was a decade ago; it is arguable that a lot of discrimination may be rooted in stereotyping.

There are many other factors associated with making inaccurate judgements about people; the literature in the areas of social perception and of interviewing skills covers this in great detail. Indeed, much of the work done in training interviewers is spent trying to minimise the many known interviewer biases (see Fletcher, 1989); the often quoted levels of validity of the interview in the region of $r=2.3$ show that the general record of interviewing as a predictor is poor.

[vii] Social influence: how perception, attitudes and behaviour are influenced

Social Identity theory
Social Identity theory states that the social groups and categories to which we belong constitute an important part of our self-concept, and that at times a given individual will interact with other people not as a single individual but as a representative of a whole group or category of people. In business this could sometimes be referred to as “wearing a different hat”. Three fundamental processes underlying social identification:

- **Categorising**: the basic tendency to classify things into groups. Accentuate similarities in the in-group and exaggerate the differences between groups
- **Social comparison**: One group is compared with other groups and its relative status is determined. Will then take into account beliefs of own group and disregard beliefs from other groups
- **Self-esteem**: People seek to belong to groups that will reflect positively on their self-esteem, and will seek to leave groups or distance themselves from those which do not.

Social identity theory is used in advertising and can be influential in the way that people perceive and purchase products and services. It can influence how people perceive other groups such as members of the medical or legal professions, and it might help to explain low levels of compliance in for example safety behaviours.

Models of perceptions and attitudes to risk

[a] Cognitive models

Self-regulation model (Leventhal, 1989 and 1989)

This theory says that culture, language, institutions and groups, in other words all those things that define the context in which we live and work, all influence self-identity.

Self-identity includes how much control we believe we have [autonomy], how we attribute causes and consequences and the time-line. When outside stimuli come in to our senses, the context and our self-identity influence how we perceive and represent things such as risk, how we cope with it and how we appraise what happens. So all the outside factors– our friends and family, the part of society in which we live, our social status all directly affect how we see ourselves and how we respond to our own health.

[b] Discourse and narrative models

These involve the analysis of what we say in order to understand how we perceive ourselves and what influences there are on our behaviour. So for example, we can distinguish "public accounts" from "private accounts" where we say things in public that are socially acceptable but in private say things which for example may contradict the medical establishment.

When we come across things that are new or unfamiliar we need to build up social representations and we do this in one of two ways:

- **anchoring**: by connecting the unfamiliar to something familiar
- **association**: with some everyday phenomenon

An example of how the two approaches might result in very different perceptions would be the AIDS health awareness campaigns: for some people, the incidence of AIDS was anchored to the aberrant behaviour of others, a protective function achieved by distancing oneself. For others, who felt more vulnerable when the publicity sought to link AIDS with heterosexual rather than homosexual behaviour, the association built up [in the advertisements] was one of tombstones.

Non-compliance

It has been estimated that the levels of non-compliance with instructions from medical practitioners is as high as 80% for some patients and some behaviours. For safety instructions at work, it may similarly be very high. People will 'customise' their behaviours to fit with their own lifestyle, and then recognise that they are still complying with what they perceive as the general features of the instruction.

One explanation is that people indulge in 'reasoned decision-making' whereby once away from, for example, the training room and the instructor, they will use other information sources to help them decide on how to behave: such sources include their friends and family, the media, perceived affiliation biases, and even the community. There are large ethnic differences here, where some cultures bring strong attitudes and beliefs into their perception and behaviour: these include attitudes towards reciprocity, retribution and predestiny which are important in some cultures, harmony and balance, individualism, hedonism, etc. See notes on cross-cultural differences.
[viii]. Implications
Perception is a process which is fundamental to all other psychological processes yet paradoxically it is also influenced by them since information processing constitutes a whole system with feedback loops. There are very many examples of the direct application of various theories in perception to consumer and work behaviours, such as:

* Appraisal systems
* The selection interview
* Interviewer skill training
* Analysis of accidents
* Improved teamwork, using theories of social perception
* Analysis of absenteeism using attribution theory
* Perception of price; pricing policies
* Layout of advertising and use of white space
* Use of atmospherics and layout of products in shops
* Interpersonal and social perception in interaction with salespeople
* Perceptual mapping
* Reduction of organizational conflict with OD techniques (eg. Schein 1980)
* Improved appraisal of performance and potential
* Perception of risk (see Slovic (2000))
* Improved training at all levels by application of perception and learning principles

For more on some aspects of these, please refer to the chapter on communications and persuasion, where impression management that relates to interviewing etc is covered.

References [indicative examples]
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Chapter 5

How we learn and remember: training and development
Introduction
If you can remember it, then you have learned it at some point. The learning may have been deliberate, or it may be vicarious.

In the world of work, learning and memory are crucial to how we perform our jobs, how we interact with people, how rules and regulations are applied, how people are trained and developed, how we respond to change, etc etc. If we are not born with it, then we have learned it, and this applies to social, physical, procedural, mental and other skills, performance in team roles and also to attitudes and personality, the latter two having both inherited predispositions as well as learned elements. This means that for example elements of innovative behaviour may be learned but the predisposition to be innovative may contain an inherited component as well.

In the consumer world, learning and memory play an important part in the value of advertising. There is research suggesting that advertisements need to be repeated at least 12 times before consumers may remember them. This begs the question of whether remembering involves recall or recognition, and whether the 12x repeats work as well in the context of competing adverts for comparable or alternative products. There is also the question of whether remembering an advert is actually associated with purchasing behaviour or intention to purchase, and whether this differs for high vs. low involvement products and for high or low frequency purchases.

Information Processing model of human behaviour

![Information Processing model of human behaviour diagram]

Note: F refers to filter; these operate throughout the learning and information processing.

Learning
(a) Types of learning
[1] Trial and error learning is the most basic form of learning. It may operate when you get a new piece of software and try to use it without using the manual. Or it can happen with new products.

[2] Learning by imitation is clearly how children learn; in countries such as Japan, this method is often employed in industry as new employees learn by watching the expert then trying to copy them. Imitation is also related to the adoption of new products. Important to locate the innovators e.g. post-it notes and how 3Ms helped their innovative employees to be creative (Thompson, 1984).

[3] Learning by association, such as classical conditioning or modeling. In the workplace, poor behaviours by supervisors or managers will be copied, modeled and learned by association; an example here would be if the managers appeared to deliberately cut corners or disregard safety procedures, so then this behaviour is copied by their subordinates. Once established,
such behaviours are difficult to eradicate, and in safety, where accidents are rare events, the poor learning may not come to light until a serious event occurs.

How we learn what words mean [i.e. the semantic representation] is likely to be a function of two things: first, experiential information, derived from our feelings and emotional state and from our sensory-motor interactions with what is going on around us; second from the general linguistic context in which the word appears (Vigliocco, current research at UCL). The implications of this include that we take into account our emotions when we are ascertaining what an unfamiliar word means; so if a manager or technical person at work is using a word that we don't understand, we derive its meaning from the context in which the word is presented as well as our own feelings. In the cross-cultural world, according to Edward Hall, this would imply a high-context culture.

A consumer example is credits cards as conditioned stimuli -spending due to prior association with positive feelings from acquiring new possessions (Fernberg, 1986). A further example is a lottery used to encourage reduced petrol consumption (Fox & Shaeffer, 1981). You can learn favourable attitudes through established classical conditioning procedures; awareness can influence attitudes toward a conditioned stimulus, particularly under conditions of high involvement and high need for cognition (Pruick and Till, 2004). Brand names can be imprinted ahead of the presentation of specific brand information; this strengthens the association between brand name and brand information and this effect is automatic and independent of other known means to strengthen memory associations (Baker, 2003). An aspect of CC is stimulus generalization: this is where responses to one stimulus generalize to another stimulus generating the same response; a good example is brand loyalty, where you would hold more positive attitudes and purchasing behaviours across all products in the brand. Response generalisation on the other hand is what advertisers try to avoid in that advertising one product may encourage customers to buy similar products from other advertisers. Stimulus discrimination in advertising focuses on the product's unique features; this can present problems for products which are essentially similar, such as Cinzano and Martini, small cars, etc. where it is actually difficult to isolate unique features because there are so few of them; it can also present problems as it will not contribute to the desirable stimulus generalisation for branding.

[4] Insight learning may be relevant to how people learn to understand complicated logic or maths, or even complex situations where cause and effect needs to be established, or where new methods need to be found in terms of lateral thinking.

(b) Operant Conditioning principles

Operant conditioning is where consequences are used to modify behaviour. It is commonplace in the training and development world- an obvious example being in programmed learning often used to train IT people. Another example is biofeedback-sensory feedback can allow people to gain control of autonomous nervous system and has been used to treat people with stress.

Operant conditioning principles can be seen at work in the form if the use of incentives and penalties to control behaviour. The situation may involve little choice for the worker if they need the job and its income for survival [as much as the organizations needs labour input] and in this case the situation is transactional. Some organizations apply incentive systems to control attendance/absence, such as free draws in lotteries for those with no absence in a rolling year- a positive but relatively ineffectual approach- or the threat of warning letters and dismissal for frequent absence, which is likely to create low levels of trust and commitment [Harvey and Nicholson, 1993].

Avoidance or punishment conditioning can sometimes be seen where the manager choose to 'rule' by fear or coercion; the threat may be that if you 'step out of line' or do not comply, then you may be given more unpleasant tasks to do; in extremis this constitutes bullying. It can also be seen in relatively undisguised forms in political party broadcasts and it is doubtful that the use of threats of what will happen if the 'other party' gets into power may not be a very effective strategy as it engages affective rather than cognitive processes.

The reinforcement- affect model describes how people or products can be liked or disliked, depending on whether they are associated with positive or negative feelings. So, for example, you would be more likely to like a person if you met them at a time when you were feeling positive, or product if it were advertised when you were in comfortable (rather than uncomfortable) conditions.

Conditioning principles (classical and operant) are used extensively in advertising. Theme tunes can also be repeated on radio to invoke the imagery of the product or programme and in desirable surroundings they show the power of advertising to enhance learning by association, for example many products are shown as being associated with people with lots of leisure time and on holidays (see Statt, 1997). Operant conditioning can be seen in terms of reward vouchers, points, free gifts etc. The difficulty here is that when the reinforcement is stopped, the effects can wear off unless well-established.

(c) Repetition and reinforcement

Reinforcement can be positive or negative. In terms of work performance and performance management, there is evidence that positive reinforcement improves learning much better than punishment or threat-based reinforcement. So 'management by fear' with negative reinforcement is inhibitory. Moderately attainable goals are more reinforcing than easy or difficult goals, for most people [e.g. Locke's goal theory in motivation]. In terms of managing attendance, the most effective strategy is positive and reward based, where the reward is praise in written form [e.g. letter to be placed on personal file] and possibly in a public way to draw attention to it as an exemplar [Harvey and Nicholson, 1993].
As a general rule, intermittent reinforcement is superior to continuous reinforcement. At work, the reinforcement may take the form of praise, or of having the opportunity for more interesting work, or some other 'perks'; if these are perceived as continuous, they lose their effect as employees become desensitized.

Advertising makes heavy use of reinforcement, using adverts to reinforce past product purchases and to help to create brand loyalty as well as to persuade new purchasers. The problem with reinforcement schedules is when they stop, such as when '2 for 1' offers cease, or when an advertising series stops. Although there is evidence that 12 repetitions is the maximum needed, the most effective repetition strategy may be a combination of spaced exposures that alternate in terms of media that are involving (e.g., television commercials) and less involving (e.g., billboards, product placements) and that an effective repetition strategy should encourage incidental processing during one presentation of the material and intentional processing during the other presentation of the material (Janiszewski, 2003). Simple repetition might make the advert appear more true and repetition of a name can also make it seem famous (Jacoby et al, 1989 and Arkes et al, 1991, both cited in Hogg and Vaughan 2002).

(d) Characteristics of the learner
These include intelligence, age, motivation, incentives, expectations, learning style, prior knowledge, and physical characteristics. In work terms, defining the 'trainees', for example by grade, profession, qualifications, past experience etc can allow training and development to operate with more homogenous populations, which is likely to yield more effective training. Programmed instruction techniques mitigate against the need for homogeneity by allowing trainees from a variety of backgrounds and levels of experience to proceed at their own paces rather than at the speed of the instructor. A very sophisticated form of homogeneous trainees is in pilot training, where only the most intelligent, stable and highly qualified are accepted for the training programme in order to ensure that the considerable sums spent on this are not wasted on unacceptable people.

In consumer terms, there is an issue of whether the consumer is more motivated by cognitive or affective elements in an advertisement: for experience good markets, such as holidays, it has been shown that informative (cognitive) is the primary effect rather than prestige or image (affect) (Ackerberg, 2003. This is also relevant to the world of work in areas such as trying to change safety attitudes and/or safety behaviour, where it is likely that affect is a more important factor than cognitive (Slovic, 2000).

(e) Characteristics of the material/activity/attitudes to be learned, methods of learning and learning theories.
In terms of the characteristics of what has to be learned, there are many relevant variables: for example the length, difficulty, and meaningfulness, of what has to be learned. Task and job analysis are essential if what is to be learned are to be clearly specified. Training in complex physical or procedural tasks may be best done by breaking the task into components and training for each one separately before combining them [in either forward or reverse sequence]. For simpler task, whole learning is preferred. The results of the task analyses will be translated into the specification what differentiates successful and unsuccessful job performance- this is not so easy to ascertain in some jobs, where this may not be apparent for sometimes years after the tasks have been performed, for example managerial decisions may have long, rather than short, terms consequences. Once these success/failure differences have been defined, they are then translated again into the specification of successful job performance.

Some of the method issues include primacy versus recency effects active versus passive, transfer, amount and nature of feedback, time scale for responses, the learning curve.

In learning in the workplace, active learning always is preferable to passive learning, so it is imperative to engage the learner in this way as soon as possible. This can range from note-taking, discussions, role play, exercises and question-and-answer sessions to the use of [very expensive] simulators where maximum transfer is necessary, such as training pilots.

Primacy and recency effects: we learn best what we cover first and last; however which of these is best is not always so clear. Memos, instruction manuals and other forms of communications are all likely to be affected by this process. Active learning is such that it regularly requires the learner or trainee to make some response, or to do something rather than being just a passive recipient.

Transfer of training is of crucial importance; this refers to the use of the training in the real environment. In the training of airline pilots, simulators costing billions are used so that the exact kinaesthetic feel of changes in direction, angle and even velocity are all 'felt' by the trainee; since training is so expensive, then it is important to recruit only those people who can pass the 'test' at the end of the training. A further, but simpler, example of the importance of transfer is in relation to attitudes, which are basically evaluations but can be couched in ways to make one feel good. One of the most common approaches is the transfer of affect, based on associative learning; facts on their own or affect on its own may well be easily remembered, but alone neither is likely to result in changed behaviour. So both affect and cognitive aspects need to be transferred. An example of this is that affect will make the learner feel involved and motivated and that may be very important if one is to ensure that training is effective.

It has been said that no learning can take place without feedback. Therefore the type and nature of feedback, including when it is given, needs to be considered carefully. Too much feedback can swamp the learner, not enough inhibits their learning. For
example, when using programmed texts, the learner is tested very frequently throughout so that they can see how their learning is progressing. Guided self-instruction, if well designed, will also follow this principle. The best feedback can be said to be constructive [telling the learner what to do to get it right next time, not just telling them what they did wrong which then requires them to make the cognitive conversion from wrong to the right response], near to the point of the learner response, and sufficient to enable the learner to progress. In terms of timescale for responses, it must be emphasized that delayed feedback has little or no value at all.

The learning curve is something that can actually be measured for a variety of tasks, and tends to follow an “S” shape followed by a drop that accelerates after a period of time. Thus, learning may be slow while the learner gets to grips with the material, then it speeds up as they become more engaged [or motivated]. However after between 60 and 90 minutes, the curve starts to drop, slowly and then quite quickly, primarily due to a fall-off in blood sugar levels, which seriously hampers learning, but also because additional learning may act to overload before the learner has fully processed the material already presented. In the studies on skills acquisition, the phases that relate to the learning curve cognitive, associative and autonomous phases or declarative, knowledge compilation and tuning stages (e.g. Fitts and Posner, 1962; Anderson, 1987).

The Gestalt theory of learning suggest that we can learn in a holistic way, and that if something is incomplete then we would fill in the missing parts to form a ‘whole’. The implications for this may also be seen in kanban in Japanese companies, where the ‘whole’ may be considered to be bigger than the ‘sum of the parts’.

Behaviour modification is based entirely on reinforcement theory, but used very clearly to motivate towards good behaviours and away from bad behaviours. It is a very powerful technique and the essential component of this approach is that it identifies what the person desires. What you desire motivates you. What you do not desire has no effect at all. Hamner and Hamner (1976) devised a positive reinforcement programme for managers to implement that involved:

- managers setting goals for each worker which are reasonable, attainable, focus on behaviour and are measurable
- each worker keeping a record of job performance so that the relationship between the organizational goal and performance is clear
- the manager identifying behaviour which appears to be associated with positive performance and this is rewarded, e.g. by praise. For negative reinforcement, the absence of the reward is deemed to be sufficient.

The reward structure here is based on the fact that praise leads to a desire for more praise and thus to the further achievement of performance-related goals. This approach is also dependent on the skills of good management. For other areas where learning and motivation are applied together, such as social learning, see the chapter here on motivation.

(f) Learning styles: examples of theories [there are nearly 100 theories!]

There have been several attempts to identify learning style and its impact upon the ability to learn and remember. Beliefs and background can affect how one can maximise learning, but people are not very good judges about which features of a learning situation would be best for them.

One way of looking at learning style is to divide people into two principle styles: holistic and serialist (Pask, 1975). The holistic learner is one who prefers to have a complete overview, to know how things fit together, to see all the links. The serialist learner prefers to learn one step at a time, mastering each part before going on to the next. If learning is complete, both styles of learner have the same information, links, overview and detail. However, if learning is incomplete, the holist is left with an overview but little detailed knowledge, whilst the serialist is left with plenty of detail without necessarily knowing how it all fits together. Thus, adverts containing as lot of detail might appeal to serialist learners whereas adverts containing a more holistic approach with general claims would not.

A different approach is that of Kolb (1980), who describes learning as involving four stages: concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualisation and active experimentation. Kolb believed that all people need to go through these four stages in the learning process. However, social learning theorists (e.g. Bandura, 1976 and much more recently as well) have shown that learning does not require all four at all, thus refuting Kolb's theory in relation to the learning process. However, the theory has been adapted to identify the 'preferred' style for each individual where learning is maximised by emphasis on one or perhaps two of the four stages. The theory of Honey and Mumford [the Learning Style Questionnaire, LSQ] is very similar to the Kolb theory; for both, there are methodological issues associated with the scales used to measure learning style, relating to their ipsative nature and that they are to some extent biased in favour of certain styles and may repress true learning style. Felder- Silverman (1993+) proposed five dimensions to learning style: sensing vs. intuitive, visual vs. verbal, inductive vs. deductive, active vs. passive and sequential vs. global. This model is partly built on the Myers-Briggs dimensions, partly on Pask and partly on basic learning theory; there is some evidence supporting Felder and Silverman's model in the context in which it has so far been applied, i.e. engineering and sciences. In addition to the theories described, there are many other theories of learning styles, although many of these are more relevant to education than to consumer learning. Therefore there is currently no overall agreement over what are the psychological variables associated with learning style, nor are there any reliable and valid measures which can be used.

The Herrmann brain dominance model (1990) has become popular with managers: he suggest that there are four quadrants of left brain cerebral (logical, analytical etc.), left brain limbic (sequential, organized, detailed etc.) right brain limbic (emotional, sensory, kinaesthetic etc.) and right brain cerebral (visual, holistic, innovative etc.). From a neurological perspective, the implications are actually that you would need to change the ‘pathways’ in the brain if you wanted to develop something such as
innovative behaviour, and whilst this might be possible over a long period of time as the brain is constantly adapting and learning more and more, this would be very difficult in the short term to train employees in ‘right brain’ thinking, for example. So training in this area, which is relatively common now, may not actually achieve much in the way of results and a training course is creativity might be more effective.

Information processing and memory

This has been studied for centuries: some cultures, e.g. in the Americas, have relied on memory and the verbal transfer of information to pass on their history through generations. Every individual has a huge memory capacity; we almost all grossly under-use our memories. We are encountering new information all the time and this new information needs to be processed, encoded, stored or retained for future use, and subsequently retrieved.

Memory is inextricably linked up with perception, learning and thinking and is affected by many psychological and social variables, such as personality, attitudes, intelligence, aptitudes, motivation, expectations, affect, level of stress, fatigue, age etc. In physiological terms, memory is exceedingly complex and involves the cerebral cortex, the reticular formation, synaptic gaps, reflex arcs, chemical and electrical impulses. If certain parts of the cortex are damaged, other parts may slowly take over those functions. It is also known but not well understood that eidetic imagery (“photographic memory”) is much more common in children than in adults.

In psychological terms, memory is one part of our information processing. As shown in the information processing model, all the theories of learning and memory involve:

Input
Sensory Registers
Short Term or Working Memory (STM)
Long Term Memory (LTM)
Response output

At each stage, there is too much information to cope with, so filters remove information, which is unwanted, irrelevant or redundant. Filters are influenced by many psychological factors and may not be particularly rational. What is sensed will not all be processed into memory and what is processed will not all be remembered in the LTM and so on.

There is still debate about the point at which sensation become conscious. Some theorists believe that perception occurs when the stimulus information is processed into the STM whereas others believe that perception occurs before the memory is consciously involved. In any event, information is held long enough at this point for a judgement to be made about retaining it and processing it further.

There are coding differences between the LT and ST stores: the STM shows coding errors that are largely acoustic rather than visual. We can process in visual form and frequently do but evidence suggests that we quite often translate even visual input into acoustic form for short-term processing. There is also evidence for the use of motor or kinaesthetic codes and also semantic coding in the STM.

The LTM is more complex and information will be coded at different stages of processing. Early coded verbal information (straight from the STM) may be quite literal, but later coded information, or after longer intervals, involves meanings. So we can remember meanings after longer intervals, but not specific sentences. Meaning is represented in the memory by propositions, i.e. small groups of words or concepts that each represents a single idea. So when we hear or read a sentence and then code it into the LTM, we do not form a visual code or an acoustic one; instead, we form codes that represent the basic ideas or propositions in that sentence. It then remains to combine individual propositional codes, so that the meaning of the entire sentence or paragraph is represented. Many researchers have tried to describe how this is done, and all refer to some kind of hierarchy or text base; the application of this idea will be addressed later when aids to retrieval are discussed.

We not only store propositions based on what we have read or heard or seen but also inferred propositions i.e. those that we believe are natural consequences of the information we have (our own version of events). Sets of propositions are grouped together in ways that we think are related. Information is embellished with details that are consistent with the theme of the story. This involves the use of schemas, which are pre-existing systems of knowledge, concepts and beliefs. New material is interpreted on the basis of what is already known or expected and thus schemas are the result of many factors, such as past experience etc. as shown in the figure.

The interaction between STM and LTM is not fully understood and two theories are relevant:

The Information Processing Model.
There are three different memory stores: one operates at the sensory level which is very brief with limited capacity; the
STM with a capacity of approximately seven chunks and limited in time to half a minute without rehearsal; the LTM
with an almost unlimited capacity and no time limit.

The Levels of Processing Model
There is one large memory store but we can apply control processes to only a small sub-set of it. We can choose the
level of memory for operation and how the information will be processed and these determine how a stimulus input will
be coded or represented in memory. For this model, the long term and the short term stores would have been be
combined in the figure above.

There are also two main models of cognitive processing:

Elaboration-likelihood model
When attending to something (like an advert or a training manual) closely, people use a central route to process it;
otherwise they use a peripheral route. Centrally-processed messages require concentration and must be put convincingly
in order for people to engage them.

Heuristic-systematic model
When people attend to a message carefully, they use systematic processing; otherwise they process information using
heuristics or “mental short cuts”. Systematic refers to processing when people scan and consider available arguments;
with heuristic processing, we do not indulge in careful reasoning but use simple cognitive heuristics, such as 'longer
arguments are stronger'; you cannot trust politicians' etc. Heuristics may be used to judge whether an activity at work is
safe or not, or whether you can 'get away with' something such as a short cut, or using your own version of how to do a
job more quickly. Advertisers try to influence heuristics by portraying ads so that we use these heuristics, as we are
clearly not going to process all ads systematically, for example, to advertise the role of science in deriving or testing a
product, using people in white coats to look like scientists.

Information can be represented in memory in two main ways: verbal and imagery. It has been suggested that there is a third
way - episodic, for remembering episodes, events dates, etc. Some researchers just refer to semantic or episodic memories.
Episodic memory is organised in terms of the specific attributes contained; memories that share attributes are presumed to be
more closely related than memories that overlap very little in terms of their features. Semantic memory is organised
hierarchically. The hierarchy may be like a "spider diagram" (the spreading activation model) or based on comparable features
or conceptually based (see the hierarchical models referred to in "organizing for storage and retrieval").

It is unlikely that you use your memory very well. Most people don't. Many let their memories fall into relative disuse with
lack of practice, even at quite young ages. Finding it hard to remember is exacerbated by the use of poor input methods into the
memory processes, poorly organised storage and poor aids to retrieval. All of these can be improved and, with practice,
memory capacity can be drastically enhanced.

Getting the information into and out of the memory system: if anything is to be remembered, it must at some stage be learned.
For learning to be most effective in the consumer context, it should:

* be active, rather than passive.
* be positive, not negative; summarised at end; specific, not general; corrective
* be reinforced, preferably in an intermittent way
* be meaningful to the learner
* be present and use cues, which will facilitate storage and retrieval
* be organised to maximize storage and retrieval
* take into account the learning style of the learner.

(a) Cues to aid storage and retrieval.
These can include a variety of things and examples are, for written material-

| incomplete pictures/words | symbols and logos | bold lettering |
| Paragraphs and indentations | points of emphasis | different typefaces |
| colour codes               | underlining       | spacing         |
| headings/sub-headings      | mnemonics         | pictures        |
| simple, not complex,       | rhymes            | imagery         |
| words/grammar              |                  |                |

For many forms of material, graphics and imagery can also be used, although may require practice as learning aids. Cues are
an essential part of remembering and must be built into the learning process if by advertisers it is to be successful. The
principle is that certain stimuli act as cues to trigger off the information associated with those cues and that we desire to
remember at certain times for specified purposes. Probably the most useful sort of cue is the key word. Here, the information to be remembered is wrapped around a key word, and the word will then trigger off the required information. Examples of trigger words or part-words might be incorporated into training manuals in order to help learned material be categorized under the header, or some textbooks use pictures and keywords in a column alongside the text to aid learning, and also have key points at the end of each chapter. In advertising, examples include Sch... or ‘pure genius’ or ‘Orange’ or ‘Boss’.

(b) Organizing for Storage and Retrieval
The LTM is vast, akin to having a massively dimensioned filing cabinet of infinite capacity. But if you simply throw things into it, it becomes so untidy that it becomes difficult to find anything, so each individual develops a categorizing or coding system in order to store information. Each individual system has been developing since birth and is unique to the person, although it will have many similarities with those of other people, especially those with whom one interacts and has most beliefs and attitudes in common.

One way of organizing material is into a conceptual hierarchy, such as those in classification systems in botany or zoology, where things are grouped from the most general headings down to more specific ones. The conceptual hierarchy is a very powerful tool for remembering. Effective learning is achieved by developing a categorizing system for what is to be learned, rather than trying to remember things in unorganized form. Another type of hierarchy is the associative hierarchy, where items are organised according to ways in which they are associated, rather than into general and specific groups. It is useful for remembering, but less powerful than the conceptual hierarchy. You can also organize on the basis of conceptual similarity; this is very effective in learning new words. It can be used to help label “clusters” so that the contents of each cluster are more easily remembered.

If a learner develops their own organizing system for learning something new, then the very act of organizing acts as aid to learning and learners will develop their own cues, which may be different to those of other learners. However, people are not always good judges of their own most effective learning methods and may not actually develop a satisfactory system at all. So poor organization of LTM will reduce remembering and it may be better for trainers [or even marketers] to provide a hierarchy or framework for learning if they wish the material to be remembered in a retrievable way.

Retrieval from the STM is done by serial search, i.e. scan through the items one at a time, looking for an item that matches the target. Imagine a picture of a product that you have just seen in a magazine, and somebody asks you about that product. So you have to serial-search through your STM to recall the details of price etc. However, we do not search exhaustively unless that is a useful strategy; sometimes choosing to terminate a search when something that fits has been found, and thus get the details of the product wrong as we in fact recall a similar but different product. This would be a heuristic [a mental short cut]. We use heuristics all the time in almost every context, be it work or domestic.

The LTM retrieval process is more complex. It can be either by recall, where the item is remembered directly, or by recognition, where remembering is prompted by sight or hearing. It is important that the desired learning outcome is specified in one or other of these terms. Superficially, recognition appears to result in up to four times the "remembering" than recall but it must be noted that we are not measuring the same type of learning with each of these and that recognition is much less reliable than recall as we may claim to recognise things we did not see. There are also differences in the effectiveness of recognition depending on the learner characteristics (such as gender) and the characteristics of the material to be learned.

The generation-recognition hypothesis attempts to explain how the LTM retrieves information. Recognition consists of a decision-making process based on how strongly a representation in memory is activated by some item that confronts the person. Recall involves an additional step because the retrieval cues presented are incapable of directly activating the target memory. So the cues activate their own representations in memory and then the activation spreads to other related representations (i.e., some sort of search process). We now believe that both recognition and recall require complex search processes through memory before decisions can be made. Some research [Hartley, 1990s] in how business people were completing forms about their businesses for the UK Government used this understanding of the complex search process in order to answer questions to improve the correct form-completion rate to rise from only 5% to over 70%, saving the Government a considerable amount of money.

Partial retrieval can occur where things are 'on the tip of the tongue'. Incorrect attempts at retrieval can yield words that either sound like the correct one or have the same meaning (a famous example from subliminal perception in advertising research was where 'beer' was remembered as 'beef'). The tip-of-the-tongue state can often be resolved by using these incorrect words as cues for retrieving the correct words.

What makes a retrieval cue effective? The success of retrieval depends partly on the degree to which conditions of retrieval are similar to the conditions of encoding; this is because when a memory is stored, it is encoded in a unique fashion. This is an extremely powerful point, but we may not always know what cues were present at the time of encoding. We also know that when a memory re-enters awareness, it may be re-encoded in short term storage; this enables updating to take place. Without sorting out how retrieval for the trainee works, then training may be very ineffective.

Forgetting occurs when we cannot recall or recognise material at a particular time. There are many reasons for this to occur:
(i) The indexing, or categorising system was lost or inefficient
(ii) The material has been classified in an inappropriate way, rendering normal cues ineffective
(iii) The encoding and retrieval conditions are different
(iv) The memory may have decayed while in the short term memory
(v) Interference has occurred. This may be retroactive—occurring since the learning interferes with its recall. It may be proactive—occurring prior to the learning interferes. It may also be due to repression, i.e. unconsciously motivated forgetting and it may also be caused by emotion, stress or anxiety, which inhibit recall.

The first three above are largely associated with long term forgetting, whilst the last two are often associated with short term forgetting, although interference can happen in both cases.

LTM and training and development

[a] The systematic approach to training

Initially, the various parties in the organization [managers, HR, T & D, Finance, etc] with an interest in training (financial or otherwise) would consider the basic strategic issue of whether or not the organization should train or acquire the skills and knowledge it needs by buying in. This is known as the decision to train and is a fundamental policy decision not entirely dictated by economic considerations. Some organizations have established a reputation for good training without calculating its costs and benefits but rather by viewing it as necessity that people should be well-trained. The decision to train may be influenced by very short term objectives in many organizations in the UK and Czech Republic, but based on longer term ones elsewhere in Europe.

The 'decision to train' is not an absolute one—there are differing amounts of training that an organization may be prepared to undertake for reasons of cost, efficiency, convenience etc., which will vary from time to time. It could be, as is happening with the resurgence of apprenticeships in the UK, that shop-floor training is done by the organization but that they perhaps rely on recruiting professional trained staff from elsewhere for higher jobs. The disadvantage of relying on others to train is that the organization may not get what it wants and is subject to the whims of the marketplace, as happened in the 70s and 80s with computing staff and the 90s for accountants.

Once the decision to train has been made, two major types of information are required so that the training may be carried out properly and effectively.

* The jobs that people are to be trained for, i.e. job analysis.
* The types of trainees that are desired, i.e. personnel specifications.

Firstly the 'job' information: job descriptions are unlikely to be sufficient in order to analyse training needs so we need to provide more detail and this involves job, task and skills analyses. (Note: in the USA 'task analysis' covers all three terms whereas in the UK job analysis and skills analysis are the terms used). These three types of analysis are increasingly detailed breakdowns of the job. Job analysis will include, for example, details of accident statistics relating to the job and also some indication of the frequency of occurrence and the level of difficulty of the tasks, which would not normally be found on a job description. Skills analysis, as the most detailed level of analysis, is extremely effective in the training of practical and physical skills—each small activity is analysed for its perceptual, sensori-motor, procedural and diagnostic skilled components so that use may be made of perceptual cues etc. to enhance training.

At this level of analysis, a task such as panel-beating [repairing a dent in a car body] will be broken down so that each element can be understood in terms of its simplest activities— for example, does a panel-beater know that the panel is right from visual, auditory or tactile information, or a combination of all three? If this cannot be sorted out it would be impossible to train someone else to do it correctly.

If the job is newly created, someone will need to prepare a detailed breakdown of all the tasks so that standards of performance, objectives etc. may be defined. If this is not done, then it will be impossible to know whether an employee is performing satisfactorily or not. Good job-based information is important, not only for training purposes but also for selection and appraisal so that selection of the people most likely to do the job well is enhanced and validated to prove that this is in fact the case.

The second type of information relates to the trainees themselves. The 'trainee specification' will include the standards and levels of qualifications, skills, knowledge and experience required by the trainees. Information will be needed about the trainees' likely differences in intelligence, aptitudes, attitudes, personality, learning styles, motivation etc. etc.—some biographical information will also be required e.g. age, current job level, any disabilities which may require modification of the training or indeed prevent it etc.

It is harder to train a heterogeneous group than to train where there has been some attempt to place trainees of similar backgrounds and skill levels together. All of this enables the trainer to prepare training methods that will maximise the learning that can take place, hopefully for each trainee individually.
At this stage we should now know all about the jobs and the trainees and the next stage is to specify the criteria for successful performance. This is the means of differentiating good from bad performance in a reliable way and whilst this may be quite an easy thing to achieve for many shop floor jobs, it can be very difficult for supervisory, managerial and 'mental skills' jobs. An example of how difficult this is has been the various proposals to assess teachers in the UK. Often we know that someone is doing a good or a bad job but when asked to specify what particular aspects of performance are crucial to this, it is difficult to say, but it is exactly this that has to be identified.

Next is the specification of training needs and these are often expressed in terms of the knowledge, skills and attitudes required. Specification of needs can be considered in three stages - organizational, job and individual:

At the organizational level needs may, for example, relate to the skill requirements of a new technology or to the needs of some new process or method. There may be organizational needs associated with a redeployment policy or with a management development policy etc. At this level we are concerned with those needs that are likely to have an impact across the whole system.

The job level is concerned with the more specific needs associated with each job, such as when a vacancy occurs or when some sort of succession planning is envisaged.

The individual level has two components: 
[a] those where needs to improve standards of performance are identified- the question here is how can the organization provide training to make the job be done even better?;
[b] 'developmental' needs where training is identified which may help the employee to progress.

Both these needs would probably be discussed and clarified with the employee at meetings with the manager. Whilst appraisal is supposed to serve this purpose, it is important to note that one need has a progressive future orientation and the other a more immediate one, so they should be treated as different.

Once needs have been identified in some detail, then training objectives must be considered. These will include both levels and standards of performance - if, for example, a rather important task is only going to occur infrequently in the job itself, then there will need to be a higher standard set than for a more frequently occurring task where some improvement could be anticipated on the job itself. This would mean that for this, rarer activity, we would need to 'overtrain'.

Often, tasks are analysed by their difficulty, importance and frequency [know as the DIF approach] in order to help identify the objectives for training. It is important that the objectives are set in such a way that they can be easily measured and at this stage we should be determining the 'tests' which will be used to assess how much of the training has actually achieved its objectives. The tests can take the form of formal paper-and-pencil tests, exercises, case-studies etc.

The next stages are those of selecting the methods and media and the training itself. At this point the costs and effectiveness of the various methods need to be considered and whether these can easily be provided 'in-house' or whether expertise needs to be bought in. There are helpful guidebooks to the large variety of methods and techniques available and some of these work on a "cookbook" approach. Methods such as programmed learning, Coverdale training, case-study methods, closed circuit television, role-play exercises, business games, lectures, outward bound training, films, and even drama all have advantages and disadvantages and will each be appropriate for some circumstances. However, research has shown clearly that a variety of techniques is likely to be more successful than any single one throughout the training. Although there are some general principles, selection of the most cost-effective appropriate methods and techniques for a course may need to be considered on a course-by course basis. It will also be necessary to consider how many trainers will be needed and whether there are sufficient facilities available. An example here is interviewing training, which is expensive in terms of both trainer time and, to be done effectively, whole, CCTV or tape equipment, etc.

Having trained the employees, it is necessary to ascertain whether the training met its objectives. This is known as the validation stage. Kirkpatrick identified 4 stages in evaluation that incorporate validation and evaluation and include reaction, learning, behaviour and results. The former involves asking the trainees themselves about their reactions to the course [sometimes known as "happy sheets"] and it is worth taking care not just to run training courses because they are popular and liked; the longer term value of these may be social and affective rather than useful.

The final stage in the system is evaluation [results in the Kirkpatrick model]. This is where we try to ascertain whether or not the training has made any difference to the individual in terms of their performance at work, or to their chances of promotion or to their chances of finding a suitable job. This would normally be done by surveys at specified intervals after the training - maybe even up to several years after if the training is intended to be of long-term benefit. It is often possible to conduct a cost-benefit analysis on training, but it must be remembered that if the training is considered to be a long term investment, then it will take a long time before the benefits of that investment can be assessed, in some cases several years. In the short term, we can evaluate the effects of training for specific skills that are intended for instant use.
The whole system has feedback loops so that the implications of each can be seen in terms of its effects. For example, if the evaluation shows that things are not working as well as they might, then it may be that the needs have not been fully identified or that the performance criteria have not been properly specified.

**Training methods**

These include: case studies, role play and drama exercises, group exercises, in-tray exercises, problem solving, programmed instruction, simulators, etc. These can be applied in different ways to different areas of management, such as negotiation, chairing group meetings, communications, delegation etc. An example here in the chapter on communications and persuasion that is now popular as a training topic for management is listening skills. There are books now that provide a matrix of training methods with training topics, so the most appropriate can be selected.

**Notes on training evaluation**

This topic is relevant to the evaluation of any programme, whether it be training, recruitment, evaluation of changes, etc. It has been placed here for convenience, and examples given will therefore relate to training.

When evaluating management training or a development programme, the effects can be 'diffuse' or 'focused'. Diffuse in this context means not easy to identify or articulate because they essentially modify an individual's perception of him/her self, the job or colleagues and thus alter the basis for decision-making. Focused refers to effects which tend to be short-term because they are more manifest and are frequently set out by the organization in the form of desired terminal behaviour.

We have in the past tended to expect 'focused' objectives to produce diffuse effects as a spin-off. It has been shown that, for example, first-aid training has had as a spin-off reduced accidents amongst the trained first-aiders. Although there are other such examples, this happens less often than trainers generally think. It is relatively easy to specify precise behavioural objectives for lower levels of work and junior management but this becomes an increasing problem the higher up the management scale.

**Evaluation** may be considered to involve the assessment of the total value of a training or development system, course or programme. It differs from validation because it attempts to measure the overall cost benefit and not just the achievement of its laid down objectives.

**Validation** can be internal - i.e. tests to see if behavioural objectives specified are achieved; or external - i.e. tests to see if the behavioural objectives of an internally valid programme were realistically based on accurate initial Identification of Needs in relation to the criteria of effectiveness adopted by the organization.

Factors which can influence evaluation are in two main groups:

(a) Those External to the Training or Development itself

1) **History.** Events occurring between the first and second measure. An example might be redundancies in the department, changing attitudes and behaviours.

2) **Maturation.** Processes within the individual which affect the response. An example is students who mature as they develop and progress through a course, and this will change their behaviours elsewhere at the same time.

3) **Testing.** The effect of taking a test upon taking another. People become acclimatised to being 'measured' and may prefer to give socially desirable responses.

4) **Instrumentation.** Changes in the calibration of the measuring instrument. An example would be if data were being collected by interview and there were several interviewers.

5) **Statistical Regression.** Tendency toward the mean. This is a statistical problem in that continued measures on the same people can produce this phenomenon.

6) **Differential Selection.** Most sampling methods will select in a biased way, particularly quota sampling which is used a lot in market research. Biases are reduced by random sampling.

7) **Experimental Mortality.** Differential loss of subjects from different groups. This will happen if measures are some time apart and staff have moved jobs in the meantime, but not in equal proportions form each department.

8) **Interaction of Selection and Maturation.** Changes with age may make it like testing two different people.

(b) Those Internal to the Evaluation Programme itself

1) **Reactive Interactive Effect.** The 'pretest' may increase or decrease the subject's sensitivity to the treatment. If an issue is introduced to a person as part of the measurement, then the way it is introduced can affect the measurement.

2) **Interaction of Testing Bias with the Experimental Variable.** The experimenter effect. The well-known effect of simply being observed, can make differences in work-rate of up to 15%.

3) **Reactive Effect of Experimental Arrangements.** The criteria may determine reactions e.g. if people think they know [even if they have got it wrong!] why the test is being given, it will influence their answers. Also the generalization issue, i.e. the extent to which results of one measure can be applied to another situation.

4) **The Interaction of Multiple Treatments on One Subject.** Prior training will affect responses to the next training. This may happen if training is run as a series of activities.

Measurement can be:
* objective [e.g. productivity, low turnover, low absence, etc.] vs. * subjective [e.g. attitude scale measures]
* direct [e.g. increases in sales or services] vs. * indirect [e.g. customer satisfaction surveys]
* intermediate [e.g. results now and at intervals subsequently] vs. * ultimate [e.g. wait until the end!!]
* specific [e.g. separate measures, individual] vs. * summary [e.g. results collated together and possibly "weighted into an overall criterion"]

**Measurement in evaluation issues include:**
Relevance [to performance requirements or organizational goals?]
Reliability [should not vary over time]
Free from Bias [including the assessor or appraiser]
Practical [administratively convenient, politically viable etc.]
Single or Multiple measures? [usually need several to describe adequately the degrees of success in performing a job; the criterion problem again!]
Experimental Design. If wrong, can invalidate the whole thing. Need to define experimental and control variables, testing and pre-testing arrangements.

**References:**
Chapter 6:

Motivation, morale and incentives
Introduction
Motivation at work is a fundamental problem that has never been totally explained. It is assumed that all behaviour is motivated but what motivates one person may have the opposite effect on another, and what motivates now may not motivate next week. Therefore motivation is a dynamic concept rather than a static one. It must also be recognised that theories of work motivation are specific cases of the study of motivation.

The early theories of motivation can be grouped under three main headings of satisfaction, intrinsic and incentive theories [see below] whereas later theories include social-cognitive, cybernetic control and goal-setting theories as well as issues of choice and volition, personality and organizational justice.

Satisfaction theories
Originally based on the tenuous [but erroneously believed by many managers] assumption that a satisfied worker is a productive worker. Satisfaction correlates with labour t/o and mental health at work, suggesting that improving conditions of work and worker morale [motivation] will influence t/o and absenteeism but not necessarily productivity [Iaffaldino and Robertson, 1986; Hackett, 1989]. [Note concept of reverse causality- that production causes satisfaction rather than vice versa- the implication is that improved satisfaction will not result in increased productivity [Clegg, 1983]]

Some of these theories tend not to be rooted in motivation per se but are based either on leadership or group relations. It could be contended that leadership style and group norms are important components of motivation. Thus, none of the main theories listed below are really satisfaction theories.

Intrinsic theories
Based on assumption that work itself is motivating and doing a satisfying/worthwhile job will provide satisfaction. Obvious examples of this are jobs that are seen to be 'vocational'. But equally, there are others where there is no vocation, no obvious achievement, no 'talent' and where such work is not satisfying.

Intrinsic theories include those of Maslow and Herzberg, and McGregor's Theories X and Y. These theories work best for challenging work done by intelligent and independent people and work least well where technology prevents the worker from having control over their work or where there are no strong self-actualization needs.

In 1946, Maslow proposed a hierarchy of needs. The first three needs are 'deficiency-orientated' and the upper two levels are 'motivation-orientated'. The theory says that each level in the hierarchy would need to be generally satisfied before the individual could 'proceed' to the next level.

1. Physiological needs
2. Safety/Security needs
3. Social/Love needs
4. Self Esteem: Status and Power needs
5. Self Actualization/Self Fulfilment

The theory generated a lot of research, for example, it has been found that levels 3 and 4 can be reversed in some cases. Some recent research suggests that the hierarchy does not apply cross-culturally. For example, a study on Malawian workers has shown that there is an emphasis on prestige and status differences and on authority and professional competence as personal, rather than organizational, possessions and that there is a generally instrumental orientation to work. These are exactly the same motives and values as seen in many societies, but they are ordered differently. We also find the same phenomenon for other cultures, e.g. that Japanese values are also ordered differently. So the hierarchy which we have seen apply to European countries might look like this if applied to African countries:

1. Physiological Needs- basic needs for self and family
2. Self-Actualization needs- likely to involve pride rather than interesting work
3. Social needs- to be part of a network, to relate well to boss
4. Safety and Security needs- jobs are threatened, scarcity of resources
5. Self-esteem and status needs- status, prestige, pride, power, position

Maslow's hierarchy was adapted by Alderfer [1972], who simplified the five needs to three: existence [analogous to Maslow's physiological and safety needs in the hierarchy]; relatedness [analogous to Maslow's social, and part of the ego-esteem needs]; growth [analogous to some of the self esteem and self-actualization needs].

Alderfer suggested that if one area was frustrated, the individual might emphasise another. He also believed that there was not really a hierarchy but rather three general needs where two could be important at any one time. The two theories, if indeed we could call them both theories when Alderfer's is a version of Maslow's, could be crudely regarded nowadays as truisms, in that they seem an obvious explanation of our basic motive structure in the right or the wrong order without needing any proof. It can be said that:
a] they present a substantial advance on earlier theories but are still far too simplistic
b] they form the beginnings of current understanding of work motivation
c] there are other needs and motives not addressed, e.g. autonomy, curiosity, level of difficulty as a stimulus, need for feedback, meaningful contribution.
d] they make explanation easy but are nearly impossible to use in the field.

**Theory X and Theory Y.** (McGregor, 1951). This theory really combined early influences of Taylor with the increasingly popular view of participation and involvement. Theory X said that people were inherently lazy, would opt for the easiest path, did not desire responsibility, only worked for the money, were not interested in organizational goals. This, said McGregor, was typical in many organizations and was neither effective, nor good management. Theory Y, on the other hand, said that people wanted to work, were responsive, willing to take responsibility, etc. and that this style was both effective and good management. He argued that participative management styles were appropriate to Theory Y and in "The Human Side of Enterprise" [1951], set out how organizations could become more participative.

Improved communications and more open management were the cornerstones of Theory Y and examples of efficient organizations and their open, participative styles were, and still can be, cited. This very simple approach, which seems so obvious now, was quite revolutionary in the 1950's, because this was the era of the assembly line, where work was simplified and reduced so that it could be done more repetitively, with lower unit costs and higher levels of output.

Where the theory refers to identification with organizational goals, it has long been accepted that these were within the Western understanding, i.e. efficiency, profit maximisation. If we redefine organizational goals to include the provision of socially desirable benefits, or as increasingly becoming the wish amongst some in the West, to include some commitment to the environment in a 'green' way, this does not negate the theory. New organizational goals simply means that the goal orientation that is important in this theory becomes one where profits and efficiency are secondary rather than primary.

Many early writers considered the assembly line to be productive and simple. However, some social scientists [e.g. Woodward] saw that people would not maintain high output levels of mindless repetitive work indefinitely and that alienation from work was a very serious issue with important consequences.

By the 1950s, many large manufacturing companies had committed huge amounts of financial investment to assembly lines [e.g. the motor industry, food processing]. So the dilemma of work simplification versus job enrichment was born, although not all writers at the time realised the magnitude of this debate [including McGregor!]

**Herzberg (1956)** investigated the motivation of accountants and engineers in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. His "motivation-hygiene" theory derived from content-analysing responses to questions such as "describe a time in the last six months when you felt particularly happy [unhappy] at work". The explanations for the "happy" times were mostly based on recognition, responsibility, interesting work, achievement and advancement, whereas the "unhappy" times were mostly based on money, colleagues, working conditions, supervision and company policy/administration. He called the "happy" factors motivators, because they were positive and contributed to job satisfaction. The "unhappy" factors were called hygiene because of a medical analogy of prevention- causing dissatisfaction when they were wrong.

Despite overlap between the factors in relation to money and advancement, the concept of two similar, parallel dimensions of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction is quite clear from the results. However, Herzberg assumed that high levels of job satisfaction would mean high productivity. Additionally, some variables never really appeared because of the nature of the sample, such as security- not an issue at the time to the well paid, stable employment prospects of engineers and accountants.

"Job enrichment" [the application of the "motivators"] was Herzberg's solution to problems of motivation at work. Also referred to as vertical job enlargement to distinguish it from horizontal job enlargement which is simply doing more of the same sorts of things. There are very many documented examples of the success of this approach, but also a few showing its apparent failure. Very famous names of organizations have tried to implement job enrichment, e.g. ICI, Philips, ATT, ITT, Volvo, Motorola. Why does it not always work? To explain this, more variables need to be considered, such as:

- level of difficulty of the work
- meaningfulness of work
- contribution to the whole job
- feedback and information
- performance-reward relationship
- utility of outcome
- autonomy and control

**Incentive and Reinforcement Theories**

Based on reinforcement theory, which suggests that behaviour that is rewarded in some way is more likely to be repeated than that which is unrewarded. Investigations into possible physiological origins of reinforcement principles have produced mixed results. The most common reward studied in these theories has been money, which:
- is instrumental in obtaining other things that are desired
- is indicative of some form of status
- provides some measure of independence and autonomy

For incentive theories to work, the following must apply:

the individual perceives the reward to be worth the extra effort
the performance can be measured and clearly attributable to the person
the individual wants that particular kind of reward
the increased performance will not become a new minimum standard

Incentive theory can be also seen in 'expectancy' theory and the 'motivational calculus'.

Negative reinforcement [such as the threat of punishment, or sanctions] is often used more frequently than it should be. Research shows that positive and intermittent reinforcements are very effective for performance, learning, etc.; negative or avoidance reinforcement should be used sparingly.

Behaviour modification is based entirely on reinforcement theory. It is a very powerful technique which can be used in an everyday way with ones own family, workmates, subordinates etc. The essential component of this approach is that it identifies what the person desires. What you desire motivates you. What you do not desire has no effect at all. Hamner and Hamner (1976) devised a positive reinforcement programme for managers to implement which involved:

- managers setting goals for each worker which are reasonable, attainable, focus on behaviour and are measurable
- each worker keeping a record of job performance so that the relationship between the organizational goal and performance is clear
- the manager identifying behaviour which appears to be associated with positive performance and this is rewarded, e.g. by praise. For negative reinforcement, the absence of the reward is deemed to be sufficient.

The reward structure here is based on the fact that praise leads to a desire for more praise and thus to the further achievement of performance-related goals. This approach is also dependent on the skills of good management.

Luthans and Kreitner (1975) have developed a behavioural contingency model which also operates using basic learning theory:

- behaviours which are critical to good performance are identified
- the strength and frequency of these behaviours are measured by keeping a record.
- good performance of critical behaviours is rewarded
- if changes are necessary, managers should devise strategies to achieve the desired behaviours with the explicit giving of rewards.

The reward structure here is more wide-ranging, covering everything from office improvements to profit-sharing. This approach also relies on good management practice to identify appropriate behaviours and the identification of suitable rewards.

Both of these approaches depend on a number of factors, such as well-defined tasks, targets goals and objectives, the ability to identify critical or rewardable behaviours, being able to locate the most appropriate and needed rewards for different individuals. If done badly, these techniques can prove counter-productive, for example if rewards are given indiscriminately or unfairly or the incentives are the wrong ones. Most research in this area has been conducted in the USA and Europe, although it is likely that the principles will apply elsewhere, but perhaps with differing priorities for motives and rewards in different cultures.

**Modern theories of motivation**

**Equity theory** (Adams, 1963; Jaques, 1968) an incentive-based theory which relates one's effort-reward relationship to that of others, i.e. a 'social' comparison. Inequity is uncomfortable and will result in people seeking to reduce it, for example by reducing output, taking more time off etc. More modern approaches to motivation derive from it, including organizational justice and fairness theories (Thibaut and Walker, 1975 and 1978; Lind and Taylor, 1988).

**Expectancy theory** (Vroom, 1964, and Porter and Lawler, 1968), combining both intrinsic and incentive elements, builds up a model showing the relationship between effort, the performance resulting from that effort, the reward from the performance and the job satisfaction thus created. The pattern is affected by the utility of the effort, which is a function of the perceived value of the reward and the perceived probability that expending effort will lead to reward. Effort producing performance is affected by:

the value of the reward
the probability that effort will lead to reward
skills, abilities, attitudes
how you perceive your role and its demands on you

Performance leading to rewards is affected by what is perceived to be equitable

**Achievement motivation theory for acquired needs theory** (McClelland, Atkinson and Feather 1961) - an intrinsic theory with some incentive implications - focuses on three primary needs which motivate achievement, affiliation and power - and says that *all motives are learned*. At any one time, one of the three needs will predominate. The symbol n Ach is used to signify the 'need for achievement' and, along with 'fear of failure' has been shown to affect many aspects of work. For example, white and blue collar workers from rural backgrounds seem to desire job enrichment more than do blue collar workers from urban backgrounds. This might be explained by a middle-class value system that promotes the idea that work should be challenging but the theory would say that such values systems are learned and that the differences reflect differing needs to achieve.

High need-achievers tend to show differing patterns of decision-making than their opposites; they tend to take 'calculated' decisions, based on fact, and tend to take fewer 'long-shot' risks unless the utility is high, prefer challenging but achievable goals and like feedback on their performance; fear of failure individuals tend towards near certainties or long-odds decisions, neither of which inherently threaten their fear of failure and tend to be more anxious than other individuals.

**The Motivational Calculus** (Georgopoulos et al 1957) is a version of path-goal theory. The theory says that each individual will invest his/her energies [referred to as "E"] according to some form of 'calculation'. There will be a calculation for every option available for action or decision, and each calculation includes three separate elements:

- [a] the strength or salience of the need
- [b] the expectancy that "E" will lead to a particular result
- [c] the instrumentality of that result in reducing the need in [a]

The act of calculation can range from unconscious [e.g. instinctive behaviour] all the way to totally conscious or deliberate [e.g. deliberate decision-making]. What differentiates this theory from Expectancy Theory is that the calculus takes into account the time-span involved. Children tend to respond and act in an immediate dimension, they like to see results straight away. As they grow up, they tend to operate with longer time spans, so that they may not see pay-offs for years in some cases. Education is an example of a strategy with a very long-term pay-off.

Another version of *path-goal theory* is that of Locke (1971, 1982) who investigated the level of difficulty set by workers who were in control of setting their own targets. He found that moderately attainable goals provided the greatest motivation, particularly for those people with high nAch.

There are very many examples of where workers are unclear what their work goals actually are; this may be that they do not know what they are expected to do, what standards for their work are, or what the priorities are for their tasks.

Intrinsic theories have developed in recent years, moving in the direction of cognitive evaluation theory, [e.g. Deci, 1975] where the detrimental effects of extrinsic events on intrinsic motivation depend on the perceived salience of "controlling" versus "informational" properties of the extrinsic event. Extrinsic events include pay, feedback and goal assignments. There are now several different approaches to intrinsic theories, which fall into the three broad categories of:

- [a] those concerned with curiosity, incongruity and discrepancy motives
- [b] those concerned with competence, mastery, efficacy and challenge
- [c] those concerned with personal control over the environment and self-determination.

Self-determination theory would say that experiences which facilitate a sense of effectance and self-determination, i.e. are informational and therefore promote intrinsic motivation; those which undermine the sense of self-determination, i.e. are controlling are extrinsic; experiences which signify a lack of competence can therefore reduce both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

A social-cognitive intrinsic theory developed by Bandura (1986), where the locus of the outcome and type of behaviour-outcome contingency are the important determinants of motivation; a behaviour may result in a direct intrinsic outcome, e.g. satisfaction but an outcome such as a pay rise may be arbitrary and involve both intrinsic and extrinsic outcomes. This approach has been taken further to involve self-regulation, based upon the attainment of goals. The attainment of difficult and specific goals is accomplished through self-regulation activities involving self-monitoring, self-evaluation and [affective] self-reactions.

**Cybernetic control theories of self-regulation.** Carver and Scheier (1981) and Kanfer and Ackerman (1989) developed theories which are similar to some aspects of social learning/social-cognitive theories. They concern self-regulation based on the notion of a negative [discrepancy-reducing] feedback loop; the comparison between one's goal and perceived performance results in cognitive and behavioural output directed toward the reduction of any apparent discrepancies. This may mean
revising the goal rather than improving performance. What is important for managers is the extent to which the theories can predict which will be altered - the goal or the performance.

References:

Money and payment systems
Payment systems provide a lot of indicators of organizational culture: they describe nature of the performance-reward relationship, the hierarchy in terms of status and power etc. First, we need to consider the role of money in motivation: the different theories above offer different perspectives on the role of pay:

[a] Equity theory explains many of the issues that operate in pay bargaining
[b] Expectancy theory explains why group incentive systems and merit payment systems do not often work so well.
[c] All of the theories explain why performance-related-pay and short-term contracts, so popular currently in the UK, are now having serious problems in many cases.
[d] Achievement motivation theory explains what drives so many people to be successful, why some strive for power, and the importance of feedback on performance.
[e] Reinforcement theory help us to understand how behaviour can be directed by careful use of rewards
[f] Motivation-Hygiene theory explains why high pay is decreasingly useful as a motivator and why other motives have to be found
[g] Social Learning/social-cognitive theories show how pay may influence self-reactions and result in dissatisfaction and reduced performance.
[h] Cybernetic control theories show the influence of pay and other work conditions on discrepancy reduction processes, and demonstrates the difference between individuals' learning goals [less influenced by pay, motivated by mastery] and performance goals [more influenced by pay]

Some different types of payment system are reviewed below [these are not all mutually exclusive]:

[a] Incentive systems
These can include individual bonus systems, where all, or part, of a person's pay is determined by their performance. Salesmen are often paid solely on their sales-no sale, no pay. Many factory jobs have a bonus scheme which is added on to a basic standard pay rate. Often, these schemes in factories are based on work study, where jobs are broken down into small elements and times are computed for all elements; each activity is allocated a 'time' and if an employee is able to do more jobs in a given time than had been allocated, then he or she will get more money.

Work study times will need to be recalculated if the nature of the job changes, and tend to 'drift' toward the generous over a period of time. This drift may be uneven, causing some workers to be more advantaged than others. "Drift" will always occur, because it is always more difficult to negotiate to make job values tighter and easier to let them slacken when new tasks come along.

Incentive schemes may also be group based. This means that the amount of money that a person earns will depend, in whole or in part, upon the performance of his/her workgroup. Sometimes the "group" is actually the whole of the workforce at a particular factory. Group schemes such as this have major problems in that one person may not be easily convinced that their contribution relates to their own pay. In fact, if another worker is seen to be malingering, then your contribution to work may simply be paying the malingering! If a worker thinks that they are doing more for the same money as others who are doing less, then the whole scheme loses its motivational value.

Both of these types of incentive scheme depend, as the theory described earlier, on the employee seeing a relationship between effort, performance and reward; this perception is crucial to the operating of incentive systems and its failure is a prime reason why such schemes are dropped.

[b] Profit-based schemes
These work simply on the basis that if the organization makes a profit, then each employee gets some share of that. There are several ways that this can be achieved:

1. worker shareholders/share option schemes. These often offer some bonus in the form of shares in the company, or offer shares at a cheaper rate each year. In smaller organizations, this can be quite effective where each person has a real chance of relating to the success of the organization.
2. Partnerships, where all employees 'own' the organization are another example of a shareholder type of scheme.
3. Profit-sharing is where, once or twice a year, a percentage of the profits is shared out, usually as a percentage of salary, to all employees.

All the profit-based systems have the rewards accruing over a long time scale, so there are not the advantages of a rapid and obvious relationship between effort and reward. Mostly, they do not remove salary when the organization makes a loss. The motivational strength is in commitment and loyalty, feeling a part of the whole organization, 'ownership' and, as shareholders, a means of access to the very top.

[c] Human asset base systems.
With these, employees are not paid for what they do, but for the expertise, skills and qualifications that they hold. So, getting better qualified will get you higher wages, even though your job may not change. Many banks have this type of pay system, as are all those jobs which pay more because it is the only way to get those staff, e.g. IT staff.

Formulae are derived and calculated to show a person's worth to the organization. Eventually these become translated as 'increments' or 'grades' payable upon completion of an agreed course of study or piece of work. [Do any organizations here pay more to graduates than to non-graduates for the same job?]

This system encourages and motivates flexibility, transferability, multi-skilling, effort to improve oneself, continued learning and development. Its disadvantage is that there is no relationship at all between work effort and reward.

[d] Job-evaluated systems.
These work in almost complete reverse to the previous examples. Here, you are paid for what you do and only for what you do. You may feel that your skills are not being utilised, and that as a skilled craftsman that you are entitled to more money than semi-skilled workers, but under this system, if the job is less skilled, then you get paid less.

If the job changes, its value under this system must be re-assessed; these schemes need constant monitoring and will need to consider appeals against wrongly graded jobs.

The motivation in this type of scheme is the straightforward relationship between the job that you do and the grade and pay rate that you are on. The disadvantages include demarcation ["I'm not doing that, it isn't in my job description"], no effort-reward relationship in the sense that extra work is not rewarded, inflexibility.

[e] Measured work schemes.
This type of scheme generally indicates a total amount of work required as a minimum [and sometimes even as a maximum also] for each day. It has been common in the Construction Industry where it has been called "job and finish" and in manufacturing where a variant of this is called "measured day work".

Managers may get frustrated when they see equipment not being used because the workers have done their allotted amounts- but they cannot have it both ways, one either compels attendance or one asks for the job to be done and it is impossible to ask for both.

The advantage of this scheme is that it motivates for the individual to see their work completed and it provides some autonomy in the sense that the worker can control at what points they work harder and when they slacken off. The disadvantage of these measured schemes is that it is difficult to control the quality of the work and there may be some rushed and inaccurate work as a consequence.

[f] Performance-Related-Pay [PRP]
This has become very fashionable in the UK as a way of making managers more efficient. It has also been introduced with short-term contracts in many cases. Managers in the Health Service, public utilities etc. have all been put onto PRP schemes. The evidence is suggesting huge problems with this approach:

* Behaviour becomes too specifically focused and targeted towards
* There are serious problems in measuring managerial performance
* It is easy to appear successful in the early stages but difficult to sustain over the long term
* The insecurity of short-term contracts is making the jobs unattractive to good candidates
* It is perceived to be associated with profit rather than quality
* Enterprise is seen to be rewarded, highly results-based motivation

[g] Salaried schemes
There are many variants on this basic type of scheme. The basis is that there should be some sort of reward for seniority, loyalty etc. Within this, good performance can be awarded meritorious rises, or more often in these schemes, a move up one or more grades. Japanese companies respect seniority, age, length of service and loyalty and promote in this way, as do many western organizations. These schemes work to job definitions which may be detailed or may be very brief. They often operate on the basis of trust. Their motivational advantages include security, predictability, guaranteed development. The disadvantages are no fast reward for top or meritorious performance, no reward-performance relationship.
Many larger organizations use several of the above schemes at once; manual workers may be on some form of incentive scheme, whilst management and clerical workers may be on a human asset scheme combined with a salaried scheme.

Pay schemes may also be linked with schemes concerning conditions, fringe benefits etc. These can include a large number of things, ranging from special canteen facilities, sick pay, reduced hours, pensions schemes, medical insurance, company cars, cheap loans etc. Many organizations are moving toward harmonisation, where manual workers are given the same conditions and benefits as ‘white-collar’ workers; this arrangement will be negotiated, usually in return for some sort of productivity improvement or increased flexibility.

Harmonisation can act as an incentive if other workers are getting something that you want, so that you are prepared to do something extra to acquire it; equally, harmonisation is unpopular with those who see their recognition and status [as seen in their extra benefits etc.] being eroded when they have worked so long to be entitled to it.

**Motivation in consumer behaviour**

Expressive needs vs. utilitarian needs
Goal-directed behaviour
Consumer incentives
There are many 'single' theories of motivation, including: opponent-process theory; to maintain optimum stimulation levels; pursuit of hedonism; to maintain behavioural freedom; to avoid risk; to attribute causality.

Relevant motivation theories include Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, which consumer behaviour theorists view as 'giving insight into today's consumer culture’. [Physiological; safety; love/social/belonging; esteem -power, recognition, confidence; self-actualisation].

Murray's inventory of social needs - 28 in all, includes: abasement and aggression; superiority, achievement, recognition, exhibition, infavoidance, inviolacy, counteraction, defeandise; affiliation, nurturance, play, rejection, succourance; autonomy, deference, dominance, contrariance, simulence; exhibition; harm avoidance; nurturance; order; play; rejection; sentence; sex; understanding.

Affiliation, power and achievement [Jung, Adler, McClelland] as motives [see earlier notes].

Arousal theory. Advertisements that fail to arouse will have only limited effect. Strong activation stimulates processing of information, independent of whether this allows the advertising goal to be achieved, and therefore activation is a necessary condition but not necessarily a sufficient one for advertising to be effective. It is necessary to expose the most important information in the most arousing form for it to stand much chance of being processed. Examples include Guinness advertising on TV, Nescafe etc..

There is considerable evidence to illustrate the effects of mood states upon behaviour, showing increased generosity, estimation of risk, increased recall of events and facts, etc. depending upon the mood state under investigation. Kotler suggests that 'atmospheres' in stores may be particularly important when stores carry similar lines and are equally convenient. Other investigations [eg. Donovan and Rossiter] have considered the effects of the retail environment upon purchase intentions, for example finding that for 'pleasant' stores, shopping intentions increased with level of arousal whereas this was not true for less 'pleasant' or 'neutral' stores. There is also the interaction with sales personnel as inducers of mood.

Priming: use of limited stimulus to increase drive for more, eg 3Ms, use of free samples.

**Consumerism and motivation**

Gabriel and Lang [1995] view consumerism in five ways as:

[a] a moral doctrine in developed countries: with the demise of the puritan ethic of self-denial, consumption has emerged as the essence of the good life- as a vehicle for freedom, power and happiness

[b] the ideology of conspicuous consumption: as ways of establishing social and status distinctions

[c] an economic ideology for global development: supplying the ideological force underpinning capitalist accumulation, where the world is dominated by global corporations

[d] a political ideology: a guarantor of consumer rights and minimum standards and as a major provider of goods and services

[e] a social movement seeking to promote and protect the rights of consumers: consumer advocacy dates back to the cooperative movement in the nineteenth century, and was evident in the USA with people such as Ralph Nader and 'Unsafe at any speed' in the 1960s. Nowadays, there are consumer advocates in this tradition as well as many pursuing a more radical agenda.

**Needs and usefulness of goods**: These have changed over the years; it is difficult to justify the need [and indeed the usefulness] when it is stretched to include video games, pate, cigarettes, etc. etc. There used to be a concept of goods in terms of their use-values, but this is hardly applicable now, although the despite being still used by some consumer analysts.
The meaning of goods may be representational of our self-identity and they may embody a system of meanings through which we express ourselves and communicate with each other. There is a view that economic [exchange] values ultimately derive from cultural values, not biological or social needs [Gabriel, 1995].

Emotion

The behaviours with which emotion is most associated are transient and relatively unpredictable. Perception of emotion and personality has long been of interest in psychology and there has been considerable research into what constitute the main emotions and facial expressions are a good indicator of emotional state (Russell and Fernandez-Dois, 1999); indeed people everywhere can infer something about others from their facial behaviour. There is evidence to suggest that even where the affect aroused is low, it may still affect cognition and behaviour. Latest research area is in the role of mood and emotionality as determinants of behaviour, both at work and in consumer research. Mood has been found to be associated with absence from work, psycho-immunity, [and with low self-esteem] and impulse buying.

There is now a consensus around here being six or seven basic emotions and the six are, with their facial details:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Emotion</th>
<th>Facial Details</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Surprise</td>
<td>curved/raised eyebrows, clearly visible whites of eye, dropped jaw/loosely open mouth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fear</td>
<td>eyebrows raised &amp; drawn together, wrinkles concentrated in centre forehead, lips tensed &amp; drawn back</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anger</td>
<td>lowered brows drawn together with vertical creases, eyes have hard stare, lips pressed firmly together</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disgust</td>
<td>lowered brow pushed down into upper eyelid, cheeks and upper lip raised, nose wrinkled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Happiness</td>
<td>unwrinkled forehead, crow’s feet creases radiating from outer corner of eyes, raised cheeks, smile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sadness</td>
<td>eyebrows drawn up at inner corner, corner of lips turned down, lip may be trembling.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If there is a seventh, it would be contempt. However in the real world, emotions are mixed rather than each being single and basic; thus applied research tends to deal with more than these six or seven, for example the taxonomy of affective experience suggests 10: interest, joy, surprise, sadness, anger, disgust, contempt, fear, shame, guilt. Main six used in understanding interpersonal behaviour are: happiness, surprise, sadness, anger, disgust, contempt, fear, and emotional responses in advertising include many more fascination, surprise, excitement, fun/playfulness, joy, bliss, belonging, pride, affectionate love, compassion, romantic love, gratitude, sexual desire, sentimentality, sadness, distress/anxiety, fear, disgust, contempt, shame, anger, guilt.

Are emotions recognized similarly across cultures? This is not so clear, nor indeed is how we interpret the facial expressions of others: for example, Wierzbicka (1999) details the argument that a smiling facial expression might signify happiness but that could be due to the pleasure of doing activities with friends or it could relate to exacting revenge and the pleasure that it might give. Thus, the interpretation of meaning and indeed to intention of facial expression can vary. Additionally, Wierzbicka discusses the notion of families of emotion rather than single bounded emotions; these families may contain different constituents when emotions are considered in different cultures. Russell (1995) states that anger, sadness and other semantic categories are not pan-cultural and are not the precise messages conveyed by facial expressions. When provided with Japanese and Caucasian individuals with posed universal emotions, American and Japanese judges were equally accurate (Matsumoto, 1992) but that does not obviate the debate concerning the imposition of English lexical terms onto judges which may hide to some extent the real interpretation of emotion. Mesquita and Frijda (1992) summarise these issues of interpretation differences of emotion across cultures when they suggest that these appear to be due to ‘differences in event types or schemas, in culture-specific appraisal propensities, in behaviour repertoires, or in regulation processes’ and they also refer to differences in taxonomies of emotion words, which parallels with Wierzbicka’s ‘families of emotions’, suggesting that these may result from differences in which the emotion-process phase [of the cognitive-process model] serves as the basis for categorization. The whole situation of understanding just what is happening when emotions are perceived and interpreted is muddled by problematic research, often based on pre-selected photographs of posed expressions, within-subjects designs, forced-choice answer modes etc., all of which lead Russell (1994) to conclude that facial expressions and emotion labels are probably associated, but this association may vary with culture and is loose enough to be consistent with all the various alternative accounts.

Wierzbicka [1999] and Russell [1995] discuss the importance of the minimal units of facial behaviour, and these include the eyebrows [furrowed or raised], eyes, corners of the mouth [raised or lowered], mouth open or lips pressed together and the wrinkling of the nose; she says that our interpretation of facial meaning is initially based on these simple judgements and describes these as the semantics of human faces rather than the psychology of human faces; these interpretations vary across cultures, for example eyes opened wide may be perceived differently in England than in Russia [Wierzbicka, 1999]. So it would appear that there are emotional 'universals' relating to perception of happiness, fear and anger, but others are less clear [Wierzbicka, 1999]. However it is also known that people use a much wider range of emotions than these when describing how they perceive themselves or others, including such terms as tense, uncomfortable, serene, playful, etc. [Russell and Fernandez-Dois, 1997]. The pervasive use of so many terms to describe emotions and personality, such as aiding the interpretation of non verbal communications, provides the possibility for differences in semantic interpretation of
facial expressions across and even within cultures, so it is likely that there will be cross-cultural differences in the semantic interpretation and thus also in how we attribute meaning to emotions. Yik and Russell (1999) found agreement in relation to the interpretation of social messages from standard facial expressions across samples from Canada, China and Japan. However Schimmack (1996) found that Caucasians were more accurate at judging than non-Caucasians and Shimoda et al. (1978) found that Japanese could decode European facial expressions more accurately that Japanese ones; whilst these may be due to the use of culturally biased stimulus sets, a better explanation is perhaps the stricter display rules in non-Caucasian cultures, especially for negative emotions such as anger or sadness. The point about stricter display rules pertaining to non-Caucasian cultures may however result in more accurate judgements by these cultures of facial expressions of Caucasians than of their own (Shimoda et al., 1978). Schimmack (1996) also found that, of Hofstede’s (2003) cultural dimensions, uncertainty avoidance predicted accuracy scores in the recognition of sadness and fear, suggesting that some reliable cultural differences in the recognition of emotions from facial expressions may exist.

Recognising a face sets up ‘orientating responses’, i.e. preparatory reactions for a likely response. Recognition and orientating responses probably involve separate neurological pathways (Young and Bruce, 1998). Example: if we interpret a facial expression as being very angry, we may prepare a defensive response, or indeed an aggressive one. Gender differences in the encoding and decoding of emotions has been found and replicated several times.

Russell [1997] distributes emotions across two dimensions of pleasure and arousal, so happiness is pleasure, calmness is pleasurable and lower on arousal, boredom is middling on pleasure and low on arousal, fear and anger are higher on arousal and lower on pleasure etc. This type of approach, linking arousal, pleasure and the emotions is also present in the model of Mehrabian and Russell (1974), along with dominance and from this three-way model most emotions can be derived and used for a variety of purposes such as understanding consumer behaviour [Foxall, 2005]. Mehrabian and Russell's [1974] three factor model of emotionality suggests three immediate affective responses to environments, which they argue are exhaustive: pleasure, arousal and dominance [P, A, D]. These can be delineated along the three scales of evaluation, activity and potency of Osgood et al [1957, 1975]. Other researchers have favoured a two factor models that omits dominance.

### Mehrabian's comprehensive framework of affective responses to situations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>+P+A+D</th>
<th>-P-A+D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Amazed, infatuated, surprised, impressed, loved</td>
<td>lonley, unhappy, bored, sad, depressed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+P-A+D</td>
<td>-P-A-D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>consoled, sleepy, tranquilised, sheltered, protected</td>
<td>-P-A-D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-P-A-D</td>
<td>P-A-D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>humiliated, pain, puzzled, unsafe, embarrassed</td>
<td>cruel, hate, scornful, disgusted, hostile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-P-A-D</td>
<td>P-A+D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lonely, unhappy, bored, sad, depressed</td>
<td>uninterested, uncaring, unconcerned, selfish, proud</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### References

Chapter 7:

Communication and Persuasion
Introduction
Communications is a very wide-ranging subject, covering verbal and non-verbal aspects, persuasion, listening skills, presentation skills, communications networks, linguistics and language, and many more areas. Communication is a two-way homeostatic process, being continually reviewed as a result of experience and feedback. This notion of continual development from experience and feedback is a basic principle in learning theory, and applies equally well here. The continual process of encoding, transmitting, decoding, encoding, transmitting etc. is modified by outside variables, such as the additional information transmitted e.g. facial expressions, etc..

The Communications Cycle

Communication can fail at any of its stages; for example, it can fail to be encoded properly by the communicator, or the message may not get through, or the audience may fail to decode it properly. Lack of feedback will reinforce the failure by allowing the repetition of erroneous communications and thus encouraging the formation of barriers. The human being as an information and communications processor has both strengths and weaknesses. The strengths are in intuition, insight, intelligence, learning from feedback, adaptability and decision-making. The weaknesses include situations where the amount of information exceeds the coping ability of the system, biases through past experience and where something completely new leads to miscommunication.

Non verbal communications
Non-verbal communication (NVC) refers to all that communication which is not in clear verbal format; thus it can form the backdrop against which verbal communication is interpreted, but it also can be implied through verbal communication. Non-verbal communication may be subtle or it may be blatant, and includes posture, gesture, accent, facial expressions and sighs. It can contradict verbal communications and often does so, leaving the person receiving the communications confused and unable to interpret the true meaning of what is being said.

There are many examples of the importance of NVC, which can serve to illustrate the diversity of the issue as well as how much it can change social interaction and how judgements are made. Social class is usually judged by NVCs such as accent, pronunciation and the usage of particular words that tend to be confined to one class. Seniority is important in many cultures such as China and Japan, so judgements will be made about who to talk to, and in which order, according to perceived age and perceived seniority, the latter being also judged by dress and posture. If a senior manager is wearing ‘casual’ clothing, they may be mistaken for a more junior manager and therefore ignored. This is also a problem when the expectation is that a senior

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manager is male, whereas in the Nordic countries especially, a senior manager or an engineer is as likely to be female as male. This is further complicated by gender-based management styles, where the more ‘macho’ style is more often male and more often to appear in more masculine countries. There is evidence that people talk more to those they perceive to be of the same social class as themselves (Argyle, 98).

Social distance is important when people from different cultures meet face to face; there is evidence to show that people are more comfortable with intrusions into their personal space from their own cultures, as well as evidence showing very different preferences across Europe, with generally greater distances preferred the further north the country is (Li-01; ReJB-95).

NVCs interact with verbal communication so that words, sentences and whole conversations may be affirmed or contradicted. This is complicated in communications across cultures: patterns of words may not translate either literally or linguistically, distorting conversations and documents from any common understanding, and these all need to be set in the differing cultures. So for example, The British and many other cultures will often take a short term view of a project, whereas Eastern countries such as China will take a much longer term view; these views will distort the time perceptions of individuals and lead to differing definitions of ‘soon’, ‘some time hence’, ‘when we get round to it’ as well as different understandings of ‘urgent’ including why the matter is urgent. The common understanding may be rather less than the misunderstanding, and this can apply within a country culture (for example management and employees, or between two companies) as well as across national cultures.

1. Aids or barriers to effective communication

Evidence to illustrate problems and barriers to effective communication comes from many sources, for example the studies of communication and persuasion [Janis and Hovland, 1953; MacGuire, 1963; Hartley, 1983], written communication, consumer psychology or the original work on networks by Leavitt in 1951. Aids and barriers to effective communication are discussed below:

Communicator issues

1. Communicator problems in encoding the message and lack of empathy. If the communicator is unable to see things from the perspective of the recipient, then they will encode the information from their own perspective, which may not relate at all to the 'audience'. This results in communication as though communicator was talking to themselves. Also, differences in interpretation of message varies if communicator is male or female, if audience is male or female and if spoken authoritatively or tentatively [Carli, 1980].

2. The credibility of the communicator is more important than the message for effective communication. Credibility means the target perceives the communicator as expert and trustworthy. Arguing against one's apparent interests is a particularly effective way of gaining the target's trust, such as a smoker arguing for people to stop smoking [Statt, 1998]. Smooth, fast-talking communicators tend to be more credible than slow, hesitant ones, although sometimes communicators with low credibility at the time may have their message remembered weeks later, although the target may forget who gave them the message - the sleeper effect.

3. Attractiveness of the communicator. This issue mainly involves the use of celebrities to endorse products. The accepted wisdom is that this technique works, but only up to a point; it only applies to trivial issues [such as choosing crisps or detergent] but not for really important ones. The choice of the wrong celebrity can yield catastrophic results: e.g. US beef producers getting an actress to tell consumers how great the product was, but not for really important issues [such as advertising Pepsi but being seen drinking Coca Cola.

Message issues

4. Cognitive or affective appeals? Negative, threatening communication will result in the audience 'switching off' because of the psychological tension that fear-arousing communication creates. Fear appeals work only if they provide clear and practical ways of dealing with the fear aroused [Leventhal, 1970]. It is the combination of emotional arousal and the specific instructions for dealing with it that produces the effect, and either on its own are ineffective, and the effect is also context-specific and will not be achieved if the problem and solution are more diffuse, for example relating to changes in lifestyle [e.g. advertising against AIDS]. Also, the vividness of an image is more persuasive than a string of statistics [Nisbet and Ross, 1980; Gonzales et al, 1988]. In terms of advertising to help children act safely, it has been suggested that this sort of approach can be very dangerous as well as fearful, for example the advertisements in the UK trying to explain to children that they should not play on railway lines were withdrawn because a partial view of the advertisement might have been interpreted as a good game of 'dare-devil'. More generally, affect appeals will work well with high-involvement products.

5. Noise effects in transmission or encoding. Transmission of message interrupted by 'noise'. Physical noise is comparatively easy to recognise and eliminate, e.g. telephones ringing, etc. Psychological noise is different and more difficult to cope with; it consists of biases, attitudes and beliefs held by people in the communication process and can block the transmission of ideas. Information overload can also lead to noise, where processing of the previous information has not ceased and overlaps into the new activity; this occurs more frequently than most people believe.
6. Overload of information. Because there is too much information involved in communication [particularly if the non-verbal aspects are included], there is inevitable selectivity in the reception, interpretation and retention of information. This is happening all the time but the selectivity may be heavily biased rather than representative. [The bias may come from expectations, attitudes, stereotypes etc.]. Attention is also selective because it is physiologically impossible to sustain concentration for longer than 20 minutes without reverting from the receptive, "environmentally-controlled" mode to a "pre-programmed" response mode.

7. One-sided or two sided arguments. For people who hold the same opinion as the communicator, a one-sided approach is best, for those holding the opposing opinion, a two-sided approach is best. For people who are uninformed, a one-sided approach creates the best response, and those who are well-informed respond better to a two-sided argument. However all this assumes no further communication, and if a communication is likely to be opposed in some way later, then the communicator should 'muculate' the audience, i.e. present a two-sided case, [MacGuire and Papageorgis, 1961], by presenting a weak version of the opposition's argument in the middle part of the communication [e.g., "some people would say that ..." and showing briefly why such an argument is flawed or wrong. Even when a counter argument cannot be mustered, forewarning of a communication that will challenge their beliefs, especially for those not strongly committed in their beliefs [Freedman and Sears, 1965; Kiesler, 1971].

8. Primacy and recency effects. Primacy works best when there is a small gap between two adverts and a large gap between them and the product purchase. Recency works better if there is a large gap between adverts and a small gap between them and the behaviour [Statt, 1998].

9. Size of attitude discrepancy. If changing the audience's minds is likely to threaten an important ideology, the communication will not work, because to change one part of their beliefs would mean changing the whole lot. Examples of ideologies which are hard to change include religious and political beliefs and also beliefs about status and position in society. However, with ever highly credibly sources, the greater the discrepancy between the audience attitude and the message, the more likely they are to change their minds [Aronson et al, 1963].

10. Maximum number of 'points' and repetition of message. "Say what you are going to say, say it, and say it again" is an extremely effective general rule as it seeks to reinforce the message and short communications can only really develop three messages. Anything more than this will be ignored, forgotten, not even received.

11. Summarise the message. It is crucially important to summarise and draw conclusions for the audience. The evidence suggests that largely, even very intelligent people will not necessarily draw conclusions, and then they may draw the wrong ones; this is true for even simple messages.

12. Presentation mode: Chaiken and Eagly [1983] compared the relative effects on opinion change for an audience of presenting messages in video, audio and written forms; if the message is simple, then the answer is video-audio-written in that order but if the message requires considerable processing, then written is preferable; if the matter is complex, then newspapers and magazines come into their own.

**Audience effects**

13. Threatening the ego. Receivers of messages may be defensive, or jump to conclusions too quickly. If the ego of the receiver is threatened, this will not only result in their reception of the message and other messages from that communicator being treated more ego-defensively, but also it may affect the communicator directly.

14. Resistance to persuasion. Some personality types are more resistant to persuasion, for example, those with high levels of self-esteem [e.g.Zellner, 1970] or who are "inner-directed" not reliant on other people's opinions [Riesman, 1970]; those who are less resistant include those high on external locus of control, people with a high need for social approval [Marlowe and Crown, 1968], people who are depressed, whose self-esteem is low, or those who are "outer-directed" i.e. who choose to rely on other people's opinions or who are 'people-dependent' [Riesman, 1970].

15. Public commitment. This importance of this was shown many years ago by the experiments of Kurt Lewin, who demonstrated that discussion groups about the nutritional value of offal could help persuade women to try offal recipes. This approach is used a lot in direct marketing to groups of consumers via product agents.

16. Mood and emotion effects. Whilst mood and emotion are influenced by many outside variables, it is possible to exert some control in terms of the content of an advertisement. For example, evoking positive feelings by the use of attractive visuals and music may help the consumer associate the positive feelings with the featured product, and there is some evidence that the persuasiveness of the advertisement can be increased [Batra and Stayman, 1990]. The effects are greater when the mood of the programme and the mood of the advertisement are congruent, for example it would be less effective to have an upbeat advertisement for soft drinks during a programme about famine, and also there is evidence that violent TV programmes are not conducive to the effectiveness of advertising [Kamins et al, 1991]
17. Feedback  For the effectiveness of communication to be known, feedback is essential. Advertising without obtaining feedback is one-way communication and most mass-communication advertising operated in this way and it is possible that reactions by the audience may involve changes in attitudes or behaviour, or none at all. Two-way communication in advertising can be seen in personal selling, either by retail outlets, door-to-door sales, telephone sales, and even television shopping. These can all influence the decision to buy, because even fleetingly, a personal relationship is established where both personality factors and the communicator's status can come into play [Olshavsky, 1973]. Other forms of two-way communications involve routine post-testing and debriefing measures, focus groups, TV panels, etc, although these can have a lot of slippage between attitudes and buying behaviour. Computerised data from purchasing is currently less well used than it could be in the UK, but it can be used to track a marketing campaign over time; a recent example is Jamie Oliver and Sainsbury's, where specific product sales have risen substantially when recipes or eating suggestions are featured such as sales of nutmeg in early 2005.

18. Form filling. Where a person is required to respond by answering questions or filling in forms of any kind, it is better to get them to endorse positive statements than to deny negatives; the latter takes up more information processing capacity and may overload the search procedures for a less intelligent person [Hartley, 1983]; this is necessary when advertising things such as self-reported on-line tax returns where the simplicity of answering is the focus of the advertisement.

**ii Communication with consumers**

**Older consumers**

The older consumer constitutes an increasing market for advertisers, as people are living longer and older consumer often have much larger amounts of disposable income. We need to distinguish between the older consumer and the very old, where some advertising may actually embarrass them- one classic example being when some years ago Heinz launched a line of pureed 'senior foods' because some old people with chewing difficulties were buying baby food; they preferred to buy baby food and pretend it was for grandchildren rather than be faced with buying 'senior foods'. Older people may well perceive they are negatively represented in adverts and poor promotion has contributed to the alienation of older consumer [Festervand and Lumpkin, 1985]. Stereotyped images include: half-dead codgers, meddling biddies, grandfatherly authority figures or nostalgic endorsers of products that claim to be just as good as in the olden days; rarely are older people shown just as ordinary consumers [Abrams, 1984].

In the US, those aged over 55 constitute 26% of the population but only 10% of TV commercial characters, usually those in need of laxatives, denture adhesives, sleeping pills or insurance for burials. There is a stereotyped belief that older people have communications problems, in terms of listening, losing track of conversations and being unable to remember and these lead to a lack of understanding about what are the most appropriate communications styles to use with this market segment. Many advertisers refuse to direct any advertising for fear it would 'hurt their public image' and tend to keep away their most desirable age-group, the youth [Knaur, 1988].

Wisenblitt [1989] suggests the following for developing effective themes in promotional messages aimed at older consumers: focus on the solution, not the problem don't portray age per se and appeal to the issue avoid stereotypes and ageism use appropriate semantics, actors and spokespersons portray inter-generational decision making and interaction portray experience rather than 'things' use self-perception and cognitive age portray older consumers as dynamic and vigorous portray older consumers as part of the mainstream stress: quality, reliability and value; comfort security and dependability stress independence and being in control.

Schewe [1989] showed that older consumers process information differently from younger ones because of changes in vision, hearing and memory. As a consequence, adverts should not be cluttered with too much information, be relevant and not distracting [does humour distract?], communications should be clear and not too fast speaking with clear bright and sharp pictures, the message should be simple and any new information should relate to something with which people are already familiar. Many of these principles have already been identified as important for such issues as safety propaganda [e.g. Sell, 1977] so it may be that many of these recommendations are less age-specific than Schewe and colleagues might suppose.

**iii Communication in the workplace**

Lewis (1975) searched 26 different writings in the management field and produced a list of 130 barriers to communication, which can be broken down broadly into two main areas: micro and macro barriers. Many of these apply into other areas of communication, such as communicating with consumers, not just management.

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<th>micro-barriers:</th>
<th>macro-barriers:</th>
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<tr>
<td>1. Perceptual selectivity</td>
<td>1. Serial communication- through one or more person</td>
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<td>2. Evaluating things and people as good or bad</td>
<td>2. Decision processes- persons affected by or capable of improving the decision are not consulted</td>
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iv Communication patterns at work

Status as a barrier is particularly interesting because it is associated with the direction in which messages are sent in organizations. Nichols (1962) showed that only 20% of downward directed information ever reaches the bottom organizational level, while another study found it to be only 5%. Information losses tend to be substantial at each level. The seriousness is compounded because the workers receiving information from above tend to want more, while higher level personnel tend to overestimate the amount of information being received by people below them.

**Downward communication** is often one-way and provides no feedback; this is particularly true for written and other kinds of mechanical communication. Supervisors and subordinates view their contributions differently and see different loyalties; therefore parts of downward messages may be differentially filtered out. Mistrust of status is also a barrier in that those who feel it may block the relay of downward messages. There are two psychic conflicts of leadership—status anxiety [torn between exercise of authority and the desire to be liked] and competition anxiety [dealing with the fact that managerial work is competitive], both of which may cause the manager to leave out or distort information in communicating with subordinates.

Upward communication: the evidence clearly demonstrates that employees transmit messages that they feel will improve their standing with their bosses and withhold information which they think might damage their image [impression management]. The attitudes and particularly maladaptive styles of the subordinate such as rebellion or passive withdrawal all act as inhibitors to upward communication. Individuals who believe that information is power are likely to withhold communication. The attitudes and actions of the manager, e.g. feeling that they are too busy or behaving defensively about themselves or refusing to listen to criticism of the organization, all result in the manager losing confidence in the value of upward communication. Characteristics of the organization such as the level of formality of structures and procedures, physical distance between superior and subordinates and information-sharing norms are also all barriers to upward communication.

Lateral communication problems in organizations have identifiable causes such as increased specialisation which reduces the extent to which members share common interests, lack of management recognition and reward [upward communication tends to be rewarded but lateral does not], suppression of differences because of being afraid to express rivalry or disagreement.

The concept of barriers to high-quality communication is a useful diagnostic tool, whose major advantage is that a barrier, once identified, helps to suggest its own remedy. There are three final characteristics of barriers that should be mentioned:

* multiplicity - the tendency to occur in clusters
* interdependency - barriers tend to sustain and reinforce one another.
* restraining forces - it is more effective to reduce the resisting forces than to push harder in the directions that are already evoking resistance.

v Impression Management

Goffman (1959), a sociologist, defined IM as involving attempts to establish the meaning or purpose of social interactions and that it guides our actions and helps us to anticipate what to expect from others. In other words, IM is a sort of social ritual that helps to smooth and control social relations and to avoid mutual embarrassment. Goffman contended that even actions which at first glance appeared to be innocuous might actually be strategically calculated to show the social actor in the best possible light. Leary and Kowalski [1990] propose three components: impression monitoring [being aware of others' impressions], impression motivation [wants to influence others' impressions and impression construction [chooses impressions to manage].

**IM techniques include:**

[a] ingratiation, which can be divided into opinion conformity, favour doing, flattery and compliments, other enhancement and self enhancement. Opinion conformity is based loosely on the law of attraction [Byrne, 1971] that the greater the proportion of similar attitudes that people share, the more they will like each other. Like other forms of ingratiation, opinion conformity thrives on power differentials. But to be successful, it works best if disguised and complicated, such as mixing disagreement with agreement, or expressing initial disagreement and gradually changing to agreement. For example, these have been seen in advertising where a sceptic is slowly won round. Flattery and other enhancement have also been shown to be effective [see Rosenfeld et al, 1995] and enhancement of ego can be seen in advertisements and especially in door-to-door or 'house party' selling; other enhancement, if it is to work, must be credible, so timing, discernment and frequency are important. Self enhancement is using acquisitive IM to make oneself be seen as more attractive, the goals being to find out what the target thinks is attractive and claim it for oneself [e.g. politicians]. The 'ingratiator's dilemma is the dynamic interplay between the motivations [incentive] component and the cognitive [subjective probability] one; there is also a third factor in this- an ethical one, an issue of perceived legitimacy.
Other techniques include self-promotion [wanting to be perceived as competent rather than as above- wanting to be liked]; intimidation [the goal being to be feared]; exemplification [managing the impressions of integrity, self-sacrifice and moral worthiness]; supplication [exploiting own weaknesses to influence others- a bit of a last resort]. Self promotion may work hand in hand with ingratiation attempts or be in conflict with them. Exemplification often involves strategic self-sacrifice, which may really be trying to control feelings of guilt or attributions of virtue in others to lead to imitation. There are also indirect IM techniques involving the use of associations with positive others, even when those associations are due to chance or trivial, such as celebrity endorsements. Acclaiming tactics are designed to explain a desirable event in a way that maximises the desirable implications for the actor [Schlenker, 1980] such as politicians do rather a lot. Non verbal IM involves facial expressions, posture, body orientation, touching and interpersonal distance and these can influence the impression we form of others and they of us; transactional analysis techniques have been taught to door-to-door and direct salespeople for years and utilise non verbal as well as verbal IM techniques.

Protective IM can take the form of using excuses and justifications. Companies have been known to use the following techniques when faced with poor publicity: denial, attacking the attackers, admission of some blame and going onto the offence [Miller et al, 1992]. Predicaments by companies or Governments which generate the need for protective IM include: doing something that shouldn't be done, not doing something that should be done, doing things badly and being caught 'red-handed'. Predicaments are identity risk factors, where reputation, image and self-esteem may be tarnished. IM theorists refer to remedial tactics, which politicians might refer to damage control or rezoning. A major form of remedial tactics is accounts which are forms of verbal damage control; motive talk, neutralisation, excuses and justifications, quasi-theories [offered on an ad hoc basis to give the situation hope and order, e.g. 'market forces', aligning actions to make the problem seem consistent with cultural expectation or societal standards. How effective all of these are depends on whether or not they are believed. Achenbach and Kleibamhuter [1990] describe 4 phases that comprise a typical account episode: failure event with a predicament were an individual or group are held responsible; reproach phase where the observer reacts; account phase; evaluation phase where the observer accepts or rejects the account. Many political and environmental incidents follow these phases, often leaving the observers [the public] unhappy with a rejection and consequent lowering of trust. Excuses can involve: appeal to accidents; appeal to defeasibility ["not fully informed"]; appeal to biological drives; scapegoating by blaming others. Justifications include: denial of injury [no harm done], denial of the victim [who 'deserves it'] condemnation of the condemners [others get away with much more than this] and appeal to loyalties [helping some one to whom you are loyal].

Other forms of protective IM include: disclaimers [anticipatory excuse making before the predicament, such as hedging [signaling minimal commitment such as yes.. but no because..], credentialing [claim special credentials such as ethnic origin], sin licences [ I know it is against the rules, but..], cognitive disclaimers [you may think I am nuts, but... To justify a bizarre behaviour] and appeals to the suspension of judgement or affect [before you get annoyed, listen to this”]; self handicapping [setting up obstacles to successful performance]; apologies [state apologetic intent, express remorse, offer to restitute and redress, request forgiveness;

Examples of IM behaviours
* Self-handicapping behaviour is where one arranges for a visible and non-threatening obstacle to one's own performance, such as an 'urgent' matter than means cancellation of an appointment. So the failure to turn up is due to the obstacle and not, for example, one's dental anxiety.; this may also involve fear of appearing incompetent and may be done to maintain self esteem
* Empathetic embarrassment for another person
* Self-enhancement and compensatory IM
* Protective IM “accounts” such as excuses and justifications-
Accounts are “statements made to explain untoward behaviour and bridge the gap between actions and expectation”- used to extricate one self from predicaments
Whether or not the account is accepted determines its effectiveness
Example ‘accounts’ include appeals to accidents, lack of information, biological drives, scapegoating
* Other verbal damage control mechanisms include:
Using a vocabulary of motives,
Attempts to neutralise unacceptable behaviour
Quasi theories invented as excuses
Alignment of problematic actions to make them consistent with cultural expectations or societal standards

Different types of IM behaviour
Social desirability- to make ones self appear in best light
Social approval- to give answers that you think the other person is wanting
Self-deceptive enhancement- to deliberately over-report good behaviour and under-report poor behaviour
Attributive or repudiative tactics- ascribe positive traits to self and deny existence of negative ones
Ingratiatory behaviours
Concern with maintenance of face
Machiavellian behaviour
Willingness vs. unwillingness to communicate positive and negative information; willingness to communicate negative info allows some IM flexibility, unwillingness may reduce any positive perception of communicator.

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vi Language
Language consists of a finite set of elements and a finite set of rules for combining elements; this characteristic gives the system two important qualities: redundancy and generative power.

Redundancy in the system means that there exists more information than is actually needed for understanding the message. Generative power refers to the fact that the system allows for the creation of new elements and therefore new messages.

Two main aspects have been investigated to very useful effect: the structure of language enables us to calculate processing times for various types of negative and positive sentences and the assess the errors in understanding different structures; the meaning of language has featured considerably in research concerning our understanding and interpretation of both written and spoken language. These investigations have resulted in considerable savings when, for example, a higher proportion of respondents reply correctly than previously, following redesign of communications [see studies by James Hartley since 1981].

Recent work in this area has included attempts to find the conceptual dimensions underlying the use of specific words in terms of risk communication (e.g. Wogalter et al, 1999) and more generally risk communications in the consumer, workplace and public environments (e.g. Hofmann & Morgeson, 1999).

An important broad distinction can be made between two major functions of language- the denotative function and the connotative function. Denotation is the explicit meaning and is obviously the language of science. However, in everyday non-scientific language, words also have connotative meanings which are the more general ideas, feelings and action tendencies that are associated with a word. It is the differing connotative meanings that can cause so many problems and misunderstandings in communication and there are some very serious documented errors made as a consequence- see the references to risk communications above.

It is now clear that a language common to several nations can develop quite differently in each of those nations; for example, the British and the Americans have been described as “two countries separated by a common language”. The work of Bernstein was seminal in understanding cultural differences in language within both the US and UK.

It is important to establish some of the word meanings that may be misunderstood- even a word like 'work' has different implied meanings for the different social classes in the UK, and there will also be different interpretations of it in other countries and cultures. In the UK, words that have been found to have different meanings to people in different sub-cultures include: quality, cost and price, job satisfaction, loyalty, commitment, government, work, rewards, incentives, and safety-related words such as danger, hazardous, toxic etc [Oppenheim, 1994].

Coupled with differing meanings of words is the issue of differing non-verbal behaviours. Michael Argyle has conducted a great deal of research into different cultural customs and behaviours, investigating Arab, Asian, far Eastern and American traditions and social behaviours. He showed that different cultural groups have different ways of greeting friends and colleagues and that not conforming to cultural ‘rules’ can sometimes cause offence. His research suggests that, before greeting people from different countries or cultures, it is vitally important that we learn the appropriate and inappropriate greetings and behaviours. See also work by Hall on social distance.

vii Listening and reflection skills
This has become big business in the management training and development areas, as it is recognized that most managers spend by far the most of their time in communicating and listening. So skills courses in listening and reflection have been popular as a means to improve the situation.

Below are a lot of notes, taken from various sources mostly on the internet, to enable the understanding of what this is all about.

"We are given two ears, but only one mouth. This is because God knew that listening was twice as hard as talking."

Thoughts move about 4 times as fast as speech. Therefore it is tempting for thoughts to race on ahead of our own speaking and the other person speaking; both of these can be dangerous. Have you had the experience of really needing to talk with someone - needing them to listen, support, understand - and coming away feeling confused, angry, sad, disillusioned: in short, feeling worse than you did before talking with that person? Consider the following:

"Nothing feels so good as being understood, not evaluated or judged. When I try to share some feeling aspect of myself and my communication is met with evaluation, reassurance, distortion of my meaning, I know what it is to be alone." (Carl Rogers, psychologist)

Listening is hard work! Active listening is more than just skill; it's also a matter of attitude. To be an active listener, you must accept people for who and what they are, not what you want them to be. Below are several authors' tips on effective listening.

Listening out loud and feedback
A good listener is not just a silent receptacle, passively receiving the thoughts and feelings of others. To be an effective listener, you must respond with verbal and nonverbal cues which let the speaker know that you are listening and understanding. These responses are called feedback.
Verbal feedback works best when delivered in the form of brief statements, rather than questions. Statements allow you to paraphrase and reflect what you've heard, which affirms the person's success at communicating and encourages them to elaborate further. Meaningful exchanges are built on feedback. In order to accurately feed back a person's thoughts and feelings, you have to be consciously, actively engaged in the process of listening. Hearing a statement, you create a mental model, vicariously experiencing what the speaker is describing, feeling the speaker's feelings through the filters of your own humanity and experience.

Many people believe that good listening skills are easy to learn or automatically part of every person's personality. Neither is correct. The difference is that poor listening skills are often not as obvious to other people. If we cannot speak effectively, it is immediately obvious, but it may take time for other people to become aware that you or I are poor listeners. Poor listening habits are actually more common than poor speaking skills. You will have seen on many occasions two or more people talking to each other at the same time. People cannot talk and be an effective listener at the same time. What is not so obvious is when you and I are only paying partial attention or don't fully understand. A lecturer can give a lecture on a complex topic and all too often very few questions are asked, but bring up a topic such as exams and hands will go up all over the room. Why? Is it that they listened to and understood the lecture, but not the announcement about an exam? Obviously not. The exam has immediate relevance called grades, while the material in the lecture? Well, maybe some time in the future. The same conclusions can be drawn about many or most other conversations or other listening.

There is shallow listening and deep listening. Shallow or superficial listening is all too common in classes and many other settings. Most of us have learned how to give the appearance of listening to the lecturer while not really listening. Even less obvious is when the message received is different from the one sent. We did not really understand what the message is. We listened, but we did not get the intended message. Such failed communications are the consequences of poor speaking, poor listening and/or poor understanding. The communications cycle model demonstrates the ways that some of these things can happen. Good listening skills will vary from one communications situation to the next. For example, what is effective feedback will vary from one person to another. Some people to whom you are listening may need more feedback than others.

There are three basic listening modes: combative, attentive and reflective. Most of us would describe our listening as attentive, that we are interested in the other person's point of view. Many students may approach a lecturer in a combative mode when discussing grades, clearly not wanting to hear the lecturer's explanations, but wanting to promote theirs. The following attributes of good listening are suggestive of the skills needed. There is some overlap between the various attributes, but each suggests something different.

**Good listening skills**

1. **Concentration.** You need to concentrate on what is said so that you can process the information into your notes. Have you ever counted the number of times someone clears his/her throat in a fifteen minute period? If so, you weren't focusing on content. Good listening is normally hard work. At every moment we are receiving literally millions of sensory messages. Nerve endings on our bottom are telling us the chair is hard, others are saying our clothes are binding, nerve ending in our nose are picking up the smells of cooking, our ears are hearing street sounds, music in the background and dozens of other sounds, our emotions are reminding us of that fight we had with our mate last night, and thousands more signals are knocking at the doors of our senses. We have to repress almost all of these and concentrate on the verbal sounds (and visual clues) from one source - the person we are listening to. And this concentration is something that most of us have not been thoroughly trained in how to do. Mentally screen out distractions, like background activity and noise. Finally, don't be distracted by your own thoughts, feelings, or biases. Use the gap between the rate of speech and your rate of thought. You can think faster than the other person can talk. That's one reason your mind may tend to wander. Your mind does have the capacity to listen, think, write and ponder at the same time, but it does take practice.

2. **Attention.** Attention may be defined as the visual portion of concentration on the speaker. Through eye contact (see below) and other body language, we communicate to the speaker that we are paying close attention to his/her messages. All the time we are reading the verbal and nonverbal cues from the speaker, the speaker is reading ours. What messages are we sending out? If we lean forward a little and focus our eyes on the person, the message is we are paying close attention. Don't let your mind wander or be distracted by someone shuffling papers near you. In addition, try not to focus on the speaker's accent or speech mannerisms to the point where they become distractions. When listening for long stretches, focus on (and remember) key words and issues. Treat listening as a challenging mental task. When dealing with difficult people, spend more time listening than speaking. When in doubt about whether to listen or speak, keep listening. Stay active by asking mental questions. Active listening keeps you on your toes. Listen to the words and try to picture what the speaker is saying. Wait for the speaker to pause to ask clarifying questions. Ask questions only to ensure understanding of something that has been said (avoiding questions that disrupt the speaker's train of thought). Give the speaker regular feedback, e.g., summarize, reflect feelings, or simply say "uh huh."

3. **Eye contact.** Of course you will need to look at your notebook or computer to write any notes, but eye contact keeps you focused on the other person. Good eye contact is essential for several reasons: First, by maintaining eye contact, some of the competing visual inputs are eliminated. You are not as likely to be distracted from the person talking to you. Second, most of us have learned to read lips, often unconsciously, and the lip reading helps us to understand verbal messages. Third, much of many messages are in non-verbal form and by watching the eyes and face of a person we pick up clues as to the content. A
squatting of the eyes may indicate close attention. A slight nod indicates understanding or agreement. Most English language messages can have several meanings depending upon voice inflection, voice modulation, facial expression, etc. Finally, our eye contact with the speaker is feedback concerning the message: Yes, I am listening, I am paying attention, I hear you. Remember: a person's face, mouth, eyes, hands and body all help to communicate to you. No other part of the body is as expressive as the head.

4. Receptive body language. Certain body postures and movements are culturally interpreted with specific meanings. The crossing of arms and legs is perceived to mean a closing of the mind and attention. The nodding of the head vertically is interpreted as agreement or assent. (It is worth noting that nonverbal clues such as these vary from culture to culture just as the spoken language does.) If seated, the leaning forward with the upper body communicates attention. Standing or seated, the maintenance of an appropriate distance is important. Too close and we appear to be pushy or aggressive and too far and we are seen as cold.

5. Understanding of communication symbols. A good command of the spoken language is essential in good listening. Meaning must be imputed to the words. For all common words in the English language there are numerous meanings. The three-letter word, "run" has more than one hundred different uses. The word 'set' has the greatest number of meanings of any word in English and occupies over 60,000 words in the Oxford English Dictionary. You as the listener must concentrate on the context of the usage in order to correctly understand the message. The spoken portion of the language is only a fraction of the message. Voice inflection, body language and other symbols send messages also. Thus, a considerable knowledge of nonverbal language is important in good listening.

6. Openness. We should be open to the message the other person is sending. It is very difficult to be completely open because each of us is strongly biased by the weight of our past experiences. We give meaning to the messages based upon what we have been taught the words and symbols mean by our parents, our peers and our teachers. Talk to some one from a different culture and watch how they give meaning to words. Or another listening challenge is to listen open and objectively to a person with very different political or religious beliefs relatively few people can listen, understand and appreciate such messages which are very different from their own. Keeping an open mind means avoiding emotional involvement. When you are too emotionally involved in listening, you tend to hear what you want to hear-not what is actually being said.

7. Restating the message. Your restating the message as part of the feedback can enhance the effectiveness of good communications. A comment such as: "I want to make sure that I have fully understood you...." and then paraphrase in your own words the message. If the communication is not clear, such a feedback will allow for immediate clarification. It is important that you state the message as clearly and objectively as possible.

8. Questioning/Clarifying. Questions can serve the same purpose as restating the message. If you are unclear about the intent of the message, ask for more information after allowing sufficient time for explanations. Don't ask questions that will hurt, embarrass or show up the other person. Only part of the responsibility is with the speaker. You have an important and active role to play also. If the message does not get through, two people have failed the speaker and you as an active listener.

9. Empathy - not sympathy. Empathy [see later in handout] is the "the action of understanding, being aware of, being sensitive to, and vicariously experiencing the feelings, thoughts, and experience of another...." Sympathy is "having common feelings..." In other words as a good listener you need to be able to understand the other person, you do not have to become like them. Try to put yourself in the speaker's position so that you can see what he/she is trying to get at.

10. Strategic pauses. Pauses can be used very effectively in listening. For example, a pause at some points in the feedback can be used to signal that you are carefully considering the message, that you are "thinking" about what was just said.

11. Leave the channel open. A good listener always leaves open the possibility of additional messages. A brief question or a nod will often encourage additional communications

[d] Reflection
This area has become extremely popular recently for management training courses, so it is covered in some detail below as an exemplar for management training in a 'soft' area.

It has origins in counselling and psychotherapy, particularly in Carl Rogers' "client-centred" therapy. In reflective listening, the listener adopts what Rogers called "the therapist's hypothesis". This is the belief that the capacity for self-insight, problem-solving, and growth resides primarily in the speaker. This means that the central questions for the listener are not 'What can I do for this person?' Or even "How do I see this person" but rather "How does this person see themselves and their situation?" Reflection is a process in which the listener tries to clarify and reflect back what the other person is saying; skillfully done, the following applies:

The other is helped to clarify his or her thoughts and feelings
The listener gains information.
The relationship between the two persons develops.
The activity arouses and channels motivational energy by encouraging the other that one is willing to see their point of view and wants to help.

Rogers and others have made the underlying orientation of the listener more specific by noting that it contains four components: empathy, acceptance, congruence [openness and frankness], and concreteness [focusing on specifics].

**Empathy** is the listener’s desire and effort to understand the recipient of help from the recipient's internal frame of reference rather than from some external point of view, such as a theory; a set of standards, or the listener's preferences. The empathic listener tries to get inside the other's thoughts and feelings. Expressed verbally and nonverbally though messages such as "I follow you," "I’m with you" or "I understand," empathy is the listener's effort to hear the other person deeply, accurately, and non-judgmentally. A person who sees that a listener is really trying to understand his or her meanings will be willing to explore his or her problems and self more deeply. Empathy is surprisingly difficult to achieve. We all have a strong tendency to advise, tell, agree, or disagree from our own point of view.

**Acceptance** is closely related to empathy. Acceptance means having respect for a person for simply being a person. Acceptance should be as unconditional as possible. This means that the listener should avoid expressing agreement or disagreement with what the other person says. This attitude encourages the other person to be less defensive and to explore aspects of self and the situation that they might otherwise keep hidden.

**Congruence** refers to openness, frankness, and genuineness on the part of the listener. The congruent listener is in touch with themselves. If angry or irritated, for example, the congruent person admits to having this feeling rather than pretending not to have it (perhaps because they are trying to be accepting). They communicate what they feel and know, rather than hiding behind a mask. Candour on the part of the listener tends to evoke candour in the speaker. When one person comes out from behind a facade, the other is more likely to as well. In some cases, the principle of congruence can be at odds with the principles of empathy and acceptance. For example, if the listener is annoyed with the other person, they probably have to suspend empathy and acceptance until they sort things out.

**Concreteness** refers to focusing on specifics rather than vague generalities. Often, a person who is has a problem will avoid painful feelings by being abstract or impersonal, using expressions like "sometimes there are situations that are difficult" (which is vague and abstract), or "most people want..." (which substitutes others for oneself). The listener can encourage concreteness by asking the speaker to be more specific. For example, instead of agreeing with a statement like "You just can’t trust X. They care about themselves first and you second", you can ask what specific incident the speaker is referring to.

Reflective listening is used in situations where you are trying to help the speaker deal with something. There are two major aspects of client-centred listening – the "listener orientation" and the "reflective technique". In active listening, it is important not only that the listener have an orientation with the four qualities of empathy, acceptance, congruence and acceptance, but that the speaker feel that listener has this orientation. Consequently, a good listener tries to understand how the other is experiencing the interaction and to shape their responses so that other person understands where they are coming from. Furthermore, the listener must be prepared to deviate from the four principles if that’s what the other person wants. For example, if the other person asks for an opinion, the listener should give it, rather than avoid it as implied by the principles of empathy and acceptance.

**Reflective techniques involve the following:**

* More listening than talking
* Responding to what is personal rather than to what is impersonal
* Restating and clarifying what the other has said
* Not asking questions or telling what the listener feels, believes or wants
* Trying to understand the feelings contained in what others say, not just the facts/ideas
* Working to get the best possible sense of the other's frame of reference and avoiding responding from own frame of reference
* Responding with acceptance and empathy, not aloofness, cold objectivity or fake concern

Reflection is thus a highly selective process, involving choosing to do and say certain very specific kinds of things and avoiding others. However, reflective listening is a very useful skill but may not always be appropriate. The process called confrontation or feedback and is different from the reflective technique in that it is directive rather than non-directive. Effective confrontation typically conforms with the following rules:

1] Give immediate feedback
2] Show concern for helping the other
3] Be descriptive rather than evaluative
4] Focus on behaviour (rather than motives)
5] Describe the effects of behaviour on own feelings
6] Be specific rather than general
7] Confront when the other person is ready to accept it
8] Confront only on matters the other is able to do something about
Confrontation in the manager-subordinate relationship may occur when for example the manager has to persuade the subordinate that a course of action which may be unpleasant or uncomfortable is essential, or that some particular behaviour by the subordinate is essential if the problem is to be solved.

Reflective listening skills
1. Prompting.
Prompting consists of telling the speaker, with a minimum of verbiage, that you want him to continue speaking, to give you more information. We identify two types of "prompts": verbal and nonverbal.

Verbal prompts include such phrases as "Really," "That's interesting," "You mean? . . .", "Like what!", and "Tell me more about that." They function to keep the speaker talking, and therefore by definition involved. Generally speaking, the actual words used in a verbal prompt are less important than the intonation used in expressing them. Probably the most frequently used of all verbal prompts is the non-word "Hmmm..." - an expression that is really little more than a grunt, and that certainly conveys no hard data to the speaker. Yet in spite of its lack of "information", the expression can be invaluable in drawing a hesitant speaker out, provided it is "stated" in a sympathetic voice, and with the appropriate facial expression and gestures of attention, that is, with the right "nonverbal prompts."

Nonverbal prompts include the whole "cues and prods" repertoire of the classic "good" listener. Think of a situation in which you have bent somebody's ear for an hour or two, unburdening your soul or seeking sympathy for problems. What "support" did that person give you as you rattled on about yourself? Most people who have been in this situation (which includes pretty much all of us) say that the truly good listener is admired not so much for the advice or information she or he conveys, but for the unspoken support that is evident in expression and gesture. The good listener's repertoire includes, therefore, the sympathetic smile, the raised eyebrow, the nod, the hand holding the chin, the body tilted forward toward the speaker, the laugh, the wince, and the knitted brow. All of these gestures signal the speaker that you are on his side, and want to hear more. Nonverbal prompts can be tremendously motivating, and especially useful to anyone who may not by nature be voluble.

2. Open-ended questions.
The second reflective listening skill is a little more complicated than prompting, and it focuses more precisely on missing information that the listener wants to get. The difference between open and closed questions is that the former cannot be answering with a simple yes or no, and the latter can. For anyone who is interested in eliciting as much information as possible from a speaker, it's obvious which kind of question is going to be more effective: the open-ended question, like the prompt, encourages a person to keep talking, and thus reinforces and Involves him. The closed question is designed to elicit only a specific piece of information — which may or may not be the information that you need. Sometimes it doesn't even elicit that, because it's phrased in a purely rhetorical manner. The rhetorical question—where you don't really want a response—is the worst type of closed question, and it's one that demotivating managers use all the time- rhetoric, intimidation and no involvement. Open-ended questions never start in this limiting and intimidating way, but with those words that newspaper people appropriately call "openers": who, what, when, where, why, and how. Closed questions imply that you'd better not have any question whereas open questions imply that you do have questions and concerns, that they are worth talking about, and that the questioner is sincerely interested in finding out more about your confusion. Because the grammar of the question does not allow a monosyllabic answer, you allow the person to expand on his or her opinions, to express difficulties and confusions, to provide information rather than a granted yes or no.

An example: say you're confronted by someone who just doesn't seem to understand what [s]he needs to be doing to get something to work. To get that person's behaviour to change, you could ask either a closed or an open question. Here are the possible choices:

A. Do you understand what doing this task means?
B. What's your understanding of this task?

Notice that the A (closed) version, aside from inviting even a totally ignorant person to say "yes," also unnecessarily challenges them to give themself an A+ rating on a task they may, or may not, understand. The B (open) version allows for more hesitancy and humility: it allows the person who is not absolutely certain of the task to admit it, and ask for an explanation. One caveat: obviously, you could, if you were particularly vindictive make the B version sound pretty nasty, and you could also, if you were particularly attentive to people's reactions, make the A version sound like a real plea for information. To go back to nonverbal cues: the appropriate use of reflective listening requires an attention not only to grammar, but to nuance and "body grammar" as well.

Some people, such as some who are highly anxious or withdrawn or high on social desirability responding are resistant to providing information, even about their own deep concerns, and there are therefore risks involved in working with open questions. The most obvious, and most prevalent, of these risks is that the person you're asking for "clarification" [for example of following a type of diet] will say- or indicate to you without actually saying it- that what you're asking is not going to be answered truthfully. That can close you off from them, and make it extremely difficult for you to turn him on to whatever needs to get done. When you run into this kind of problem- and you will- you might want to resort to a pair of open questions that
have often been found to be useful in drawing out the more closed individuals. If Jim is reluctant to tell you "how he feels" about a given issue, you should ask him one positive, and one negative question.

The positive question: What do you like about this?
The negative question: What are your concerns about this?

These questions will not guarantee that Jim will suddenly be transformed into a garrulous, enthusiastic fellow ready to talk with you for days. But they do tend to focus the need here for more feedback and more involvement. Usually this will turn Jim around. If it doesn't, try backing off and trying another reflective listening technique to get him involved. There are people who see direct, personal questions of any kind as a threat, and there is no point in antagonising those people just because the open-ended question in general is an effective listening technique.

3. Rephrasing
In rephrasing, you put into your own words what you believe the speaker to be saying, and then reflect that back to him or her—that is, give him or her feedback—to check the accuracy of your understanding. Rephrasing statements often begin with a kind of introductory "keyword" that identifies what is to follow as an attempt at clarification, such as "You mean?..." or the small word "So." Other examples of introductory words or phrases for Rephrased statements would be "It seems to me you feel...", "You seem to...", and the old reliable "In other words ".

Always beware of the "parrot trap," and exercise your imagination to come up with a version of the speaker's comment that is more than a simple carbon copy. Remember that the double purpose of rephrasing— as of reflective listening in general—is to clarify and reinforce. Neither of these benefits is achieved by a verbatim reproduction of a comment. In fact, if your response to "Things are going to hell around here" is "You think things are going to hell," it's likely to have a counterproductive effect because verbatim transcriptions can easily be read as mimicry, mockery, or both.

The most useful kinds of rephrased statements are those that seek clarification by attempting to specify (pinpoint) what the speaker is getting at. Asking a rephrased question in this kind of pinpointed manner serves the purpose of clarification when your idea about the other person's feelings are off base. Ironically, there is a problem associated with many rephrased statements that grows directly out of the fact that they are used to pinpoint the issues. Rephrased statements are really a kind of closed question: it would be possible for the initial speaker to answer the rephrased question with a simple, and nonproductive, yes or no. Because there is a danger that rephrasing can close off rather than open out the conversation, one should use rephrasing with caution and in conjunction with open-ended questions.

Suppose a subordinate responds to the manager's query about his molar teeth with a simple, "No, that's not the problem." The manager could then resort to the open-ended questioning technique to further clarify the subordinate's concerns, The bottom line here is a logical enough lesson: it's only when all the reflective listening skills are used interactively that you create the most fluid and productive communication.

Rephrasing is not appropriate for every communication situation, but only for those where someone says something that is important, complicated, and/or confusing, i.e. where clarification is needed. A simple guideline for knowing whether or not it's time to rephrase something you've just heard is to ask yourself, "Do I understand what this person means? Do I know exactly what he's talking about?" If you do, you don't have to ask. If you don't know for sure, go to rephrasing.

Some people resist the idea of rephrasing—of throwing a person's comment back at him—because they believe that it's insulting or rude to do so, or do not want to appear unprofessional. However the same rephrasing principle applies whoever you are talking to, or at whatever level. If you stop someone and say, "Do you mean...", and ask for clarification, things eventually get simpler. It's never rude to ask somebody for clarification. What is rude is nodding when you don't understand and when you do that, it always comes back to haunt you later—so use rephrasing.

4. Empathy Statements
The fourth reflective listening skill is a sophisticated special case of rephrasing. The two major goals of reflective listening skills are to clarify and to reinforce. Rephrasing generally focuses on the first of these two goals. Empathy statements are designed to satisfy both goals, but with a greater emphasis on reinforcement. Like rephrasing statements in general, empathy statements encourage the speaker to talk, to elaborate on his or her comments, so that you can get further information. They also indicate to the other person that you have been listening to what he is saying. But in focusing primarily on how the speaker is feeling, rather than simply on the information he is expressing, they do one thing that other rephrasing statements do not: they serve to defuse feelings of anger and resentment, and thus to calm an agitated speaker down. Obviously, someone who is calm and attentive is going to be far easier to motivate than someone who is preoccupied and distracted by his anger.

Every good empathy statement lets an angry, or nervous, or otherwise upset speaker know that, as far as his feelings go, he is not alone: somebody else understands. This has the immediate effect, in the vast majority of cases of defusing the negative feelings—even where the situation that has created them has not changed. Given the centrality of emotion in every person's general psychology, this is not really too surprising. R. D. Laing and other students of schizophrenia have pointed out that the one sure way to isolate an individual from human interaction, the one way to ensure that he or she will be unable to communicate effectively with others, is to label his or her feelings as either "mad" or "bad." Empathy statements do exactly the
opposite thing: they label the speaker's feelings as acceptable, understandable, in short as valid. Someone who knows that you consider his or her feelings valid is going to be a lot easier to get Involved than someone who suspects that you don't.

There are good ways and bad ways to express empathy statements, however, and to learn the proper use of the empathy technique, one should practice these statements at first by fitting them into a standard model which has two parts: one part that labels the feeling, and a second part that lets the person know that you understand why he's feeling that way.

*I can understand (or I realise, I guess, I see) that you feel because ______.*

As you use empathy statements more and more, you can vary this formula—as long as in phrasing it you make it clear to the person that you understand both his feelings and the situation. If he sees that, he's going to see you as being on his side—and be more willing to consider himself part of your side.

But there's a subtle distinction to be observed between the situation and the feelings, and it's one that is often forgotten by people who use empathy statements incorrectly. Many people, when you advise them to use "empathy," will object to the technique on the grounds that it's "inappropriate" to the person or situation at hand. "What about when the guy's just plain wrong!" they'll say. "Why should I validate an opinion that's based on an inaccurate reading of the situation!?" You are not validating the person's opinion, or his assessment of the situation. You are only saying that, given his feelings about what's going on, you can empathise with him, for the simple reason that you have felt the same way yourself." That is really the crux of the matter. Empathy statements are actually the easiest kind of validation to use, and they only get fouled up when, in attempting to be "empathetic," you assume that you have to agree with the speaker as well—that is, that you have to recognise this reaction not only as valid, but as appropriate as well. You can avoid this misuse of empathy statements if you remember that their focus is feelings. You have to understand enough about the person's situation to be able to link it to his feelings, but you do not have to agree with his analysis of the situation, and you do not have to acknowledge that his feelings are justified by the situation.

[e] Barriers/blocks to effective listening and the “don’ts” of reflective listening

One of the best ways to begin to improve your listening skills is to have a better understanding of some of the most common behaviors you and others demonstrate when not listening effectively. Perhaps the single most important problem encountered in human communication is the lack of a receiver's attention to what a sender is saying. To a great degree all other problems of communication derive from this basic problem of inattention. The most damaging of these subsidiary problems can be listed as a series of "don'ts" and blockages. These are very nearly always bad, but in a very few situations, might be effective at helping an individual achieve a particular result, so long as you are aware of when and why you are using them.

Don't rehearse. We all have a tendency to do this-to direct our whole attention to preparing and rehearsing our countering statement while the speaker is talking-and the habit can be fatal to understanding. You look interested, but your mind is going a mile a minute because you are thinking about what to say next. You simply cannot relate to somebody if you are turned off to him from the outset.

Interpreting what is said. These include people not saying exactly what they mean or mean exactly what they say. So you need to paraphrase and ask questions to ensure that your understanding of the speaker's message is accurate. Look for non-verbal cues that might contradict what the speaker is saying verbally. If verbal and non-verbal don't match, check it out with the other person. Example: "I just failed my economics mid-term exam, but it's no big deal.” (smiling, but eyes moist, voice shaky, eyes downcast). There is also the issue of pretending understanding: if you get lost, say "sorry, I didn't get that-what are you saying?”. Over-reaching or under-reaching can also be major problems in interpretation: ascribing meanings that go far beyond what the other has expressed, such as by stating interpretations that the other considers to be exaggerated or otherwise inaccurate. The opposite is repeatedly missing the feelings that the other conveys or making responses that Understate them.

Identifying. Don't change the focus to yourself. When using this block, which is a common misuse of reflective listening, you take everything people tell you and refer it back to your own experience. They want to tell you about their sinus problem, but that reminds you of your surgery for sinus blockage. You launch into your story before they can finish theirs. An effective empathy statement validates the speaker's feelings first but an ineffective one often reads something like this: "I know just how you feel. I had the same thing happen to me. Let me tell you about it." And the "listener" goes off on a tangent, talking about himself while the speaker (who is the one with the immediate problem) is left feeling half-understood. (If you have a story that does relate to the speaker's, there's nothing wrong with mentioning it briefly, of course; but if you want the clarification of information that reflective listening is supposed to bring you, you must keep the initial focus on the speaker.)

Premature deciding, anticipating and advising. You are the great problem solver. You don't have to hear more than a few sentences before you begin searching for the right advice. However, while you are coming up with suggestions and convincing someone to just try it, you may miss what is most important. Don't solve the problem—yet; the reflective listener must always understand that their skills are ways of accumulating data-not shortcuts to pushing the button that will explain how all that data fits together. One of the quickest ways to turn off someone with a problem is to respond to his initial complaints with a flashy or complex solution. The person with the problem has got to be part of the solution. You serve no useful purpose by saying, "I know just how you feel, Ms. McVie. And here's how to set things straight." Anticipation is thinking in advance you know what
Someone is going to say. This can lead to mentally "turning out" before the speaker is finished talking or just plain interrupting the person and finishing his/her sentence. In either case, it leads to misunderstanding, frustration, and possibly even anger and conflict.

**Defensive responses: Being right** means you will go to great lengths to avoid being wrong; you can't listen to criticism or be corrected or take suggestions to change. A related problem is allowing yourself to become defensive in the face of comments that can be interpreted as antagonistic. Defensiveness, even when it's justified by a speaker's attack, is a major barrier to understanding. **Sparring** has you arguing and debating with people who never feel heard because you are so quick to disagree; in fact, your main focus is on finding things to disagree with. **Derailing** involves suddenly changing the subject: you derail the train of conversation when you get uncomfortable or bored with a topic or another way of derailing is by joking.

**Biases in your judgement.** Emotions can cause you to misinterpret what someone is saying. This can include past experiences with other people, or from the subordinate's perspective, past experiences with other managers. Words, issues, situations, personalities can be emotional triggers for us. When these issues trigger our "hot buttons", we tend to distort, positively or negatively, the message we are hearing. We may tune out or pre-judge the person. Emotion can lead to twisting a message to make it say what you want someone to say. You only hear the message you want to hear, not what is really being said. Worry, fear, anger, grief and depression are all likely to lead to distortion of understanding communication and also to forgetting.

**Poor attention to non-verbal behaviour.** Become a "whole body" listener. Not only are our ears tuned in, but so are our eyes, our intellect, our bodies. Good listeners give nonverbal and verbal signs that they are listening; they sit in an attentive posture; nod in acknowledgement; make good eye contact; convey a positive, encouraging attitude, give feedback. Facing or leaning away from the other, not maintaining eye contact, looking tense, or presenting a "closed" posture by crossing the arms are a few of the nonverbal cues a listener should avoid. "Correct" verbal responses are of little use when accompanied by nonverbal signals that contradict them.

**Interrupting.** Unless the other person is rambling on like they are possessed, and you can't make anything out of the diatribe, interruption is always contraindicated. It is physiologically impossible to listen and talk at the same time, so the best you can hope for when you interrupt is the standard 25 percent retention rate that is a hallmark of poor communication. There is a great temptation at many times for the listener to jump in and say in essence: "isn't this really what you meant to say." This carries the message: "I can say it better than you can," which stifles any further messages from the speaker. Often, this process may degenerate into a game of one-upmanship in which each person tries to out do the other and very little communication occurs. Again the lesson is to listen first, then respond.

**Discounting.** When Laing and other psychologists caution against identifying a person's feelings as "mad" or "bad," they refer to such a procedure as "negating" or "discounting." Discounting a speaker's reactions as irrelevant, or inappropriate, or misguided nearly always guarantees that the communication process has broken down. You don't have to agree with each speaker's analysis of a situation. But you always have to acknowledge that the feelings he has about it are valid. Your goal as a reflective listener is to clarify and improve the situation.

**Judging.** If you have assessed a situation in dramatically different terms from those of your subordinate, slow down until you get all the facts before making a judgement on his or her view- positive as well as negative. It can be just as damaging to the ultimate solution of a dilemma to agree with a person's analysis prematurely as it can be to denounce it prematurely. The goal of reflective listening is "clarify (information) and reinforce (the speaker)." Judging the rightness or wrongness of either feelings or information generally tends to cut the conversation short—the last thing you want to do when the problem you are facing is still unresolved. So you should be just as wary of reacting with an enthusiastic "Yes, and . . ." as you are of reacting with a less enthusiastic "Yes, but . . .". Our tendency to judge people distorts our ability to really hear their message. We often spend more time *wrongly applying labels and stereotypes* to people than listening to their message. Negatively labeling people can be extremely limiting. If you prejudice somebody as incompetent or uninformed, you don't pay much attention to what that person says. A basic rule of listening is that judgments should only be made after you have heard and evaluated the content of the message.

**Violating the other person's expectations.** Giving reflective responses when they are clearly not appropriate to the situation. For example, if the other person asks a direct question and obviously expects an answer, simply answering the question is often best. In other words, if someone says: "what time is it?" you don't usually say "You're feeling concern about the time".

**Pressures.** There are many of these, on you and on the subordinate. These include *time limitations*, especially when things overrun. Listening takes time or, more accurately, you have to take time to listen, and you also need to have a strategy to deal with things waiting a long time if you are running late. **Distractions** are another type of pressure that affect our ability to listen well because of their variety, novelty, or intensity (e.g., telephone, background noise and verbal 'clutter', unfamiliar accent/vocabulary, lighting, headaches, hunger, fatigue). A life programmed with back-to-back commitments offers little leeway for listening. Similarly, a mind constantly buzzing with plans, dreams, schemes and anxieties is difficult to clear. Good listening requires the temporary suspension of all unrelated thoughts -- a blank canvas. In order to become an effective listener, you have to learn to manage what goes on in your own mind and to control our responses to distractions or they will control us.

**Technology** has created new distracters, pressure and barriers to listening.
Lack of attention. Your lack of attention may involve half-listening or dreaming. Placating uses these types of words: Right... Absolutely... I know... Of course you are... Incredible... Really? You want to be nice, pleasant, supportive and for people to like you—so you agree with everything. You may half-listen just enough to get the drift, but you are not really involved. So use placating as a positive reinforcement but not as an excuse to half-listen when you are preoccupied or bored. When we dream, we pretend to listen but really tune the other person out while we drift about in our interior fantasies. Instead of disciplining ourselves to truly concentrate on the input, we turn the channel to a more entertaining subject. So ‘be present’—daydreaming is a nice way to take a mental vacation and provides a comfortable private escape but is one of the biggest barriers to active listening.

The subordinate may show a lack of attention to what you are saying or asking for very different reasons, such as anxiety, fear, depression and indeed your long-windedness if giving very long or complex responses that go too far beyond their point of view and their attention span. Short, simple responses are more effective.

You cannot listen while you are talking. This is very obvious, but very frequently overlooked or ignored. An important question is why are you talking: to gain attention to yourself? Or to communicate a message?

The final conclusion here is very simple. A fundamental reason that human communication goes sour is that people who are supposed to be listening are doing any number of other things instead. This is because listening does not come naturally, but is a learned skill that improves with practice; so only those who do practice it are going to get good at doing it. By practising these techniques in your own job, family, or other social situations, you will gradually rise above that depressing 25 percent retention rate that most people think is “acceptable.” Ultimately, hearing more and retaining more of what you hear is half the battle in human communication.

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Chapter 8

Attitudes
Introduction.
"A learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner with respect to a given object" [Fishbein, 1975]. Cannot be directly observed and are therefore covert. Can be assumed to be precursors of behaviour [Ajzen and Fishbein, 1990]

Attitude functions in workplace and consumer behaviour

**Instrumental/adjustive:** experience modifies and determines future behaviour. e.g. brand attitudes. To be aroused, cues must be salient, needs must be activated; to be activated, there must be need deprivation, emphasis on better paths for need satisfaction, removal of threats etc.

**Ego defensive:** respond to internal or external threats, protection against threats to self esteem. Positive attitudes to products which alleviate insecurity. Arousal by posing of threats; activation by removal of threats

**Expressive:** of central values and identity. product attributes. Aroused by salient cues, appeals to self-image, ambiguities which threaten self-concept. Activation by some degree of dissatisfaction with self, greater appropriateness of new attitude

**Knowledge:** to provide some standards or frame of reference by which one judges things or people and e.g. to explain repeat purchases. Arousal by reinstatement of cues associated with old problem or of old problem itself. Activation by ambiguity created by new information, more meaningful information.

**Functional:** or dysfunctional in relation to the environment. Arousal by salient cues. Activation by selected information about price and payment.

Three dimensions to attitudes, which may exhibit intra-consistency or produce dissonance:

- cognitive - beliefs and knowing
- affective - feelings [most important dimension]
- conative [behavioural] - propensity to action

Values may be ideals, offering standards and providing processes for evaluation and judgement of own and others behaviours, which can act as motivators. Attitudes, on the other hand, are enduring systems of positive or negative evaluations, feelings and action tendencies i.e. mental states; they tend to have objects towards which the attitude is directed. Attitudes are important determinants [along with habits, social conventions, temperament and personality, expectations of actions by others, etc.] of behaviour.

Example 1 - early work by Allport and Vernon (1931) to classify values into: theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, political and religious. These values may be split further into terminal (related to end goals) or instrumental (related to the means of obtaining the end goals) (Rokeach, 1973). Values transcend attitudes and therefore can be used to predict them, for example peoples' attitudes to unemployment and beliefs in a just world (Heaven, 1990; Feather 1991).

Example 2- attitudes developed by Chartered Accountants in training: [Buckley and McKenna, 1973], which may help to explain many of the emphases in accountants' behaviour;

- caution; exactitude; anti-theoretical pragmatism; [tend to be dysfunctional]; quantification [tends to be functional];
- professional exclusiveness; rationality

There is disagreement concerning how attitudes are formed. The 'dispositional approach' argues that they are relatively stable and enduring, almost as personality traits, whereas the 'situational approach' argues that they are situationally determined - by the uniqueness of a given situation- and can therefore vary over time. The 'social-information-processing' approach asserts that attitudes result from 'socially constructed realities' i.e. the social context in which the individual is placed shapes his or her perceptions of the situation and hence his or her attitudes; this theory might be called social construction theory by other social scientists. It is likely that the first and third of these approaches are most relevant to consumer attitudes.

Prejudice is commonly thought of as negative attitudes, and personality, home background, culture, conformity, group norms, are all likely to influence this. The 'authoritarian personality' has been extensively studied as one example of this.
Attitude change

Three sources: compliance [adopted for ulterior motives]; identification [in order to relate to others]; internalisation [new attitude is absorbed]. Factors influencing attitude change include:

i. group membership, reference groups etc.
ii. exposure to mass media- little initial change, some delayed change after discussion.
iii. forced contact [e.g with situations alien to current attitudes and beliefs]
iv. rewards [e.g. social approval can lead to attitude change]
v. communication
  [a] primacy and recency effects
  [b] public commitment
  [c] manner, level of confidence of communicator
  [d] threats and fear- reduced effect
  [e] dissimilarity/similarity between communicator and listener, extremity of message
vi. persuasion
  [a] credibility of communicator
  [b] status and attractiveness of communicator
  [c] sleeper effect
  [d] "inoculation" - one-sided vs. two-sided arguments
  [e] vulnerable to persuasion include those with anxiety, depression, low self esteem, other-directed, children aged 4-11.

Attitude theories

[a] Balance theory [Heider], Congruity theory [Osgood and Tannenbaum] and Cognitive Dissonance Theory [Festinger]

Imbalance in attitudes produces tension, which one attempts to alleviate. People have different thresholds or levels of tolerance for imbalance. The theory leads on to attribution theory, emphasising the factors of consensus [acts reflect those of the group], consistency [across similar situations] and distinctiveness [consistency when faced with different situations] in determining causal attributions. Congruity theory is similarly concerned with balance but in addition attempts to measure the strength or salience of attitudes. Techniques include the semantic differential. People actively seek information that is consistent with their attitudes.

Cognitive dissonance arises when individuals act in a manner which is inconsistent with what they feel. The greater the importance, the greater the dissonance: choice in the face of alternatives creates dissonance in that the positive aspects of the rejected alternative and the negative aspects of the chosen alternative are inconsistent with the action taken. The easiest way to remove dissonance is the change the attitude to the decision so that it corresponds more closely to the outward behaviour. The threat of punishment and/or promise of reward in order to oblige the individual to comply affect dissonance, particularly in terms of the pressure used to achieve compliance. This theory is now largely subsumed in attribution theory [see below].

[b] Theory of reasoned action and theory of planned behaviour [Fishbein and Ajzen]

The TRA in consumer terms states that overt purchasing behaviour and intention to perform the behaviour are a function of (i) the attitude towards the behaviour and (ii) some subjective norm(s). The attitude (i) is in turn a function of beliefs about the consequences of engaging in the behaviour and some evaluation of the beliefs, whilst the norms (ii) are a function of beliefs about what others expect and the motivation to comply with those norms.

Behaviour can therefore be under attitudinal control or normative control. Change can be accomplished by: (a) changing the belief strength associated with either the consequence or the norm (b) changing the evaluation aspect or the motivation to comply or (c) increasing salience.

The TPB is an extension of the TRA, achieved particularly by adding in perceived behavioural control, and also by recognising some situational and environmental influences over behaviour, such as peer pressure. An example would be people trying to give up smoking, where they might genuinely intend to do it but believe that they cannot actually manage to do so. The TPB therefore has some elements in common with Bandura's self-efficacy concept which also involved the belief that you are able to do something.

These theories are used a lot in predicting the link between attitude and behaviour in the consumer context, including food consumption and E-commerce [e.g. Verbeke and Vackier, 2005 in relation to fish consumption and Lim & Dubinsky 2005 for E-commerce]. However, the models have limitations, including the need to add the role of affect and motivation, such as hedonic involvement, self-expressive involvement and self-concept congruity [Allen et al 2005; Fitzmaurice, 2005].

[c] Attitude- behaviour relations [Fazio]

Based upon information-processing theory. Defines attitude as a learned association between an object and an evaluation. The strength of the learning is a function of the direct personal experience with the object. A strongly held attitude is more likely to be spontaneously retrieved when the person encounters the object and only if it is retrieved will the attitude play a part in guiding behaviour. Accessibility refers to the likelihood of an attitude being retrieved. Selective perception is crucial to this
process. There are other variables than accessibility that relate to attitude strength: these are confidence/certainty [see recent work on witness recall funded by the Home Office], centrality to the individual, importance/salience, relevance and extremity.

[d] Attribution Theory [Hewstone, Antaki]
Is all about explaining causal relationships and the reasons people give to justify their behaviour. Concepts include

The fundamental attribution error- the tendency to attribute to disposition or people rather than to the environment, for example blaming the driver rather than the vehicle or the road conditions for an accident. Possible explanations include the fact that the person is a stronger focus of attention than the background, people forgetting situational causes more readily, or that linguistically in English it is easier to describe an 'actor' and an action in the same way, but more difficult to describe the situation that way- for example we could describe an action as kind, and a person, but not a situation. Dispositional explanations allow us to anchor them more easily than situational ones- a form of cognitive heuristic or mental short cut[see notes on learning].

Self-serving bias in attributions- the tendency to over-attribute positively toward the in-group and negatively towards the out-group. These are ego-serving and may be due to the fact that as we strive for success we try hard to correlate success with our own effort, so we exaggerate the amount of control we have over the situation. It is likely that self serving biases have both cognitive and motivational elements.

Actor-observer effect- an extension of the fundamental error- imagine a shop assistant was rude to you- you think "what a rude person", i.e. a personality attribution. Now imagine you snapping at someone- but it is the fault that you are stressed or under time pressure. We tend to make more dispositional attributions for socially desirable than socially undesirable behaviour, and 'actors' tend to use dispositional more for positive behaviour and situational in attributing negative behaviours than do 'observers'.

False consensus effect- This is seeing your own behaviour as typical and assuming under similar circumstances that others would behave in the same way. The reasons for this are that we seek out people who are similar to ourselves, our own opinions are so salient that they displace alternatives and we justify the correctness of our own opinions by grounding them in an exaggerated consciousness.

Self-handicapping beliefs. If we anticipate failure, we may intentionally and publicly make external attributions before the event. For example, people will explain why they have not been able to do something before you see them to observe it yourself.

Illusion of control. This is like believing in a 'just world', i.e. good things happen to good people and bad things to bad people- so by being good, then you can ensure things work out well for you, and you can think that the world is a controllable and secure place. Attribution of responsibility may be a subset of this- people tend to attribute more responsibility for someone who is involved in a larger accident than one involved in a smaller one, even though the degree of responsibility might actually be the same.

It is likely that we evaluate causes on four main dimensions:

Global-specific refer to the range of effects the cause may have
Stable-unstable likelihood the cause will apply next time a similar situation arises
Internal-external locus whether the cause originates in the person or is situational
Controllable-uncontrollable whether the person had control over the outcome
Personal-universal apply only to self or to everyone

and some studies have added a sixth: intentional-unintentional

Attributions have been used to study how people develop depression and other clinical problems, and can help to treat such things as insomnia, by finding potential attributed and misattributed causes [Hewstone and Stroebe, 2001]; it has also been used in various forms of therapy, for example in relation to marriage or relationship satisfaction where relationship-enhancing or distress-maintaining attributional patterns may be observed and treated. Another area of attribution application is known as learned helplessness, which is defined as a state characterised by learning deficits, negative emotion and passive behaviour when people discover that their responses are independent of desired outcomes. Learned helplessness has been found to be linked to depression, and has also been found in animals. Learned helplessness can also be seen in the workplace when employees have been over-managed by a too-zealous manager. People can also be described in terms of their attributional style, which is the tendency to make a particular kind of causal inference across different situations and across time, and a poor style can be severely maladaptive.

Examples of attribution include how people apportion blame when accidents occur and this may result in what is called a 'blame culture' at work.

How people attribute causes of illness can affect their behaviour. Murray and MacMillan [1993] asked people about 24 potential causes of cancer, and found these causes fell into the following main factors:
* Stress- including stress itself, worry, loneliness, unemployment
* Environment- including air pollution, work conditions, asbestos, nuclear radiation, X-rays, promiscuity, knock or injury
* Health-related- including childbirth, antibiotics, breast-feeding, virus or infection
* Behaviour- including fatty foods, smoking, drinking

In none of these did heredity or chance feature at all. It has also been found that lay people can provide disease labels for sets of physical symptoms, and vice versa, although of course these may well not be correct; the two main dimension that people used to define illnesses included contagiousness and seriousness. Indeed, young children between ages 2 and 6 primarily used contagion as the most common explanation for illnesses.

Consumer attributions include Brand extensions, i.e. associating a new product with some existing well-known brand name can dilute brand beliefs if they are unsuccessful, increasing negative attributes of the family brand [Loken and John, 1993]. For mature brands, ad-evoked affect will not have a strong influence on brand attitude but is more important for 'brand interest' which is more often associated with new brands; this affects attitudes to repeat purchasing. Alpha-numeric brand names can project certain features which influence understandings and expectations of a product (Pavia & Costa, 1993). The impression created vary along dimensions:

| apparent high/low technology, | appealing to the intelligent, |
| masculinity, | warmth/humanity, |
| chemical/formula orientated, | complexity, |
| functionality, | sensuality. |

Variables affecting this include use of digits, angularity of letters, block vs. lower case, flowing script, words/letters, size of digits relative to letters, aurally harsh words.

[e] The Behavioural Perspective Model [Foxall, 2005]
Links attitudes and behaviour through Mehrabian’s three emotion model of pleasure, arousal and dominance which was originally constructed on environmental psychology and links those to the structural components of consumer situations, i.e. utilitarian and informational reinforcement and behaviour setting scope.

Examples of consumer attitudes.
[a] e.g. Pollay and Mittal [1993]. Three personal utility factors: product information, social image information, hedonistic amusement. Four socio-economic factors: good for economy, fostering materialism, corrupting values and falsity/no sense.

Pollay and Mittal (1993) attitude segments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>College students</th>
<th>Householders</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>contented consumers-28%</td>
<td>contented consumers - 38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>compromised-concerned - 45%</td>
<td>deceptiveness wary - 7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conflicted Calvinists - 8%</td>
<td>degeneracy wary - 16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>critical cynics - 20%</td>
<td>critical cynics - 39%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These data illustrate conflict between an appreciation of the personal uses and economic value of advertising and an apprehension of cultural degradation i.e. decreasing acceptance of advertising.

[b] hierarchies of beliefs, attitudes and behaviours: decision-making hierarchies, experiential hierarchy, behavioural influence hierarchy.

[c] distinction between factual and evaluative advertising: if evaluation is primarily affective, then transfer of affect must be a primary objective, and factual ads must incorporate this.

Examples of health-related attitudes
The Health Belief Model (HBM, Leventhal, 1973), which is related to expectancy-value models, was formulated in the early 1950s by Rosenstock to account for failure of individuals to take advantage of preventative health services. The basis of theory is that the individual will not make decision to undertake a health action [such as one of those in a Government advertising campaign] aimed at avoiding a specific disease threat unless psychologically 'ready to act'.

'Readiness to act' is a function of:
* individual perception of personal susceptibility to the threat,
* perceived severity of the threat,
* perceived benefits of the recommended action,
* barriers foreseen to taking the action.

Originally included 'cues to action' e.g. some form of reminder or perception of own bodily states, to trigger health action-differ from person to person. The model was recently reformulated to include:
* general motivation for health
* orientation toward and interest in health
* perceived [locus of] control over health matters.
* perceived self-efficacy

HBM does not explain things as well as expected, maybe because the measures used vary- but the 'barriers' are the best predictors of health related behaviours so far. TRA differs from HBM in two ways:

* HBM predictors: severity and benefits are only framed in terms of health-related considerations. TRA predictors include attitudes, including non-health ones- broader and stronger predictions of intention and behaviour.
* TRA incorporates perceptions of people who are important to the individual regarding whether or not to take the action. HBM includes cues, but not perceived social norms and expectations.

So far, the TRA is better at explaining health behaviour by adding to the predictive capability, and therefore HBM should somehow incorporate the elements of TRA.

**Examples of job-based attitudes**

[a] Commitment

Allen and Meyer (1990) showed commitment to have three components, corresponding to the cognitive, affective and behavioural components identified above:

affective commitment; emotional attachment to the organization, continuance commitment i.e. perception of the costs and risks associated with leaving their current organizations, normative commitment i.e. a [moral] felt obligation and responsibility to the organization.

Many authors might consider climate as a measure in its own right, measured descriptively and requiring a referent organization, thus making it rather organisationally specific. It has been defined as " ....a relatively enduring quality of the internal environment of the organization that (a) is experienced by its members, (b) influences their behaviour and (c) can be described in terms of values of a particular set of characteristics," (Taguiri, 1968). Agreement between respondents is important in measuring climate because the measures are organisationally rooted, and available measures are rather bulky (Cook et al, 1981); the scale developed by Litwin and Stringer (1968) covers commitment as a whole and has two sub-scales for organizational climate- warmth and support.

Other measures of commitment include that of Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982), which is a more general measure, and Cook and Wall (1980) which includes identification, involvement and loyalty; this latter scale has just been re-evaluated by Mathews and Sheperd (2002). There is also considerable research looking at how different types of commitment may come into conflict with one another and thus generate role conflict, for example loyalty to the organization, to the Union, professional association, department, etc. (Redman, 1999; Coopey and Hartley 1991).

[b] Job Satisfaction

Hackman and Oldham (1976) defined the construct of job satisfaction as:

  skill variety;
  task identity [whole task];
  task significance [on lives of others];
  autonomy [choice and discretion];
  feedback [information on own performance]

We can add goal-setting [Locke and Latham, 1984] to this list.

Job satisfaction is a predictor of work performance but not a very strong one (discussed, for example in Karasek and Theorell, 1990; see also report by Sheffield University and LSE for CIPD in 1998 which showed that job satisfaction accounts for approximately 19% of the variance in job performance). If the matter is considered more widely as a job design issue, several points can be made:

* job satisfaction, absence, productivity, turnover, ill-health and even sabotage are all outcomes of good or poor job design, i.e. dependent variables.
* decision latitude, skill underutilization, psychological demands, perceived control and influence over change processes [innovative potential] are important factors in well-being and are also associated with lower risk of illness.
* mechanisms for 'active learning' [growth] and motivation [and therefore many work attitudes] are largely separate from those mechanisms associated with job stress.

These points suggest that job satisfaction may not be a direct cause of absence or productivity, but all may be seen as outcomes of job design factors.
Work attitudes may be linked to organizational culture. See the work of Charles Handy on cultures and structures: power culture [central focus, web structure], role culture [layers of hierarchy, bureaucratic structure], task culture [no central power source, matrix structure] and person culture [e.g. groups of professionals, cluster structure].

[c] Organizational Trust

Trust refers to the beliefs that people maintain about the other party's future behaviour. It is multi-faceted, consisting of at least three types:

- Trust in people at work, specifically management and peers
- Trust in the ability of people or systems wrt safety and security e.g. computer systems or personal threat
- Trust in terms of organizational justice and fairness.

An example of the research into trust shows the interaction between distributive and procedural justice [Brockner and Siegel, 1996] and this is explained by two theories: self interest theory [Thibault and Walker, 1975] and the group value model [Lind and Tyler 1988].

The self interest theory sees people as motivated to maximise their personal outcomes, particularly those that are concrete, tangible and material; they may be willing to forego immediate short term benefits from an exchange relationship if they believe that relationship offers the promise of long term benefits [a form of perceived future equity in Adams and Jacques theories of motivation]. The role of procedural justice is to shape peoples expectations of the outcomes they will receive. Feeling reassured that the outcomes they desire will come, they may be less concerned with the distributive fairness of their immediate outcomes. But unfair procedures provide no such assurances, so people will be prevented from believing that they will receive their share of the material benefits over time.

The group value model was developed because of the inability of the self interest model to account fully for the effects of procedural justice. It assumes that people value their group memberships for social and psychological [not just economic] reasons. At stake in group memberships are issues of self identity and self esteem, and this group value theory says that people define themselves on the basis of their group memberships and that the self esteem of group members partly depends on how they believe their groups evaluate them. Procedures are one of the major vehicles through which self-relevant information is imparted to group members, and through the two different roles that all group members play- as agents and recipients of the collective's actions- procedural justice may affect their self perceptions.

According to the group value model, when procedural justice is high, individuals' immediate needs for self esteem have been satisfied, and the presence of procedural fairness suggests that the future relationship with the collective should be self-enhancing. So whether their current outcomes are distributively fair is relatively unimportant and therefore not so influential. If an individual recognizes that his or her needs are not being satisfied, they may redefine their relationship with the collective, such as it being more 'business like', in order to introduce psychological distance and change the psychological contract with the collective.

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Chapter 9:

Individual differences and assessment
[a] general background information and theories about personality

Personality can be defined as "a distinctive and relatively stable pattern of behaviours, thought, motives and emotions that characterise an individual". It has been studied since the times of the ancient Greeks and early instances of this include phrenology. There are many different approaches to the study of personality, reflecting the difficulties encountered in its measurement. Of all the areas of 'individual differences', it is the least able to be quantified because it is still not clearly understood.

The importance of personality in business and management cannot be underestimated. In recruitment and selection, it is cited as being one of the two most important attributes looked for in relation to future success [Fletcher, 1989]. We often talk about 'personality clashes' as being the reason for the failure of work groups to perform well or for committees to make poor decisions. In marketing, where over 90% of new products fail and where organizations are always anxious to extend their markets, personality is considered a major determinant in product preferences.

Personal construct theory

Based on original work by Kelly [1951], this concerns individual ways of making sense of the world which are developed on the basis of experience. A system of personal constructs is gradually assembled which is unique to the individual; the system is arranged in a hierarchy and each construct has boundaries that define what is and is not included in it. Constructs cover definite objects, concepts, descriptive adjectives and beliefs.

As we encounter new experiences, we gradually modify our constructs to accommodate. So the process of personal construct development and modification is continuous. Although each person's personal construct system is unique to them, it is possible to measure the extent to which people hold constructs in common and agree on the boundaries using the Repertory Grid.

Humanistic and phenomenological theories


[b] The theory of self (Carl Rogers 1942, 1980) considers that personality is shaped partly by the self-actualizing tendency and partly by other's evaluations [positive regard]. To Rogers, personality is the expression of each individual's self-actualizing tendency as it unfolds in that individual's uniquely perceived reality. When experience of the self becomes distorted, progress toward self-actualization is slowed or stopped. Personality is therefore shaped partly by the self-actualizing tendency and partly by other's evaluations. This theory has been applied widely, through psychotherapy, sensitivity training, peer group assessment techniques and assertiveness training.

[c] Maslow's theory of needs. Those with a deficiency orientation are preoccupied with a perceived need for material things, see life as meaningless or boring; they tend only to see things in terms of what is missing. Those who are growth orientated tend not to focus on what is missing but on drawing satisfaction with what they have. Used as a base for VALS, a lifestyle classification scheme.

These are important in terms of product symbolism; image congruence hypothesis is that consumers select products and stores that correspond to their self-image [via reference groups]. Semantic differential [also part of congruity theory]. Materialism as a personality dimension.

Dispositional approach and trait theories

These include theories of Cattell and Eysenck. They are much nearer to describing personality than type theories; traits are continua along which individuals can vary- most people score in the middle range rather than the extremes.

Cattell 16 personality factors, Eysenck, EPPS - based upon Murray's needs etc.. Difficulties with these theories concern defining which traits form the basic constructs and whether traits in combination are sufficient to describe a complex and dynamic individual [construct validity].

Psychodynamic and neo-Freudian theory

Freud, Jung and Adler are the best known of these theorists.

Freud- importance of fantasy, pleasure principle and hedonism, defence mechanisms; see also modern psychodynamic theorists, such as Melanie Klein, for effects of childhood upon subsequent personality development. Freud's theory has been viewed as powerful but restrictive in terms of consumer behaviour.

Those involved in neo-Freudian theory include Adler [need for power, 'inferiority complex'], Fromm [loneliness, need for love and satisfying human relationships], Horney [towards, against and away from people: "compliant, aggressive, detached" - CAD theory determining response to adverts and product choice] and Sullivan [tension reduction through interpersonal situations and relationships].

These theories are used by marketing textbooks to encourage advertising to be analysed from a Freudian perspective, which is extremely narrow and of only limited relevance. The theories have even less relevance to management, although some parts,
such as an understanding of the defence mechanisms of repression, rationalization, projection, reaction formation, sublimation, displacement, denial and compensation may help explain affect-driven organizational behaviour.

**Narrow-band theories**

[a] Tolerance of ambiguity: those tolerant react to inconsistency in a positive way. Three types of ambiguous situations: new situations, highly complex situations, contradictory information. For example, could influence reactions to new products;

[b] Locus of control (Rotter, 1966);

[c] Type A versus type B (Friedman, 1972);

[d] Learned helplessness; low self-esteem and vulnerable to persuasive internalization;

[e] Theories related to adaptation and coping mechanisms;

[f] Self-efficacy beliefs;

[g] nAch, affiliation, power [McClelland and Atkinson, achievement motivation 1950s and 60s];

[h] figure/ground and tolerance of ambiguity.

[i] Innovative-adaptor theory [Kirton, 1980s/90s]

**Big five [Five factor approach]** [McCrea and Costa, 1990, 1991]

This is a relatively new development from multivariate research combining many measures to produce the "Big 5" personality traits. They are described below [taken from Pervin, 1998]

**Neuroticism:**

Worrying, nervous, insecure, emotional, inadequate, hypochondriacal vs. calm, relaxed, unemotional, hardy, secure, self-satisfied

**Extraversion**

sociable, active, talkative, person-orientated, optimistic, fun-loving, affectionate -vs.- reserved, sober, unexuberant, aloof, task-orientated, retiring, quiet

**Openness**

curious, broad interests, creative, original, imaginative, untraditional -vs.- conventional, down-to-earth, narrow interests, unartistic, unanalytical

**Agreeableness**

soft-hearted, good-natured, trusting, helpful, forgiving, gullible, straightforward -vs.- cynical, rude, suspicious, uncooperative, vengeful, ruthless, irritable, manipulative

**Conscientiousness**

organized, reliable, hard-working, self-disciplined, punctual, scrupulous, neat, ambitious, persevering, -vs.- aimless, unreliable, lazy, careless, lax, negligent, weak-willed, hedonistic

These seem to be relatively stable, but to reduce personality down to five tends to create 'umbrella' factors. However, there is some consistency of Big 5 across cultures [see Pervin 1998 *Personality*] and personality test performance would appear to be unrelated to applicants perceptions of what the test is measuring [Chan, 1997, *J Applied Psychology*].

**Holland**

Theory of vocational choice [1980]: six types: conventional, realistic, investigative, enterprising, social, artistic. Considerable work done on assessing individual profiles and matching them to the profiles of different jobs and occupations - self-directed search. Some research exists to establish matches between certain big five traits [such as extraversion] and Holland's types.

**Notes on Ipsative versus normative measurement in personality tests**

Ipsative tests are those where testees apportion points in some way, either directly or by making choices between alternatives. In essence, the overall total score must always be the same, but how this is distributed across traits or scales will vary according to the 'forced choices' of testees. Normative tests mean that each item is scored on its own, so that a testee may potentially score highly on all questions, or low on all questions although more usually there will be some variation. A typical ipsative test might involve the testee in choosing between three or four equally desirable alternative statements, or four equally undesirable alternatives for each item; the testee would only be able to choose one which was 'most like them' and often another which was 'least like them' and thus would by definition score nothing on those statements which measured the variables which they did not choose.

**Psychographic segmentation**

This dates back to the 1960's, when it became apparent that demographic variables alone [age, sex, socio-economic status] were inadequate as predictors of consumer behaviour. In an early review of the literature, Wells (1975) demonstrated the confusion, which still exists today, between psychographic and lifestyle measures. Plummer (1974) defined lifestyle patterns as measurable through activities, interests and opinions and it is this approach which has been more recently developed into the FRL (food-related lifestyle instrument, Brunso and Grunert, 1995) of 23 measures representing 5 major cognitive structure areas of "ways of shopping", "cooking methods", "quality aspects", "consumption situation" and "purchasing motives".
Despite the more sophisticated conceptual and statistical derivation of these measures than other instruments used in lifestyle measurement (e.g. VALS, RISC, CCA), there remain potential problems for FRL of construct validity. This is evidenced in the different clusters of measures found for the four nationalities assessed by Brunso et al. (1996): 7 factors emerged but only 5 or 6 of them for each separate country, thus raising validity and reliability issues. More fundamentally, the clusters do not appear to tally with the Big five personality factors (which do show some cross-cultural agreement) in any coherent way.

Thus, lifestyle measures, sometimes known as psychographics, attempt to describe consumers by their behaviours rather than their personalities, because behaviours are easier for marketers to relate to, are easily measured and appear to be face valid as segmenting tools. Lifestyle in this context clearly encompasses some elements of motivation, perception and attitudes but it does not address personality constructs at all. However, biographical and lifestyle measures are not sufficient for consumer segmentation.

In response to the non-existence of personality segmentation, the popular press and some marketers frequently attempt personality segmentation by type. Some of these types may have arisen from focus groups run specifically for the purpose. Sometimes types are constructed by journalists to allow consumers to "classify" themselves. Do any of these attempts to typecast consumers actually mean anything? No, but it may be possible to derive traits from these various "types".

**Matching personality traits to psychographic segments.**

Combining the various approaches produces a number of inconsistencies. The table represents several of the main personality factors derived from several theoretical approaches plus some of the attempts to produce psychographic factors, in order to show what elements are common to the theories and which are not:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Comparisons of personality/psychographic factors</strong></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Big Five</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extraversion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neuroticism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Openness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreeableness</td>
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<tr>
<td>Conscientiousness</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Examples:** One would expect that innovators, as defined in the Kirton adaptor-innovator theory (1984) would be more adventurous, in terms buying more 'adventurous' products. However, adaptors purchase more innovative [food] products than innovators and number of innovative products purchased only weakly correlated with the KAI (Foxall and Haskins, 1986; Foxall and Bhate, 1993). It is possible that innovative behaviour in organizations is not the same as innovative consumer behaviour, but this begs the question as to how these two behaviour types might be differentiated. These findings are not the only ones where behaviour in one domain does not relate to behaviour in another: in relation to Holland's theory, fine artists do not score particularly on the artistic dimension (Furnham, 1992).

**[b] Issues in personality testing**

**Validity issues**

Construct validity - what is actually being measured? We are not measuring behaviour but underlying traits. Predictive validity - never has been high - mostly in region of .1-.3, even for reputable tests [cf intelligence tests or biodata measures long-term predictive validity at .4]. Validity claims as high as .45 can often be discounted because they are largely embedded in a host of insignificant correlations and are therefore type I errors. This is particularly true when samples are small.

Hough et al (Journal of Applied Psychology 1990) show almost zero validities for all major personality dimensions when correlated against job performance, trainability, job involvement, education etc. Higher validities were obtained when correlated against delinquency and drug/solvent abuse. Blinkhorn and Johnson further "put the cat among the pigeons" in 1993 when they conducted investigations into the validity of personality tests, many of which are ipsative, and suggested that either the job criteria were wrong or the personality tests were not working so well. There has since been much debate about the value of these types of test but more importantly, about the nature of job-related criteria. Whilst this debate has largely centred on personality and interests tests, it raises the issues of measurement of performance or measurement of job-related qualities such as intelligence and personality. Selectors are probably looking for the wrong qualities in candidates, or at best, looking for qualities which are unrelated to job performance; there is much evidence recently for this.

Personality tests can only tell us how people perceive themselves within the parameters of what they think the situation calls for, i.e. socially desirable self descriptions. This may of itself be of value, but may also be useless in predicting work performance although it may have other uses. Techniques such as job profile analysis, which enable those who do not 'fit' the
job to select themselves out, have much higher predictive validity than personality tests. Some tests, e.g. the DISC type tests should never be used; they only give testing a bad name.

**Measurement issues**
Normative v Ipsative: both subject to social desirability responding; statistically produce different results even when used to measure same things; can obtain proper scores for normative, rank ordering for ipsative. Debate involves Savile and Holdsworth and Blinkhorn and Johnson. See articles by Fletcher [e.g. in People Management] etc. for coverage of the issues.

**Reliability issues**
Debate about inheritance of personality - see issues in evolutionary psychology [ref. N Nicholson (2001) *Managing the Human Animal*]. Reliability not necessarily an issue in short term retesting, although problems with this over longer periods. Personality may change gradually over a period of time if work or other activities [e.g. military service] are of sufficient influence to effect the change. Are changes due to gradual changes in the individual rather than unreliability of the measure itself?  May be subject to mood swings. Most psychologists see personality as stable and enduring, with some of its aspects "hard-wired". Thus it is not possible to make substantial changes to personality; rather small incremental changes can help it develop over time. Tests with a large number of variables [such as the OPQ which has 30] lose reliability unless the variables are combined back to the basic six [The Big 5 plus 'intellectance' [see McCrea and Costa, 1990, 1991]. All personality tests reduce to these, although not all of them measure all six.

**Test utility**
Selection ratio and spread of ability are as important in affecting test utility as validity. A serious problem is stereotyping by those who assemble personnel specifications, in that they often hold general beliefs that some traits are desirable when in fact those traits are irrelevant to job performance, as mentioned above. On a cost benefit basis, it can be shown that to make one decision [even out of hundreds] that is better than it would otherwise have been, i.e. to select one above average performer instead of one below average performer, may be worth 50% of the salary for that job to the organization. [see Blinkhorn and Johnson 1993 *Nature*]. Compared to the costs of poor selecting, test costs are insignificant.

**Commonly used personality tests for personnel selection**
16 PF, CPI [California Personality Inventory], FIRO-B, OPQ, Myers-Briggs
Of these, only the OPQ measures the Big 5 directly, but the Big 5 can be derived from the 16PF and the Myers-Briggs equates to only four of the five. None of the others measure all the Big five.
[c] Intelligence

General intelligence \([g]\) relates to an all-round ability. Concepts within this include practical intelligence, creative intelligence etc. It is also possible to subdivide into numerical, verbal, spatial, mechanical and more recently systems, etc. These are considered in more detail in the section on recruitment and selection.

More recent concepts include emotional intelligence and safety intelligence, both of which are unrelated to intelligence in the sense of cognitive ability.

Emotional intelligence would seem to comprise some elements that on the one hand are ‘hard wired’ in the system, such as empathy and self-regulation and on the other hand are skills that can be learned, such as effective listening and communications.

Emotional Intelligence as a concept [adapted from Salovey & Mayer, 1990]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regulation of emotion</th>
<th>Appraisal &amp; expression of emotion</th>
<th>Utilisation of emotion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>in self</td>
<td>in self</td>
<td>flexible planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>self regulat’n</td>
<td>social skills</td>
<td>creative thinking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>self awareness</td>
<td>redirected attention</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Safety intelligence (Kirwan, 2005) is considered in terms of leadership qualities, and is particularly related to transformational leadership as opposed to transactional and also contains elements of trust, along with moral and ethical values.

References:
[d] Recruitment and Selection

[c1] Equal opportunities and fairness in selection and recruitment

In the UK, there has been legislation that makes it illegal to discriminate on the grounds of race or sex since 1975 and 1976 right up to the Human Rights Act. The legislation is still difficult to enforce, despite the law and the activities of the CRE and the EOC. In 1996, only 5.9% of sex discrimination cases were successful; 40% were withdrawn and 40% were settled by ACAS [figures taken from tribunal statistics]; the situation was little improved by 2004. In 2010, the current EO issues are the convention of human rights and the problem of unequal pay, which persists as the argument now is that employers cannot afford to increase the pay of female workers to gain parity.

Many employers seem unable to see that by discriminating fairly, [all selection must discriminate between candidates who are selected and those who are not], they are recruiting the best possible candidates. The law tends to hinder the individual who feels discriminated against because the tribunal system acts in a very formal way, thus favouring the legal processes. Chances of success without expensive legal support are slim.

In the USA, although there has been civil rights legislation since 1964, there has been debate on the possibility of 'racial quotas' to enable representative numbers in employment from different ethnic groups; the group there with the greatest problem now in terms of discrimination is the Hispanic population, mostly deriving from Mexico. In Europe, the Human Rights Act, will eventually make it illegal to unfairly discriminate against people on the grounds of sex, race, age, disability or religion; not all of these grounds for discrimination are in force presently.

The problems of unfair selection are still unresolved, both in terms of attitudes and in terms of the methods available to select and recruit. The ideal selection procedure would select only those who were most appropriate to do the job in question. It would therefore place people in order of suitability, with a dividing line to separate those who were unsuitable. In reality, the methods are less precise; it is not easy to draw a dividing line, and there will be suitable candidates below the line and poor ones above it.

[c2] Reliability, validity and weighting

There has been much research on the qualities required to do jobs. It is clear that sheer numbers of qualifications are not always a good measure. What we are looking for is someone who will 'fit', with the organization, the group, the management style, etc. In order to find the person who will 'fit', we need to assess them. There are many ways to do this, some appropriate only in some circumstances. Two things must be measured:

[a] What do we mean by being good at a job? What differentiates the successful outcomes from the unsuccessful ones?. How do we know if someone is doing their job well? How do we know if they are doing it badly? These are the performance or criterion measures.

[b] What qualities are required for an individual to do a job well? How do we measure these qualities? How do we know that the measures that we are using are the best ones for the job in question? These are the predictor or test measures.

Combining these two types of question raises the issues of validity and reliability.

Reliability is whether a measure is consistent, e.g. test-retest. If a measure is not reliable, then it can never be valid. The nearest analogy is to that of a clock. If it is reliable, then we can use it; even if it wrong, so long as it is consistently wrong, we can adjust and still use it. If it is unreliable and unpredictable, then it is no use at all.

Validity can mean [a] does the test or criterion measure what it is supposed to measure? [construct validity]. Recently, some personality tests have been shown to have no construct validity; most intelligence tests have good construct validity. or [b] does the test predict how well a person will do at a particular job? This is known as predictive validity and is at the heart of all selection methods. There is also content validity, referring to the nature and representativeness of the content of the measure, face validity - does the measure look like it measures what it says, and concurrent validity, where a test is correlated with current performance.

The effectiveness of the selection procedure is dependent upon the reliability and validity of its predictor measures, the weighting that is awarded to each measure and also the selection ratio, which is the number of candidates per vacancy. If the selection ratio is high it is possible to move the predictor criterion further up the scale, i.e. to raise the "pass mark" so that the risk of selecting poor applicants is reduced. But if the selection ratio is too high, particularly when people who are not qualified apply in large numbers, the costs of this process become rather large. This whole issue is known as the "criterion problem", i.e. that you can raise the criterion for success when the selection ratio is high, but that also means you are discarding a lot of candidates who might actually be better than those selected; this is strongest when the predictive validity is lowest.

Weighting is an important issue. There is probably never the candidate who is best at everything, most job applicants present some strengths and some weaknesses. There are several ways of weighting, so one needs to be chosen for each selection process. You
can use compensation, so a low rating on one criterion can be compensated by a high rating in another criterion. So being poor at Maths could be compensated by having very strong social skills. However, there may be a point on any scale below which you cannot go, like the concept of a minimum mark; so a rating of D may be able to be compensated elsewhere, but a rating of E would not be. It may be also that some criteria are more important than others, as they are thought to be more valid, so they can be weighted more highly in an overall assessment, or you may wish to consider all criteria as equally important; usually, the criteria are considered important of they have higher predictive validities.

Schmidt and Hunter (1998) summarise the practical and theoretical implications of 85 years of research in personnel selection. On the basis of meta-analytic findings, they discuss the validity of 19 selection procedures for predicting job performance and training performance and the validity of paired combinations of general mental ability (GMA) and the 18 other selection procedures. Overall, the 3 combinations with the highest multivariate validity and utility for job performance were GMA plus a work sample test (mean validity of .63), GMA plus an integrity test (mean validity of .65), and GMA plus a structured interview (mean validity of .63). A further advantage of the latter 2 combinations is that they can be used for both entry level selection and selection of experienced employees. The practical utility implications of these summary findings are substantial. Later research by Smith and Robertson showed that work sample tests, Assessment Centres, Biodata and intelligence tests had the highest validities, followed by structured interview techniques such as situational and behavioural event interviewing.

[c3] The main methods used in R & S

The Interview

This is still used in virtually all selection procedures. However, it has serious problems of validity and these problems occur across all cultures and apply to interviewing at any level of job. The problems are based on three major issues:

a] Ensuring that the interviewer knows the relevant criteria for success in the job. Does the interviewer have a full understanding of the personnel specification and thus the attributes to be assessed? It is crucial that the interviewer knows the standards or levels required for each attribute. One very basic problem here is that the criteria of successful job performance, i.e. being able to differentiate good from poor performance, are often difficult to determine; this presents what is probably the biggest barrier to the validity of selection procedures.

b] Most interviewers are inadequately trained. They are subject to, for example, the 'halo’ or “horns” effects, stereotyped judgements, too early decision-making, using the wrong criteria, asking leading questions, not being sufficiently probing, giving poor non-verbal signals, badly structured interviews, etc.

c] If a candidate is skilful in interview techniques, this can mask their appropriateness for the job. Research into 'candidate strategy' (e.g. Fletcher, 1990) has shown this to be a bigger determinant of whether or not the candidate gets the job than their abilities, intelligence, personality, skills or knowledge.

Interviews can take many forms and these may include panel interviews, with three or more panel members, two to one and one to one interviews. Each has merits and demerits; the evidence shows no overall 'winner’. Panels tend to lose flexibility by asking identical questions of each candidate and they may also be subject to judgement biases of panel members and the selection of the most satisficing candidate instead of the best; 1 to 1 interviews have high potential biases of judgement, and if different interviewers are used may have inter-rater reliability issues. For most jobs, other than those hardly requiring an interview at all, at least two interviews should be given to each shortlisted candidate, with differing purposes or at least differing areas of emphasis.

Well-trained interviewers will work to a structure, such as the seven-point plan: this includes relevant physical attributes, attainments and experience, intelligence, aptitudes, personality, interests and special circumstances. Each one of these will be subdivided, and then a ‘profile’ drawn up to describe, using an A B C D E rating system [10-20-40-20-10], what levels are essential and what are desirable. Then the interview can be used to find out [for the factors for which it is suited as a measurement tool] to build ratings of the candidates for comparison. The interview is not very suitable to establish intelligence generally, but is suitable to ascertain personality, relevant interests, importance of special circumstances, etc.

There are also differing ways of handling interviews; behavioural event or situational interviewing is where the candidate is asked about how they would handle specific problems which the interviewer presents [situational interviewing] or the candidate is asked closely about how they have coped with or handled events in their lives [behavioural event interviewing]. These approaches are not therefore based on past experience in the conventional sense or qualifications/knowledge, which can be asked about in a second interview if that information is required. These types of interviews require the interviewer to be specially trained as they are difficult to conduct, since the situations or events asked about will have been carefully thought out so that they are relevant to what is required. This type of technique is extremely useful at any level, for any job, because it picks up on what is required for the job in question and relates the interview to it, but as stated, are the most difficult types of interview to conduct. They are by far the most valid of all the interview-type assessments.

The interview, as a selection method, has a generally poor to middling record of validity, although the low validities obtained show how poor most interviewers are rather than the fault necessarily being with the interview as a technique. If it were the technique which was invalid, there would be no point in using it; however it is clear that training interviewers and structuring the
interviews can produce reasonably positive results. It is important therefore that interviewers are trained and are well briefed to the task; this will include apportioning general areas to different interviewers for sequential interviews as well as panel interviews.

References
These have an appalling record in terms of validity; in some studies, this has even been quoted as negative, meaning that those with good references should be rejected! (Muchinsky, 1979) It is suggested that references be used to check factual information that cannot be verified in any other way and that the forms be carefully structured. This means that they should ask for confirmation of facts rather than ask for personality descriptions; the facts may include attendance record, grade and salary, dates of any promotions, the tasks and jobs actually undertaken, the role that the person had in certain jobs or projects. The referees should be those who know enough about the candidate to be able to assess him or her and should be given sufficient information about the job to enable an assessment to be made relative to the job rather than related to nothing. Under these conditions, references can show reasonable validity, but without these conditions, the validity can be negative, as mentioned above. Overall, the best solution is to only ask for factual information to be verified using references.

Tests
There are thousands of tests published, although only a limited number are generally used for work purposes. Most tests have been developed in the USA or in the UK and are particularly relevant for candidates of 'middle-class' socio-economic status. For a US test to be used in the UK requires adaptation and new norms to be established; it also will require 'translation'. Many British/US tests lose a lot in translation to other languages because they often rely on the idiosyncrasies of the English language and English habits.

If the jobs in another country are similar to those in the country of origin of the test, and there are cultural similarities between the peoples, then testing may be possible to be established in that country. Otherwise, it would be better to adapt or reconstruct tests to suit the country. Tests divide into the following main groups:

[1] Intelligence
Still a big debate over what is considered to be intelligence- e.g. practical intelligence (Sternberg, 1997). Tests such as the AH4 and AH5 contain items in numerical, verbal and spatial modes and cover general intelligence in a reasonably quick and efficient way; tests of critical reasoning such as the Watson-Glaser involve a different sort of logic, mostly verbal, and tend to be appropriate for higher levels of intellect.

For managerial selection, there have been a number of developments in recent years such as the Graduate and Managerial Assessment tests, aimed at, for example, 'identifying those who have the transferable skills needed to achieve success in the workplace'.

There are also purely spatial intelligence tests, such as Raven's Progressive Matrices, and the GMA abstract, which remove language problems but not cultural ones; they are thus more useful for direct comparisons, say within the European Community or with the USA. There is also a 'culture fair' test, but thus far there is not enough evidence for its validities across many cultures.

These tests tend to have LT predictive validity for managerial jobs in particular.

[2] Aptitude
These can measure existing job-related skills or abilities but may also be directed towards the measurement of ability to learn. There are a large number available, in areas such as short-term memory, spatial perception, number discrimination, motor abilities, mechanical aptitude, computer ability, clerical ability etc. A particular example is the series of ABLE tests which measure abilities relating to call centre activities; for these tests, no prior experience or skill directly concerning working in a call centre is required, so the tests measure how likely one is to learn to do call centre work successfully.

It is likely that some of these tests [e.g. mechanical aptitude, computer ability] can cross cultural boundaries more easily than intelligence tests. These tests tend to have ST predictive validity.

[3] Personality
The measurement of personality is fraught with problems because of such factors as 'social desirability' and social approval. Tests attempt to measure attitudes, behaviour, habits as well as personality traits. Many take the form of multiple-choice answers where the respondent has to complete the whole test in his/her own time, these are known as Personality Inventories and are "the least objective and seem particularly subject to distortion by response" (Guion, 1985); the best known examples of this type of test are the 16PF (Cattell 1962, version 5 1998), the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, the FIRO-B and the OPQ (Saville and Holdsworth, 1984). The OPQ, which measures 30 variables, can give an indication of the Big 5 personality factors.

Efforts to minimise the effects of stylistic response sets through forced-choice formats or special detection keys have generally been promising at first but later disappointing. Projective tests, in theory more objective, are even less reliable and present special problems of measurement.
In view of the fact that there both technical problems and moral issues surrounding the entire idea of personality probing, the wisdom of using personality tests as primary instruments of decision in employment procedures must be questioned. Use should really be limited to indicators of aspects for further investigation by other means, e.g. for discussion in an interview or following up on possible behaviour revealed. Many articles on training and management development continue to emphasise the importance of personality for competence in management jobs (e.g. Swinburne, 1985, Bayne, 1989) but the work of Blinkhorn and Johnson [Nature, 1993] casts major doubt on the relevance and validity of personality to most jobs.

There are also tests of what may be called management style, expectations or occupational values; these are more frequently used as part of management development programmes where self description and 'diagnosis' are necessary prerequisites to development activities.

[4] Interests
These tests have many of the same problems as personality tests. In order to avoid the most obvious distortive effect of social desirability, the tests are usually used for placement or guidance purposes. If an organization is of a sufficient size to take on batches of trainees or graduates, placement testing becomes possible; otherwise, smaller organizations could perhaps get together for this type of testing. Interests tests have sometimes been found to have some predictive validity in terms of individual satisfaction at work. The self-directed search, based on Holland's theory of vocational choice [1983] which attempts to match personality traits to jobs, is used frequently in placement as well as guidance and may have some validity in the selection procedure.

[5] Proficiency, Achievement or Knowledge
This group includes tests of manual dexterity, co-ordination, typing, arithmetic, etc. The employment training schemes in the UK, set up to train young people and to make them more employable, developed a type of profiling known as the "can do " measurement which has these concepts of achievement and proficiency at its base, and the management competencies approach was developed similarly.

There are some published tests available, of which one of the best known is the Macquarrie [a test of dexterity, perception and tracing-type skills], but quite frequently employers devise tests themselves. It is possible to develop useful tests for an organization, but this requires considerable test construction expertise. Tests can be constructed for keyboard skills, and simple clerical skills; however, care must still be taken to avoid problems of content and predictive validity even for these.

There is a good valid type of these tests known as work sample tests; this is where some aspects of jobs are chosen and candidates asked to undertake the tasks associated with the tasks. These are particularly good for jobs where the tasks can be performed readily without special training, but this can actually apply to a lot of jobs if care is taken about what exactly is sampled.

Exercises
There are a variety of differing types of exercise, some of which are observed and others that take the form of paper and pencil individual exercises.

(1) Group Methods
The use of these dates back to WW2 with the Office of Strategic Services in the USA, although they have become more popular as Assessment Centres developed. They provide evidence that is difficult to obtain in other ways (such as interviews or tests) and the evidence suggests that they are one of the most valid methods so far found to assess managerial ability.

These methods attempt to measure candidates' abilities to: get on with others, influence others, express themselves clearly, think clearly and logically, argue from past experience and apply themselves to new problems, the type of role they play in group situations. The focus is on behaviours critical to effective performance and thus direct information is available rather than just the artificial test or interview results. These methods can be used to locate any type of managerial behaviour that is appropriate to the organization.

(a) Leaderless Group Discussions
A group of six (maximum eight) are given a topic of general interest to discuss; variations include specific questions to produce consensus answers, allocating questions after the discussion, etc. The group members are assessed by observers, preferably one for each candidate.

(b) Command or Executive Exercises
Group members are allocated roles in an extended brief based on a real life situation. Each member outlines his/her solution on the basis of their role and defends it to the rest of the group.

(c) Group Problem Solving
The group is leaderless and has to organize itself in order to solve, within time limits, a problem which has some relevance to the organization. This type of approach has been used as 'outward bound' courses for managerial selection either from within or outside the organization.
(d) Business Games
These involve placing candidates into teams, giving each a role and they then compete in a hypothetical situation to see who can make the most effective decisions. Such exercises have gained immensely in popularity since software has become more readily and cheaply available; they are used often in management development but less so for selection, although they are used for managerial assessment e.g. for promotion purposes.

(2) Other Exercises
These include in-tray exercises; case studies are frequently used- fairly short ones of 2 to 3 sides of A4 paper where the candidate has to produce a written analysis with recommendations. Also used are presentation exercises where a candidate may be asked to give a short (5 or 10 minutes) talk on a topic; sometimes they will have been told of the topic in advance before arrival and in other cases they will be given a minimum time, even as little as 10 minutes, to prepare. Some organizations have used, with success, techniques such as letter-writing or other verbal exercises.

The application form and other written information
This can be the most effective screen for short-listing if done properly and really poor if no thought has been put into it. What is needed is probably two ‘standard’ application forms containing the usual biographical details required including the list of previous employments and qualifications, plus many additional question sheets pertaining to each post or group of posts. These additional sheets will contain questions designed to get particular types of information such as: attitudes to that type of job, perceived own qualities relevant to the job, goals and targets, level of drive and enthusiasm, personal achievements etc.

Biodata has been used in some organizations; this consists of a questionnaire or inventory based on lifestyle and personal history; the answer format can be multiple-choice. It has very high validity of r=.4 to .5, which may be the highest of all selection methods.

The time scale
Most of the tests used in occupational contexts would take between half an hour and an hour to complete, plus instruction times. Test batteries, containing a lot of smaller tests intended to reflect a wider range of intellectual and aptitude measures, could take up to four hours to complete. Interviews should be planned to allow an hour per candidate. Leaderless Group Discussions would normally run for half an hour plus another half hour for briefing, but other group methods could run for considerably longer - perhaps a day for group problem-solving and a whole day or more for a business game. Exercises could run for up to two hours or longer for a case study or in-tray task, but less for a presentation task.

Thus, an AC could take up to 5 days to run. Most last around 3 days.

[c4] Conclusions
Recruitment and selection principles are common to all jobs and to all organizations and to all countries. What varies are the job requirements and the personnel specifications and as a consequence the methods used must be chosen with extreme care. Using the wrong method, or the right method badly, is counterproductive. It is wrong to simply transpose methods from one situation to another or from one country to another.

What has to be done is to fully detail the job (or potential job sequence for those selecting for general management or other trainees), identify criteria of successful performance, then describe the sort of person who can either achieve this performance or has the potential to do so, and who will ‘fit’ into the organization; next these qualities must be translated into what can be assessed and only then is it possible to think about the methods that can be used to select.

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[e] Some notes on sex differences in work behaviour

Continuing debate about the explanation of differences in male and female behaviour, most recently through evolutionary psychology and biology (for example, Buss, 1995). Whether sex-role or biological sex differences relate to work variables such as job satisfaction has not been resolved, and findings in this area are equivocal (Furnham, 1992).

In the UK, women now make up nearly 50% of the workforce overall, and nearly 90% of all part-time workers. In particular, in clerical and related occupations full-time working women form 56%, and part-time women 18%, of the workforce, whereas at managerial level they are 6% and 5% respectively (Social Trends, 1996). More than two thirds of the women that work are married. These figures are vastly different to twenty, and even ten, years ago. Not only are the statistics changing, but so are values, attitudes and behaviour with respect to gender in the workplace; indeed, Grant and Porter (1994) state that it "is constantly being defined and redefined".

Marshall (1993) suggests that women will continue to have limited influence on cultural values until they can lose their current preoccupation with proving their right to be in organizations. Aaltio-Marjosola (1994) considers the way in which contrasting ideas for male and female behaviour evolve and remain in the organizational memory, suggesting that the tendency to glorify organizational cultures imbued with heroic ideals may favour male ways of acting in organizations. Some writers have referred to the extent to which work behaviour and attitudes are explained by 'indirect sexuality' such as aggression and competitiveness and their effects on organizational culture (e.g. Rogers, 1988). A study by Loscocco (1990) lends support to the view that women use a different frame of reference than men in assessing their jobs and their organizations; an example of this is that wives adapt work behaviours to suit the needs of the family significantly more than men (Karambayya and Reilly, 1992), although this varies according to the 'maleness' of the role- see below.

Women managers

In terms of the role of women managers, Horgan (1989) argues that the biggest barrier to women's success in management is the management task itself- that acquiring management skills is especially difficult for women in terms of learning from experience, heuristics, pattern recognition and task importance, fewer role models, less direct and accurate feedback, biases in base rate information and a higher level of uncertainty. Thus, there is evidence that 'male' managers are valued more, perceive women more negatively, etc. (Sachs et al, 1992; Burke 1994) and that an androgynous management style may be appropriate as a coping style for women (Davidson and Cooper, 1992). Women managers may be perceived as having different values and notions of commitment, leadership style and motivation from men (Billing and Alvesson 1989; Rosener 1990; Davidson and Cooper, 1992). It can be argued that women either adapt to the prevailing 'male' cultural norms and stereotypes if they wish to be judged as acceptable, or are perceived to be different and are potentially marginalised (Marshall, 1995).

In two studies of women managers' attitudes to work and intention to leave, Rosin and Korabik (1991 and 1995) show that women managers' valuation of job attributes and their responses to unmet expectations are similar to those of men, but that some of the issues which underlie these values and responses are very different, relating to barriers to advancement, dislike of working in a male-dominated environment, work-family conflict, negative stereotyping and structural inflexibility. Women managers have been found to rate women more favourably than men on traits necessary to managerial success (Orpen, 1991).

Sex-role stereotyping

Occupational sex-role stereotyping has been raised by many authors, for example in the context of gender-role and career aspirations and leadership styles (see Bass et. al., 1996- transformational and transactional leadership styles). The role of gender in the workplace is complicated by perceptions that some tasks are more feminine or masculine than others. For example, where tasks are allocated, it is often the 'soft' interactive and relational ones which are given (Pease, 1993). Success and failure will inevitably be judged in different terms if the sexes are doing different tasks: research on attributions for one's own success or failure indicates that men exhibit the typical self-serving bias when the task is described as stereotypically masculine, while women show positive-negative outcomes bias [positive referring to self-enhancing attributions and negative to self-protective attributions] when the task is stereotypically feminine (Rosenfield and Stephan, 1978).

For women working in 'male' environments, there is the issue of tokenism, although the perception of this is not likely to be based on absolute numbers but the proportion of women in the workplace (Rinfret and Lortie-Lussier, 1993; Yoder, 1994). There is ample evidence of women being promoted disproportionately less but the reasons for this are less clear. Clearly, context issues including situational variables, the 'maleness' of the culture and the 'culture trap', stereotypes of women, the fear of women bringing more radical or interactional styles of leadership and the perception of lower commitment are all relevant (Schein et. al., 1989; Davidson and Cooper, 1992; Pease, 1993; Aaltio-Marjosola, 1994; Marshall 1995).

Work attitudes

Gender differences in work attitudes are often inconclusive, and are not always tested in investigations, even those measuring job satisfaction (Furnham, 1992). For example, Warr (1990) found that women register lower levels of perceived competence and higher levels of enthusiasm than men but Adelmann (1987) found no substantial gender differences in well-being. Yet Greenglass (1993) found that women managers were higher in type A scores, speed, impatience and job involvement than male managers, which, if taken along with other studies' findings, implies that job grade is a moderator of sex differences in work attitudes. Campbell et. al. (1994) found the same levels of job performance but lower commitment amongst women who had
children compared to those who did not, and suggest that the temporal demands of work are the reason for this. Their research supports the more general finding that mothers of young children prefer fewer work hours or part-time employment. Sevastos et al. (1992) found that women were more enthusiastic and 'contented' with their jobs and reported higher levels of aspiration than men amongst white-collar employees in the Australian Public Service; however, they found no significant differences for job-related competence and negative job carry-over [the 'spill over' of work into leisure and family life and its dysfunctional consequences].

Stress and role conflict
Sex differences in stress and role conflict have been studied widely. For example, Fontana and Aboyserie (1993) found no significant differences among teachers, whereas Ogus et al. (1990) found that men were more depersonalised and experienced greater stress and a lower quality of daily life. Women managers respond differently to stress and to different stressors (Burke and Greenglass, 1989) and stress models for women may be more complex than those for men (Hendrix et al, 1994). Davidson and Cooper (1992) present completely separate models of occupational stress for male and female managers; this gender-specific approach is reinforced from an identity theory perspective by Wiley (1991). Stress due to the role conflict between domestic and work responsibilities is well documented [see for example Davidson and Cooper, 1992]. Stereotypical gender-role attitudes increased role conflict for women but decreased it for men (Israeli, 1993) but where women were in a male-type occupation, with consequent higher work relative to home burdens, they experienced less role conflict than their counterparts in female-type occupations (Moore and Gob, 1995). It is clear that there are stress-related variables that differentiate between the sexes, and, from the evidence, those which are which important include grade, social support, recognition, perceived commitment, management style and role conflict in terms of the home-work interface.

Sex differences and illness
The incidence of consultations with their GPs suggests that women consult more than men, even when these figures are matched with census records. Whilst pregnancy is one obvious explanation, it cannot account for the differences in the older age group, and only accounts for some of the difference in the 16-44 age group. Conrey (1990) found that the presence of physical symptoms was predictive of consultation in both sexes but psycho-social symptoms or distress predicted consultation behaviour only in women; there was no evidence of increased consultations being related to physical accessibility or time availability. He suggested that the increased consultation levels for women are linked to the greater ease with which they are able to divulge personal information about these symptoms.

Standardised ratios of GP consultations by patient age and sex. (adapted from McCormick and Rosenbaum, 1990)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>'Trivial' illness</th>
<th>'Intermediate' illness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16-44 yrs</td>
<td>45-64 yrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>men</td>
<td>13526</td>
<td>7528</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>women</td>
<td>25227</td>
<td>9684</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Bird and Fremont (1991) identified the importance of social roles and found that when gender roles are controlled "being male is associated with poorer health than being female". They suggest that these findings are more consistent with the known higher longevity of women than are the raw morbidity data. Gijsberg et al. (1991), again commenting on the generally higher levels of morbidity among women, consider that higher female symptom sensitivity, defined as "a readiness to perceive physical sensations as symptoms of illness", may be a primary explanation. [All of these sources refer to methodological problems in data collection]

Sex differences and absenteeism
Many studies have identified sex differences in absenteeism in the direction of higher spell frequency and total days lost for women, although job grades tend to attenuate the effect (e.g. Hackett, 1989) and some data show no differences between the sexes. Although sometimes reasons have been offered to explain the differences, such as differing expectations, attitudes to sickness of children and so on (Haccoun and Desgent, 1993; Huczinski and Fitzpatrick 1989), it is difficult to deduce robust reasons for why this should be so.

Hackett (1989) synthesised the results from three meta-analyses in order to establish the relationship between work attitudes and absenteeism. He identified sex as a strong and consistent moderator; the more females in a sample, the stronger the association of absenteeism to job satisfaction. He suggested that future research should address the separate psychological processes, antecedents and consequences of absenteeism for each sex. The strongest relationships involved the facets of work, overall and intrinsic satisfaction, suggesting that the link between absence and job satisfaction and work-related behaviours is likely to lie in the intrinsically motivating aspects of the work or job itself. As exceptions to a general trend, Brooke and Price (1989) found the contrasting view "that multivariate relationships between absenteeism and its determinants did not differ significantly for males or females, or across the three occupational groups in the workforce" and Haccoun and Jeanrie (1995) found no gender differences at all in a study relating self-reports of total days lost to personal attitudes and perceptions of the organization in relation to absence.

General conclusion
There is enough evidence to suggest that the processes underlying many work behaviours may well be strongly differentiated by sex and sex-related covariates, even if the 'surface' behaviours sometimes appear to be similar.
Selected references


Chapter 10:

Leadership and Authority
Introduction
Organizations are systems of power and influence. Members act to protect or pursue their own values and interests, and those of reference groups within the organization. Activity of this kind may be considered a set of social skills and provides an important source of political power.

Leadership is the process of influencing the behaviour and actions of others. Management [the term itself is generic and covers many things] involves, for example, the facilitation, motivation, control and delegation of activities of subordinates. Since it is so wide-ranging, it will not be addressed separately here.

Authority is power and control, invested in individuals, which has been legitimised or given; it has thus been recognised and defined by organization.

Authority
In Western organizations, authority can be seen as being one of three types:

- **traditional** authority- e.g. custom, the right to rule, etc.
- **charismatic** authority- e.g. personal qualities of leadership
- **legal-rational** authority- e.g. bureaucratic organizations, determined by rules and position

Traditional authority may be seen in organizations that are privately owned, or where tradition is more important than procedures. It is also evident where authority may be inherited. Religious, royal and tribal leaders will all exhibit traditional authority.

Charismatic authority will be seen where there is a need for someone to ‘rally the troops’, one example being Winston Churchill, or where someone is brought in at a high level to ‘get an organization going’, such as happened with several organizations in the UK in the 1980’s.

Legal-rational authority can be seen where position is acquired by merit, length of service, promotion. What may vary is the amount of authority invested in each person: this is known as their position-power. This type of authority is likely to be common in larger organizations.

In some organizations, particularly those with a 'western' culture, this type of authority will be given to individuals on merit, frequently because vacancies have arisen due to retirements but also because of expansion in organizations; sometimes, authority will be given for qualifications, sometimes for the possession of skills. In organizations with a 'Japanese' culture, legal-rational authority will be more frequently related to length of service and age. It is important that employees are aware of what determines who has authority in their organization.

The authority structure is part of how we define organizational types. Authority is inextricably bound up with position and status in organizations; it is demonstrated by certain advantages that accrue to increased authority; for example, in western society, it has long been the case that perks, fringe benefits and improved working conditions and arrangements all increase with increased authority.

There are two major influences upon changing patterns of authority:

1. Developments in technology, capital investment, and increased wealth have all helped to improve conditions for the 'blue-collar' workers, and many of the 'perks' of earlier decades are now considered to be entitlements as expectations have changed.
2. Increased levels [in Europe and the USA] of 'harmonization' in recent decades. The impetus for this has stemmed from several sources, including the move towards the 'enterprise culture'. Harmonization involves equating most, if not all, conditions of work for blue-collar and white-collar workers and hinges upon supposed fairness of payment and other conditions. The Equal Pay Act in Britain is supposed to have this as a basic aim [never actually fulfilled properly even in the 2010s, but harmonization strikes right at the heart of issues such as 'is skilled physical work as valuable as skilled mental work?'] It has to be said that harmonization is not totally popular, particularly amongst those who see their 'rewards' for hard work being eroded and their relative positions being downscaled and thus it could be said that harmonization may undermine authority.

Authority is bound up with position and reflects status, so anything that threatens one part of this threatens all of it. However, authority is not automatically bound up with power. Power may be vested in certain jobs by giving the incumbents the authority to hire, fire, delegate, give orders etc. There are other sorts of power which are not invested in an individual in the same way, but which nevertheless give them control or something to bargain with. These are:

- **Reward Power**- based on subordinate's perception that the leader has the ability and resources to obtain 'rewards' for those who comply with directives. The rewards could be pay, promotion, praise, privileges, etc.
- **Coercive Power**- based on fear and the subordinate's perception of the leader's ability to punish or bring about undesirable outcomes.
Legitimate Power- based on the perception that the leader has a right to exercise influence because of their role or position. Thus, legitimate power is based on authority, it is position power.

Referent Power- based on the subordinates identification with the leader; the leader is able to exercise power because of personal attractiveness, charisma, likeability, etc.

Expert Power- based on the perception of the leader as someone who has competence, special knowledge or expertise. This is dependent upon the fact that such expertise is known to be vested in that individual.

Gatekeeper Power- based on the fact that people, information, products, etc. may have to "go through" certain individuals and cannot avoid those pathways; this invests in those individuals some influence in terms of what goes first, what might be stopped i.e. the power to stop the 'flow'.

Physical Power- this is self explanatory; it may be seen in forms of bullying and this could also appear as harassment. It may even be evident where a boss is behaving in a dictatorial manner to his/her subordinates.

Power may be exhibited by people in a way that is outside their actual position, thus their influence exceeds their authority.

Leadership
This has been studied for centuries; many writers have tried to identify what it is that differentiates leaders from 'followers using analyses of biographies of the so-called 'great men and women', both past and present.

"Trait theories" attempted to identify traits that were common to great leaders. Many investigators have addressed this issue, looking at emergent leadership, national leaders, etc. In summary, there are no traits at all that are common to even half of all the leaders studied. The most common traits were intelligence, dominance, emotional stability and surgency [energy and enthusiasm], but these all occurred in less than half of the leaders studied. Presumably the remaining leaders either did not possess these qualities, or the qualities had not been recorded.

"Style theories" were more concerned with the behaviour of leaders. Two types of style seem to be common to all of these theories- authoritarian and democratic. In the past, it was always believed that an authoritarian style was bad and that a democratic style was good; the result of this simplistic assumption was that management training programmes invariably spent their time attempting to change the style of authoritarian managers to make them into democratic managers. An example of this training to 'change style' is the Managerial Grid, (Blake and Mouton, 1965 and 1988); this method is simplistic, not least because scale scores can easily be manipulated. The training tends to produce managers who are clever with the terminology but the long term effects are few unless reinforced with organizational changes aimed at changing culture in a wider sense. It is possible however that, in such a course, managers might pick up some good ideas about handling subordinates. Nevertheless, the whole theory is not sufficient to explain the complexities of leadership and management.

Likert extended this twofold concept to four, and other researchers concurred with this. The four styles can be said to be [with different terms for the different theories, although they all mean the same]:

1] autocratic- a controlling, initiating, structuring, deciding style
2] paternalistic- a sharing, consulting, selling, style
3] consultative- a sharing, participating, supportive style
4] participative- a delegating, group control, considerate, supportive style

Much evidence has endorsed the use of the more supportive styles for managers, suggesting greater satisfaction, lower turnover, lower grievances and less inter-group conflict with these styles and in addition productivity is higher for groups whose leaders have more supportive styles.

Another four-style approach, which extends the two dimensions of the Managerial Grid, was developed by Reddin (1970). This uses a measure that looks like an enhanced managerial grid scale to classify eight types of manager, in four main styles. The training associated with this type of approach is similar to that of the Managerial Grid i.e. that an initial assessment highlights areas for training activities.

Reddin's classification of managerial types

| Related- people and relationships orientated: | the 'missionary' is less effective, the 'developer' is more effective |
| Integrated- results and people orientated: | the 'compromiser' is less effective, the 'executive' is more effective |
| Dedicated- authority and task orientated: | the 'autocrat' is less effective, the 'benevolent autocrat' is more effective |
| Separated- bureaucratic, procedural & routine orientated: | the 'deserter' is less effective, the 'bureaucrat' is more effective |

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The latest research in leadership style is the distinction between transactional and transformational styles. Transactional styles can be seen almost as a sort of bargain, where good performance is obtained in return for rewards [in the broadest sense]; this style implies that commitment is limited only to the transaction. Transformational styles include much more of a developmental role by the leader, who may genuinely attract more loyalty and 'followership' because they are perceived as supportive and caring. There is ample evidence in recent years to suggest that transactional leadership is more 'macho' and masculine whereas transformational leadership is more caring and feminine [e.g. Bass et al, 1995]. Recent research by Alimo-Metcalfe [1998/99] is suggesting that the picture in the UK may be more complex than the simple two-style model of Bass et al.; however, this does not refute the two-style model but actually adds other dimensions that are relevant to leadership. The implications of this approach are important because transactional behaviour has been [wrongly, one might suggest] encouraged in many climates, including political ones.

There many problems with the style approach. Not all research has reinforced supportive, participative, people-orientated or 'integrated' styles and suggests that sometimes these styles could be quite inappropriate. For example, some people prefer to have and feel more comfortable with more directive styles of leadership and more structure to their work. It is now clear that the style approach is not an adequate explanation for good versus poor leadership. Nevertheless, there has been a legacy of the style theories in that a large number of management training and development techniques, such as the Managerial Grid, emanate from this.

Contingency theories widen the issue to take into account the leader's situation. It seems self-evident now that leadership is situationally specific. Fiedler (1965) developed a theory that showed that the old two dimensions of autocratic and democratic leadership were the only two dimensions [out of hundreds tested including intelligence and personality variables] that differentiated leadership style in any useful way. He identified three main variables that differentiated between situations and showed quite convincingly that different leaders fitted different groups.

- leader-member relations- how easy to manage a group may be
- degree of task structure- how structured or unstructured tasks were
- leader's position power- the authority gap between leader and followers

Other contingency theories include House's Path-Goal theory (1977) which proposes that a leader's key function is to adjust their behaviour to complement situational contingencies. This may involve compensating for things that are lacking, which House says will increase the satisfaction with the leader. He describes four types of leader behaviours- directive [best when the task is ambiguous, where 'initiating structure' is required], supportive [best where tasks are highly repetitive], achievement-orientated [best for non-repetitive jobs where there is some ambiguity] and participative [promotes satisfaction where tasks are non-repetitive and allow for ego involvement of subordinates]. The Situational Leadership Theory of Hersey and Blanchard (1988) focuses on the leader's emphasis on task behaviours or relationship behaviours according to the "readiness" or maturity of followers; the theory defines four leadership styles, beginning with the lowest follower 'readiness' through to the highest: telling, selling, participating and delegating. This clearly places group development stages as the focus of what is necessary to be an effective leader, thereby shifting the emphasis away from the ‘great man’ approach to the context [the group] defining what type of leadership is needed.

The latest developments concern the "best fit" approach, and it really is the only one that can be applied outside the narrow confines of Western society. This approach means that we need to assess the work group, the tasks and the environment [organization, norms, culture etc.] and from there identify the most appropriate style for a leader.

So it important to analyse:

* the leaders style, need for certainty, tolerance of ambiguity, level of personal contribution, locus of control, value system etc.
* the group in terms of their need for structure, interests, tradition, culture, desired autonomy, past experience, etc.
* the task in terms of its nature, time scale, complexity, importance, accuracy required, etc.

General and specific references on leadership


Chapter 11:

Groups and teamworking
Introduction

An organization consists of coalitions of groups with different attitudes, values, goals and there may be considerable diversity within each group. The coalitions are held together usually because members perceive common means rather than common ends. Only by coordinating their activity will they acquire the means to obtain certain valued outcomes.

There are two types of definition for groups:

A set of people who share a social identity because they belong to the same social category; they strive to find an identity which is positive, distinctive and secure. This type of definition suggests that group membership implies both inter- and intra- group competition.

A social unit with a social order based on systems of power and value. The relationships involve considerations of role and status and the groups develop social norms. Competition typically takes the form of negotiation.

Group settings often distort or intensify an individual's attitudes and behaviour; the phenomena responsible include: social facilitation (when audiences or competitors affect a person's performance or a task), social loafing (when participation in group effect leads to lower individual motivation); group think (when group discussion suppresses individual dissent), deindividuation (when group participation lowers individual self awareness), the norms a group holds and polarization of attitudes.

1. Social facilitation

The mere presence of others alters behaviour although sometimes the effects is facilitative, on other occasions inhibitive. Triplett in 1897 showed that racing cyclists recorded much better times when racing with a pacer than when racing alone. Roger Bannister in 1954 overcame a psychological barrier and did what most people then thought could not be done- he ran the mile in less than four minutes. He achieved this by taking advantage of certain scientific training methods and used the presence of other good runners to enhance his own performance; each quarter mile lap involved a fellow runner to pace him. Group settings, therefore can produce dramatic changes in our 'behaviour'. It is worth distinguishing between "co-action" effects and "audience" effects. Both effects are also seen in a variety of animals species. A receptive audience for instance, can improve tremendously the performance of an entertainer.

Investigations into the inhibitive effects of the presence of others have shown that there seems to be "diffusion of responsibility"- an individual alone in an emergency is solely responsible for coping with it, but if they believe that others are also present, they may feel their own responsibility for taking action is lessened, making them less likely to help (Latane &Darley 1968).

Social facilitation is not really a straightforward issue - in 1924 Allport showed that working with co-actors improved the performance of undergraduates working on a 'simple task' but hampered performance when they were working on a more difficult one. By 1930s it was clear that the topic presented a paradox - leaving the question which is still being researched - why should the effects vary in this way?

2. Social loafing

When people work together on a common task, under certain conditions each contributes less than he or she would if working alone. This social loafing phenomenon was first reported in an experiment that involved eight men who were asked to pull as hard as they could on a rope. Together, they pulled a force of 32kg per man, but when asked to pull on the rope by themselves, they exerted an average of 63kg. What seems to account for most of the drop in effort on group tasks is the feeling of anonymity provided by the group but as soon as people think that they can be identified, their effort hardly drops at all.

3. " Groupthink" (Janis 1972)

As a group becomes excessively close-knit and develops a strong feeling of "togetherness", it becomes vulnerable to "group think". When consensus-seeking becomes a dominant force, groupthink develops- it is a thinking process which tends to push aside a realistic appraisal of alternative courses of action. It is more likely to affect cohesive in-groups and unintentionally erodes one's critical faculties as a result of adopting group norms. Typically, discussions are limited to the minimum number of alternatives, expert opinion is not used or if it is, selective bias is used in evaluating it, no re-examination of the choices' strengths and weaknesses takes place, etc. This phenomenon is currently being studies by Andrew Pettigrew at Warwick, as an explanation of poor boardroom decisions.

The key characteristics of group think are:-

(1)Illusion of invulnerability (discount warnings and engage in collective rationalisation)
(2)Belief in the rectitude of the group (The unquestionable belief in the morality or self-righteousness of the group).
(3)Negative views of competitors (often used to account for military errors).
(4)Sanctity of group consensus (remains reticent in group but tells everyone afterwards).
(5)Illusion of unanimity (often because participants fail to reveal their own reasoning).
(6)Erecting a protective shield (back the leader and dominant members)
To counteract it: encourage individuals to critically evaluate what has been said; leader should be impartial and encourage questions; get someone to play "devils advocate"; not rush into quick solutions; break group into sub-groups where possible; widen sources of information.

4. Deindividuation
People in mob settings become less aware of their own individuality, i.e., they become less self-conscious [literally]; this implies that the person in a mob sees the mob as a main actor and is not focusing on the fact that he or she as an individual is contributing to the mob's behaviour.

It has been suggested that the conditions likely to trigger this are the disinhibition mechanisms- anonymity, responsibility diffusion, excitement/arousal, uninhibited models, intense stimulus input and a feeling of group unity, all of which lower the extent to which one focuses on oneself, lower fear and/or guilt and make the group product, rather than the self, the major focus of attention.

5. Group membership and norms and pressure to conform
Schachter (1959) conducted a classic experiment which showed how fear influences affiliation - "frightened people seek company; if possible they seek the company of people also frightened by the something". Sarnoff [1961] investigated this phenomenon further and showed that anxiety seemed to lead to less affiliation.

Sherif (1936) used the autokinetic phenomenon (apparent movement of a light in a darkened room) to show the importance of group norms in influencing perception; few subjects were conscious that their judgement had been influenced by others - the social influence was covert and its effect long lasting.

Asch (1956) demonstrated that pressures to conform within a group are such that people can distort quite simple judgmental processes to satisfy the group norms - only 25% of subjects remained unaffected by group pressure, 33% conformed on more than one half of the trials they faced and 32% of all judgements were wrong; subjects who yielded to pressure thought up a variety of rationalisations for their behaviour and in general it was the people who remained independent who apparently felt the greatest stress and discomfort. The effect varied with the size of majority, although increasing the majority above 4 to 1 had little added effect in producing erroneous judgements; similarly, the presence of one other independent subject abolished the reaction almost entirely (5.5% erroneous responses).

Status and stress are factors which can contribute to the selection of irrational norms. Useful information will often be ignored if it comes from a low status group member and the effects of stress could be seen in both the Sherif and Asch experiments. Under stress people can become so dependent on group authority that they will accept group norms even when those norms have nothing to do with the source of stress.

In short, it seems that in times of stress, people are less critical of group norms, and this can lead to the establishment and acceptance of norms that are not in the best interests of the group.

6. The Risky - shift phenomenon and group polarization
The impetus for this area of research came originally from work by Schachter [1951] who showed that when a group of people are motivated to reach a decision on an important topic, influence attempts are directed by those holding the majority view towards the minority or "deviates" who are holding up the decision process.

Stoner [1961] first demonstrated that groups were willing to make decisions involving greater risks than the average of their individual preferences. Wallach and Kogan [1965] investigated the different components of the group experience which might individually account for the phenomenon:

[a] Diffusion of responsibility - generally accepted as an explanatory factor.

[b] Risk as an ego-ideal. Brown [1965] suggests that there is a culture value for risk, which sets up boldness, courage and daring as ego-ideals; this may possibly depend on the salience of the culture values but it is certainly true that certain people are predisposed to favour risk as opposed to caution.

[c] Rational decision making, i.e., greater knowledge to increase the utility of decisions. May have influence in determining the shift-to-risk but is insufficient in its own.

[d] Majority decisions. Davis [1973] suggests that the prevailing social decision scheme is such that when there is disagreement it is fair that the majority should win the day; although this model has many implications for collective decisions and raises doubts about the fairness of majority decisions, it does not appear to be wholly successful in accounting for the risky shift.

[e] Polarization. Groups operate in such a way as to polarize individual attitudes and to intensify any initial group tendency. Many people contend that group meetings are a good way to produce moderate, well-thought-out decisions that reflect the
opinions of the cooler heads in the group, but research [Moscovici, 1969 and Myers 1976] clearly suggests the opposite. Polarization is now accepted as a serious phenomenon in group risk-taking. Even on jury decisions and on volatile political topics, group discussion tends to intensify rather than modify attitudes- provided most group members are generally in agreement prior to the discussion.

Attempts to explain this polarization have produced two possible reasons [Baron, 1981]:

[i] persuasive arguments (especially if new to many members of the group)  
[ii] social comparison (competing to see who is most committed to the original view)

Both of these theories are supported by research findings and both can happen without the other necessarily being present, although the effect is maximised when both are present.

Therefore the two main explanations of the risky-shift phenomenon are firstly the polarization of attitude and secondly diffusion of responsibility, with the other three also contributing but in a lesser fashion. This is clearly shown in jury decisions in several high-profile cases.

7. Team organization

Tjosvold [1991] proposes as model of team organization, based on the following behaviours by, or initiated by, the leader:

- **envisioning**- ways leaders can create a shared vision by inspiring commitment, through confronting relationship issues, searching for opportunities to initiate change, innovate and grow, taking risks and learning from mistakes, presentation of vision statements, appreciating accomplishments

- **uniting**- in a common effort, to define a common direction, through one product/output, promotion of group learning, praise, rewards based on group performance, challenging tasks, pledges to cooperate, assigning complementary roles, encouragement of team identity, holding whole of unproductive groups accountable

- **empowerment**- through the organization's mandate, technical skills and resources, interpersonal skills and individual responsibility and team accountability

- **exploring** through flexibility and using approaches that are appropriate for the situation, and through promotion of constructive controversy to explore issues and alternatives

- **reflection**- on how well the team is doing- groups are either growing or declining.

The team organizational model [Tjosvold, 1991] is a simplification of a model that contains a whole operating philosophy. For example, it relies on equity and organizational justice as key features without which effective team organization cannot be achieved. Thus, the reward system, based on group rather than individual rewards, is one of many parts of this model. Another part is the OD-type emphasis placed on confrontation and resolution of conflict, rather than attempting to sweep it aside. The model also works on the basic assumption that teamwork at its best is always superior to individual working at it's best and that teams can achieve things which individuals working separately cannot do.

8. Decision-making and negotiation

Organizations are systems of power and influence. Members respond to perceived threats and opportunities in the environment of work. They act to protect or pursue their own values and interests, and those of reference groups within the organization. Activity of this kind may be considered a set of social skills and provides an important source of political power.

An organization may be considered to consist of coalitions of groups with different attitudes, values, goals and there may be considerable diversity within each group. The coalitions are held together because members perceive common means rather than common ends. Only by coordinating their activity will they acquire the means to obtain certain valued outcomes.

In relation to decision-making and negotiation, there are two types of definition for groups:

[i] A set of people who share a social identity because they belong to the same social category; they strive to find an identity which is positive, distinctive and secure. This type of definition suggests that group membership implies both inter- and intra-group competition.

[ii] A social unit with a social order based on systems of power and value. The relationships involve considerations of role and status and the groups develop social norms. Competition typically takes the form of negotiation.

Leaders are given esteem to the extent that they provide services valued by members of their group; on some occasions this requires the exercise of power within the group and on others outside it. But systems of power and value vary within and between groups and so therefore do the qualities required of a leader. It follows that the skills appropriate in one context may be irrelevant or inappropriate in another. There has been insufficient emphasis on the impact of activities outside the group on creating and maintaining order within the group: leaders monitor information from outside the group and disseminate it within the group; frequently, he or she relies on networks of cooperative relationships which supply information, interpretation and advice. Leaders also negotiate relationships between groups.

Leadership involves relationships which go beyond those formally required by the organization - they develop strong and cooperative close relationships which are characterized by high trust and high exchange of information and are most likely to

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occur when each participant profits from the exchange and when each contributes to it. These close relationships are particularly important when relations between groups are typified by conflict. 'Leader' shop stewards studied by Batstone et al in 1977 were efficient negotiators because they were able to exploit a close relationship with someone on the other side; mistakes were less serious because they were less likely to be exploited. Confidential information was exchanged off the record, much of it detailing the internal politics of the other side; this meant that bargaining developed on the basis of shared understandings and that agreements were more likely to 'stick'.

In group decision making there are two kinds of task:

1. Standard decision making eg committees, departmental meetings, advisory groups, etc. Negotiation is cooperative.
2. Formal negotiation, where members belong to different social categories and bargaining is distributive. Negotiation is competitive.

Decision-making is a complex social activity that requires diagnosis of problems, development of solutions, selection and implementation of policies. Such tasks may be performed well or badly and the skillful performer:

1. **Understands the risks and opportunities associated with the environment of work.** The 'actor' needs to be able to order the environment by systematically organizing his/her knowledge of it and how to work in it. In general, evidence to confirm an image is quickly found and other evidence is often denied, distorted or ignored; people see the world as more predictable and certain than it is. To be effective the decision-maker must move around his environment in some sense.

2. **Recognizes key dilemmas inherent in the structure of the decision making task.** "Not to disagree means not to solve the problem" is a generally true statement and failure to disagree can result in 'groupthink'. Unfortunately, the supposed superiority of group decision making is largely untrue; there are losses due to faulty process eg the pressure to conform to the leader's choice and remain loyal. Groupthink is more likely in cohesive groups unless group norms facilitate critical enquiry. There is evidence that successful negotiations go through stages in which negotiators begin by establishing a reputation for resolve, separating the inter-party and interpersonal demands of their task. They then engage in unofficial behaviours designed to give a more precise idea of how settlements might be obtained; party and opposition roles are still salient but the style of the negotiation is now affected by the personal relationship between the negotiators. Finally they return to their representative roles as a decision making crisis is reached. Effective negotiators use fewer reasons to back up each position than do ineffective ones and they structure negotiation so that the capacities of the performers are efficiently linked to the demands of the task.

3. **Is attracted to, and able to cope with, the demands of the task.** There is evidence that authoritarian personalities are less able to cope than other types. They will be less likely than others to understand the opposition's intentions, tend to reject evidence which does not fit their beliefs, not accept technical innovations, tend to underestimate the ability of the opposition, emphasise blind obedience, punish those who appear critical of superiors, blame others rather than themselves, exhibit certain dysfunctional obsessive traits and lack empathy with others.

4. **Is able, therefore, to protect or pursue the values and interests of his or her group.** The skillful performer is someone whose behaviour follows naturally from the key characteristics of the tasks he or she is asked to undertake. Skill is an important determinant of outcomes in both standard decision making and formal negotiation groups. Morley (1979) has argued that there is an irreducibly psychological component in the process of negotiation and that the component is important in determining the outcome of it. There is probably no other activity in which improved skill can be so quickly converted to profit" [Karrass, 1970 and Rackham, 1979]

**Group Behaviour - Team Roles**

There have been a number of attempts to classify group members in terms of activity, communications, personality etc., all with the purpose of enhancing group performance and to help managers select members for groups to obtain the "best fit".

Margerison and McCann have taken the team-role approach further than simply describing the roles and have added work preference measures. The dimensions for the work preference measures are:

- **Extravert-Introvert**
- **Analytical-Belief**
- **Practical-Creative**
- **Structured-Flexible**
- **Information-Organisation**

Combining the four main team members of: **explorers, organisers, controllers and advisers** with the eight main work preference types of **promoting, developing, organising, producing, inspecting, maintaining, advising and innovating**, we get the 16-fold model of the "Team Management Wheel", whose purpose is to 'facilitate understanding of the relationship between preferred approaches to work and the eight key types of work'. The matching of the roles to the work preferences is shown in more detail below.
A similar approach was proposed by Meredith Belbin, who proposed 8 team roles, later adding ninth which was the 'expert'. These are shown below.

**Chairman:** likes to control the way in which a team moves towards the group objectives, by making the best use of the team resources; recognising where the team's strengths and weaknesses lie; ensuring the best use is made of each team member's potential.

**Company worker:** likes to turn concepts and plans into practical working procedures; carrying out agreed plans systematically and efficiently.

**Completer-finisher:** likes to ensure that the team is protected as far as possible from mistakes of both commission and omission; actively searches for aspects of work which need more than usual degree of attention; maintains a sense of urgency within the team.

**Monitor-evaluator:** likes to analyse problems; evaluates ideas and suggestions so that the team is better placed to take balanced decisions.

**Plant:** likes to advance new ideas and strategies with special attention to major issues; looks for possible breaks in approach to the task with which the group is confronted.

**Resource investigator:** likes to explore and report on ideas, developments and resources outside the group; creates external contacts that may be useful to the team and conducts any subsequent negotiations.

**Shaper:** likes to shape the way in which team effort is applied; directs attention generally to the setting of objectives and priorities; seeks to impose some shape or pattern on group discussion and on the outcome of group activities.

**Team worker:** likes to support members in their strengths [e.g. by building on suggestions]; underpins members in their shortcomings; improves communications between members and fosters team spirit generally.

**However there are problems with these approaches to team working based on roles.**

People often work better together based on different personalities, rather than roles. It is not clear how many people of each 'role' there should be in a group. There is no evidence yet that these groups allocated on the basis of roles work any better than choosing people to work in groups that get along with each other.

**General notes on teams**

There is a huge amount of research into teams, which covers leadership style & skills, team roles, group cohesiveness, group norms, reference groups, polarisation of decision making, problem-solving, communications and social interaction, and so on. Probably there are 20 or more journal articles published every day in this area. In addition, there is also the focus of how the individual behaves in relation to the group, and several of the issues associated with teamwork not working are related to this, and are given below:

**Misperceptions due to:** perceptual set; non-verbal signals; impression management; misinterpretations e.g. the fundamental attribution error and self-serving attributions. Phenomenological issues and the perspective from which people perceive things. Context factors may be specific, such as group size, mixed professions or jobs, levels of loyalty [and to whom?] whether the work is process or problem orientated, etc.

**Miscommunication errors due to:**

- **Sender** e.g. language, intonation, credibility issues
- **Receiver** e.g. misinterpretation, attribution, social class/gender differences
- **Message** e.g. language; grammar & wording; mixed messages, assumptions
- **Medium of communication** e.g. verbal or written
- **Feedback** e.g. assume complete understanding
Individual factors affecting teams
Personality issues e.g. type a/type b; locus of control; personality-task interactions; personality-context interactions e.g. extraversion-introversion; person-environment fit; self-concept and identity
Expectations and motives; based on personal models: roles; equity and expectancy theories' organizational justice- procedural, moral obligation, equity, psychological contract
Mood & emotion: e.g. lagged relationship between negative mood states and onset of minor illness: links to stress
Resolution of conflict; frustration-agression, frustration-regression hypotheses etc.; transactional analysis [TA] approach; role of humour.
Stress due to: role conflict e.g. dual career, home-work interface, two 'bosses', professional role conflict; role ambiguity e.g. unclear task hierarchies, unclear targets, unclear standards; role overload/underload e.g.:
Quantitative: too many things, too little time, deadlines;
Qualitative: too much responsibility for people, money, systems, machines, strategy

Some notes on problems that arise in meetings- these reflect what is already in these notes but from a different perspective
1 The organization of the meeting
Negative beginnings - Where meetings start on a negative note, even before arrival, and this sets the emotional mood for the remainder of the meeting.
Mistiming of events- Presentations or events which are programmed at times which are not in sync with human biorhythms, and as a result the optimal impact is lost. e.g. breakfast meetings or meeting late in the evening or across time zones etc.
Issue high-jacking- Characterised by situations where insufficient account is taken of the primary objectives of the meeting or conference, allowing secondary issues to take over.
Miscommunication- Where the 'pitch', content or language of any presentation material is inappropriate for the recipients.
Non-neutrality of facilitators- Where the role of facilitator is taken on by a person with a strong vested interest in the outcomes.

2. Giving presentations
Immediate impressions- Where the primacy effect of any first impression of a presenter or presentation undermines the overall effect.
Image management- Where due regard has not been given to a presenter's portrayed image in relation to the style and content of the presentation and the audience.
Presentation technique- Either through lack of awareness, experience, training or presentational style the presenter does not deliver an effective presentation.
Attention span- Presentations which either through content or length take no account of attention span.
Equipment failures- Where presentation equipment fails or the presenter does not know how to operate it.
Information overload- Presentations which try to impart too much information, are in a format which is not easy to understand or which is inappropriate for the audience or circumstances.
Audiovisual excess - Where the presentation is characterised more by the mixture and extremes of audio visual aids than the content.

3. Group dynamics
Domination- Characterised by the domination of a meeting by individuals or small groups of individuals, which inhibit less forceful members from contributing.
Social Conformity- Where social conformity results in persons withholding opinions which may run contrary to the majority view.
Devaluing of inputs- Where status, gender and hierarchy cause some members views to be valued or devalued disproportionately.
Extreme decisions- When a group makes extreme decisions as a result of individuals tending to move with the majority along a scale of opinion.
Social loafing- Where a diffusion of responsibility occurs when individuals are working in a group and fail to engage in the process, allowing others to do all the work.
Weak decisions- Where decisions are made that are acceptable to the group rather than the best decision.
Groupthink- Where there is greater concern with achieving agreement than achieving a quality decision.
Poor facilitation- Where poor facilitation or chairmanship results in meetings spending too much time on irrelevant issues, grinding down over a particular point, failing to meet objectives and arriving at poor decisions.
Self interests- Where the group's interests are not being served and by individuals blocking decisions as a result of their own preferences or a power play within the group.
Organisational politics- Where organisational politics result in alliances being made, opinions not being expressed for fear of career prospects or self-interest predominating over organisational need.
Chapter 12:

Change
1. Introduction

The very nature of decision-making implies a change from the current situation toward a desired future state of being. Implicitly, a gap has been diagnosed between current and desired situations and the 'change programme' will be based on the prescription for improvement to achieve the desired state. Change is therefore one of the organizational facts of life.

Any change in some way modifies the way things are done now. In the extreme case, present activities are abolished in favour of a completely new set of activities; the more general situation is where previously established behaviours are modified to fit a new situation. Changes, in terms of their time-span, may be short term e.g. testing of new administrative procedures, etc. or they may be long term e.g. induction into a new organization, new production methods. Any change will have organizational and human resource implications, which could be major restructuring right down to training to use new office equipment.

Whoever is organizing the change [the change agent] must diagnose what the target system [the department or factory, group or even individual that is considering change] needs and wants, must incorporate this improvement into the change and make the target system aware that the needed improvement is inherent in the change. Such improvements could for example, include more economy, less conflict or greater production. In the UK at present, much emphasis is being given to changes whose aim is to improve the quality of the product or service.

It is also useful to know
* the extent to which the change can be implemented on a limited scale;
* the ease with which the change may be discontinued and the permanent consequences;
* the ease with which information about the change can be disseminated;
* how susceptible the change will be to successive modification;
* the complexity of the change.

2. Resistance to Change

"any conduct that serves to maintain the status quo in the face of pressure to alter the status quo"

Change has positive and negative attributes; the negative aspects involve loss of the familiar, confrontation with the unknown [see, for wider reading, 'Future Shock', Alvin Toffler 1971] etc. and are therefore inevitable. Managers however often seem to regard change as intrinsically good and see resistance as undesirable. Common causes of resistance to change in organizations have been investigated by Kotter, Schlesinger and Sathe [1986] and they found that four common reasons are below:

[1] Parochial self-interest

Seeking to protect a status quo with which they are content. Individuals develop vested interests in the perpetuation of particular organization structures and accompanying technologies. Change may mean loss of power, prestige, respect, approval, status and security; it may be personally inconvenient for a number of reasons e.g. disturbing relationships and arrangements.

The feeling amongst employees is that the aspects of the job that they hold most dear at present will be eroded or threatened under the new regime. Individuals may identify more closely with their specific role or function rather than with the organization and may have a personal stake in their own specialised knowledge and skill. Resultant actions include trying to 'block' changes, often by forming opposing camps or sections in the organization; arguing that no-one really understands their concerns; that this is change just for the sake of it etc.


People resist change when they do not understand the reasons for the change, its nature or the likely consequences. If managers have little trust in their employees, information about impending changes may be withheld or distorted. The initiator of the change may assume that others are aware of the details and the rationale for the proposal, but in reality they are only half informed.

Lack of information increases defensiveness and encourages people to find their own reasons to 'fit' the situation, many of these negative; this all serves to reduce further any effective communication about the change. Thus, the way in which the change is introduced can be resisted rather than the change itself.

[3] Contradictory Assessments and Viewpoints

Individuals differ in the ways in which they evaluate the costs and benefits of change. Human values, not technology, determine which organizational changes are promoted, which persist and succeed and which fail. We all differ in our perceptions of what change will mean for us and for the organization.

Managers may assume that their view of the problem or issue in question will be held by others because they assume everyone has the same level of access to the information that they have. This is almost never true. Shop floor workers, supervisors, other managers and people in other parts of the organization will all be privy to different sources of information. They will each perceive the information that they receive in different way; this will colour their view of the organization and thus their view of any proposed changes.

If information is withheld for any reason, perceptions are more rather than less likely to differ.

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It is worth noting that [a] contradictory analyses can be constructive where two or more versions of solutions to a problem are produced so that improved proposals result and [b] that resistance is not necessarily disruptive. However, constructive criticism, if not properly handled can make this a significant barrier to effective change.

[4] Low Tolerance of Change
Individuals differ in their ability to cope with change. Change that requires people to think and behave in different ways can challenge the individual's self concept. A low tolerance means that individuals who are less able than others to adapt to new circumstances are likely to resist proposals for future changes irrespective of whether the change is likely to benefit them or not. In psychological terms, this is referred to a low tolerance of ambiguity and uncertainty and will lead to anxiety and apprehension resulting in opposition to even beneficial changes.

All four of the reasons for resistance can occur in individuals or in groups. In much the same way that individuals supporting change can be powerful allies to a manager, but those against it can be equally formidable, so this can happen in groups, where group norms and pressures to conform can have powerful and influential consequences.

Responses to change can include: Frustration, Anxiety, Dissatisfaction, Fear, Insecurity, Resentment. The more rapid and/or radical the change, the more extreme these responses are likely to be. They are likely to be manifest as complaints, absenteeism, low standards of efficiency, restriction of output, aggression toward management etc. The less the information about the change, or the less the participation, the more extreme these responses.

Many subjects in the Behavioural Sciences break down the issues into four main groups for analysis: cultural, organizational, social and individual. Job Design may be analysed this way, and so may the effects of the introduction of very many human resource systems. The same four categories are used below to help indicate the diverse range of barriers to change:

1. Cultural Barriers: ideologies, tradition and heritage, economic well-being, values and beliefs, cultural ethnocentrism, incompatibility of a cultural trait with a proposed change. This is in many ways the most significant area of resistance for multi-national companies or for organisations wanting to link with others in different countries.
2. Organizational Barriers: threat to power and influence [e.g. mergers], technological barriers, behaviour of top level administrators, structure and bureaucracy.
4. Individual Barriers: perception, homeostasis, conformity, commitment, personality, lack of conceptual and inquiring skills, low tolerance of ambiguity.

3 Overcoming Resistance to Change
There are a number of ways that this can be achieved, but all of the positive approaches require effort and care on the part of management:

Education and Communication
Shared knowledge, perceptions and objectives. Train people to recognise the existence of problems that necessitate change. Communication about the nature and goals of the change and what the outcomes are likely to be is imperative if it is intended to gain any sort of support for the change. Fear of the unknown is fostered by lack of communication. This approach, which is essential to successfully implemented change programmes, can only be used where there is trust and credibility on both sides.

Education as a strategy is more feasible when the change does not have to be immediate.

Participation and Involvement
Those who might resist change should be involved in planning and implementing it. Collaborative efforts can help reduce opposition and encourage commitment, by reducing fears and making use of individuals' skills and knowledge. Participation seems to be one of only two variables [the other being communication] that occur in every study of effective change programmes. Involvement and 'ownership' of part or all of the change process is crucial to its effectiveness. This is particularly true of technical change, where there is often some expertise in the workforce about what types of system will and will not work. Use of such expertise can be of value in its own right in making the change effective as well as involving the workers in the change.

This type of approach is an example of a facilitative strategy; and these work best when implementing change to solve a problem where the 'client' recognises a problem, agrees that some remedial action is necessary, is open to external assistance and is willing to engage in self help. Participation inherently involves aiding participants to recognise what the problems are and how they might be solved. In reality many managers refuse to address the real nature of problems, thus rendering what can be a very effective strategy useless.

Facilitation and Support
In order for people to accept change and to operate effectively following it, extra help may be required. For example, counselling may be necessary to overcome anxieties; individual awareness of the need for change as well as self-awareness of
feelings towards change may both need to be enhanced and developed. Someone must be given direct responsibility for the facilitative/support role in order to provide this when needed. Specific information-giving activities [in some detail and able to answer questions and adapt to useful comments] can be of great value.

**Negotiation and Agreement**
It may be necessary to reach a mutually agreed compromise through trading and exchange, to meet the needs and interests of potential resistors. Management may have to negotiate, rather than impose, change where there are groups or individuals who are going to be affected and who have enough power to resist.

This type of approach is akin to the incentive type of motivation theory, where everything is negotiated or ‘exchanged’, not always for money, but such that the worker can see the relationship between the ‘reward’ and the change required. It is a kind of persuasive strategy, whereby a problem may not be recognised or not considered to be particularly important, or when a solution is not perceived to be potentially effective, so change may be created by reasoning, urging or inducement.

**Manipulation and Co-optation**
Covert attempts to side-step potential resistance; putting forward proposals that deliberately appeal to specific interests, often with selected information to emphasise the benefits and ignore the disadvantages. Co-optation involves giving key resistors access to the decision making process. This whole approach throws away any attempt to appear to be impartial; if impartiality is important in terms of loyalty, commitment etc. and acts as a motivator, then this is denied by these approaches and demotivational consequences ensue. These techniques may well work in the short run but tend to create other problems in the long term.

**Explicit or Implicit Coercion**
No attempt at consensus; this happens when there is profound disagreement and little or no chance of anyone altering their views, with the result that force or threats are used e.g. firing, transfer, demotion, stifling of career prospects etc. This is obviously not a positive way of changing things and will have a number of negative consequences.

This approach is typical of a power strategy and is purely manipulative, producing no loyalty, commitment, interest, and it creates an entirely negative incentive based system of employment, where for example, employees do everything by the rules, offer no help, do not identify with the organization etc.

**4 Planning and Implementing Change**
To plan change, it is necessary to define the problem, consider possible alternative actions, anticipate the likely reactions and consequences from each alternative and then implement the programme, monitoring as this is done.

**Defining the Problem**
Firstly, the historical background needs to be considered; past experience of change, general circumstances, key problems that affect the current situation. For example, it is helpful to know whether the last experience of change for any group was recent or not; whether it was accepted fairly quickly or whether it was heavily resisted; what the effects of the change were on behaviour; the nature of the change etc.

Then, the environment of the change target, including the culture, complexity, supportiveness for change and the dynamics of how fast the environment has been changing. A group or department that is used to frequent changes is likely to be more receptive to change than one where change has been a rare event in the past. Knowledge of culture is critical to the effectiveness of any change programme, so it must be assessed.

The organization structure must be analysed - patterns of authority, formulation of rules and procedures, centralisation of decision-making, etc. The structures will illustrate the power relationships, position power in supervisors and managers etc. Rules and procedures indicate not only the type of culture but also the extent to which the system operates on sanctions, participation and trust.

Organizational processes must be considered, including communications, coordination of activities, distribution of power, subordinate involvement in decision-making and inter-group relations. For example, communications can be downward, upward or lateral and each needs to be understood; this is particularly important because one of the largest contributors to poor and ineffective change implementation is inadequacy of communications.

Finally, the last level of analysis is that of individual characteristics, including satisfaction with current situation, openness to change, self-concept, commitment etc. The four factors described earlier in these notes as primary reasons for resistance to change are individually based, although, as said earlier, these can also be adopted as group norms.

**Implementation**
The next stage is to consider all the possible options and alternative forms of action available, taking into account the time scale and any shifts in influence and authority involved. Implementation needs to avoid all the common pitfalls, these are numerous but experience and investigation have shown some to re-occur many times. These include:
[a] **rationalistic bias** - believing that individuals are guided by reason and thus interacting with them on a serious, adult level; this is clearly a problem if, instead of reacting with rational acceptance, individuals are fearful that their whole job might change to something they are unable to handle. A relevant example here is the introduction of new technology and computers, which can have a profound effect on many managers; indeed, many managers resist using computers for years and even prefer to retire early to avoid them.

[b] **poorly defined change goals** - if not clear to those affected by the change, ambiguity, uncertainty, anxiety etc. are created. In psychological terms, these are uncomfortable or dissonant feelings for the individual, resulting in substitution of unclear goals with clear ones of your own. Thus, rumours of what the 'real' purpose of the change is are easily invented, but much harder to dismiss because denials are harder to remove from peoples understanding.

[c] **poorly defined problems** - mistaking symptoms for causes. This is a common occurrence which is frequently made by those too near to the issues and who cannot "see the wood for the trees". Examples include treating a problem as one of equipment design when the real issue involved much wider elements of job design and the payment system; making changes because of poor absence figures when the real issue was one of stress or poor management [absence is often treated as a problem without finding out why it happened, with the result that the 'solution' makes things worse]

[d] **over-emphasis on individuals** - assuming that people behave in a vacuum and do not interact. Many poor managers operate by a "divide and rule" strategy and seem to be oblivious that their subordinates get together and compare what they have been told. People often assume that communications will not be passed any further, or if they are, that they will be in the same form and said in the same way. What is hard to do is to anticipate how others will interpret what has been said and which parts of it they will pass on.

[e] **technocratic bias** - the over-emphasis on developing the change programme without an accompanying plan for implementation. An example might be the introduction of some computerised system for accessing or inputting information, where the computer part of the system, what it will do in terms of capacity, etc. are well prepared; yet handling how the users will react, the training they might require, their likely operating problems, how they will manage if the system goes 'down' etc. are often not addressed at all. Many managers are given computers with complex word-processing and calculating capacity, yet are given little or no instruction in using the software, or even typing or numeracy skills which would mean that they could use the computer more effectively.

It is also helpful to consider which main area contains the problem(s) that the change is trying to address; the list below can be used as a basis for discussion when changes are first proposed so that all the possible consequences may be considered. It is advised that a group of managers address these headings, so that each one reports on the changes and the consequences under each of those headings-

* policy [may be general operating policy or more specific e.g. the introduction of a safety policy],
* organizational structure [e.g. decentralisation or centralisation], people [e.g. a new appraisal scheme],
* production process [e.g. stock control or 'just-in-time' techniques],
* means of dissemination of product and services [e.g. new marketing activities]

The change may largely only affect one or it may affect several [such as the development of a whole new product range] and therefore each may be seen in an interactive way or on its own.

5 **Conclusions**

The following diagram attempts to summarise some of the issues that have been raised and shows possible relationships between management of change strategies and the reasons for resistance that each of these strategies addresses.
INFORMATION BASE

Current Situation  Desired Situation

Prescription for Change

CHANGE IMPLICATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Time Span</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Minor/Experimental (Reversible)</td>
<td>Costs to firm and individuals likely to increase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Major</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whole Organisation</td>
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</tr>
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</table>

MANAGEMENT IMPLICATIONS

<table>
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<th>ORGANIZATIONAL</th>
<th>SOCIAL</th>
<th>CULTURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Participation/Involvement</td>
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<tr>
<td>Facilitation/Support</td>
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<tr>
<td>Negotiation/Agreement</td>
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<tr>
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<td>X</td>
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<tr>
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<td>XXX</td>
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Chapter 13:

International HRM
International HRM - Differing issues relating to HRM strategies.

**America**
* job design/job simplification/alienation/QWL
* methods of selection of managers e.g. assessment centres
* views of freedom and autonomy for workers
* different interpretations of law in terms of individual rights
* different attitudes to trades unions, "managers' rights to manage"
* emphasis upon private enterprise, individualistic culture
* high achievement motivation
* organizational autonomy
* less State involvement in Social Security provision

**UK and (western) Europe**
* job analysis approach to job design
* interviews for selecting managers, less tests
* State interventionist role in the economy
* State as an extensive employer
* trades union involvement
* organizational autonomy constrained by legislation,
* patterns of ownership, culture, consultation arrangements
* EC as a supra-national legislator; effects upon individual members' HRM

**Inter-European Differences**
* Employee involvement- e.g. workers' councils in France, Portugal, Spain, Greece, Italy, Netherlands, Belgium and Germany; all with varying rules about formation/operation.
* different types of selection tools
* many differing personnel practices, e.g. retirement ages spans; social security differences; 35 hour week in France and partially in Greece; relative ease or difficulty of 'downsizing', e.g. France and England.

**Japanese HRM**
* 'Theory Z' (Ouchi, 1981, quoted in Brewster and Tyson, also in Berry et al) based on commitment, trust, incentives of long-term employment, good working relationships (teamwork), quality and pride.
* positive attitudes to seniority
* Ohio leadership styles of 'consideration' and 'initiating structure' (cf. other names) differently interpreted in Japan into 'performance' and 'maintenance'.
* tend to spend longer time periods on single tasks, grater emphasis on long-term planning
* different business values
* decision-making e.g. 'ringi'.
* problems & advantages associated with JIT, flexible manufacturing, TQM, quality circles, etc.
* training and development integrated with planning and deployment systems.
* three main types of training: on-the-job, off-the-job and self-enlightenment
* 'wa'- the notion of harmony and cooperation.
* 'gakureki shakai'- the social system which attaches importance to educational background.
* sacred treasures: life-time employment, seniority, enterprise unions- 'ie' means family as basic concept of employer

**General Comments and Issues**
Debate about extent of relationship between HRM strategy and economic success i.e. whether HRM really provides competitive advantage, particularly in relation to level of organizational autonomy.

"Wa" and "gakureki shakai" can be argued to work against creativity and innovative behaviour in the workplace, by suppressing individual achievement and encouraging students to choose the university rather than a subject to study. Japanese education worked to bring all students up to certain levels in all subjects, therefore concentrated on getting people up to standard in areas of deficiency rather than the US approach of emphasising and developing the best points.

Japanese new-style principles of HRM should involve equality (of achievement, same qualification for same ability, equality of opportunity), clarity (everyone understands and agrees with the HR rules and procedures) and independence (of the HRM department).

Does the current HRM literature largely ignore external economic variables (as the dominant 'human relations' approach of the 1960s did)? Popular prescriptive model of HRM from 1980s was: Business strategy….. leads to HR strategy…. leads to HR practice….. in turn leads back to Business strategy and so on. In the 1990s, to this model could be added environment, IT, globalization, power and strategic choice (Poole, 1990). Hendry and Pettigrew (1990) suggested that the model be amplified under 3 headings:
economic - ownership and control, organizational size and structure, the growth path of an organization, industry structure and markets
technical - skill, work organization and labour-force requirements of technologies
socio-political - institutional framework particularly the national training and education system.

Brewster (1993) suggests that an International model of HRM might include the three basic elements of the 1980 one, but perhaps placed firmly in an environmental context, which includes culture, legislation, patterns of ownership, trade union representation, employee involvement/communication, bargaining arrangements, labour markets, education and training, autonomy, etc. He comments that this will enable the link between positive HRM and economic success to be 'restored'. Problem of organizational culture, learned at the workplace shared daily practices rather than shared values, and 'national' culture acquired fairly early in life and difficult to change (see Hofstede).

Expatriate workers

Selection of Expatriates
This is a complex issue as most of the investigations concerning this have been rather speculative and non-empirical. Some examples of the many attempts to classify the characteristics which are important for intercultural adjustment and success are given below:

Brislin (1981) suggest six characteristics, which reflect cognitive and personality qualities:

1. intelligence, essentially cognitive ability;
2. task orientation, including conscientiousness, responsibility, persistence
3. tolerant personality, including patience, tolerance for ambiguity, cognitive width
4. strength of personality, including self-esteem, integrity, loyalty, self-concept
5. relations with others, including empathy, sociability, warmth, extraversion and nonjudgementalness
6. potential for benefiting from cross-cultural experience, reflecting openness to change, and the ability to accept and use feedback

However, Mendenhall and Oddou (1985) suggest only four factors predictive of success: self-orientedness, including self-esteem, self confidence and mental adjustment; other orientedness, including ability to interact with others, develop relationships and willingness to communicate; perceptual factor including the ability to understand why foreigners behave the way they do and being nonjudgemental; cultural toughness, an environmental dimension which suggests that depending on the expatriate's culture of origin, some cultures are more difficult to adjust to than others.

These two and other attempts to classify the characteristics which need to be looked for in a successful future expatriate all clearly point to the Big Five personality factors as being of central relevance.

Training of Expatriates
Hofstede (2001) refers to training in intercultural competence and suggests three central areas which must be covered:

[a] awareness: the recognition that one carries a particular mental software because of the way one was brought up
[b] additional knowledge: learn about symbols, rituals, heroes, get an intellectual grasp of where their values differ from yours
[c] skills: based on both awareness and knowledge and learning to recognise and understand the culture in terms of heroes, rituals and symbols.

Hofstede (2001) goes on to suggest that courses on intercultural competences can be either culture-specific, and could take the form of expatriate briefings; books, videos etc. now exist which can help this enormously. Courses could also be culture-general, where the training might also reveal something of the learner's own 'mental software' and would teach them how to work, how to cope and how to get through the culture-shock period. Culture-general training is essential for anyone who will interact with a multitude of foreign culture.

There are several different methods which may be employed in training of expatriates, who will probably [but of course not always] require at least some culture-specific training:

Culture assimilators: critical incidents of cross-cultural interactions and ways of avoiding misunderstandings. Trainees read each critical incident as a mini-case and choose between several alternative courses of action; usually, one alternative relates to the trainee's own culture, another relates to the foreign culture, and other alternatives may be less appropriate. Cultural

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1 A reminder of the Big Five: extraversion-introversion, neuroticism/emotional stability, agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience
assimilators may be used as self-study to some extent. They are most effective at enhancing interpersonal relations rather than improving performance. Recently, theory-based cultural assimilators have been developed, which may well improve this training technique.

**Cultural analysis system:** business problems faced by expatriates are cast in terms of both the home and host cultures. Trainees are coached to identify their own cultural values, contrast those with other cultures and apply this understanding to cross-cultural interaction problems.

**Contrast-American method:** trainees observe behaviours opposite to those found in the trainee's own culture. Again, trainees are coached to identify their own cultural values, contrast those with other cultures and apply this understanding to cross-cultural interaction problems.

**Criteria for Expatriates**

There are many ways of viewing whether or not an expatriate assignment has been successful. These include:

**Expatriate satisfaction and the rate of early returns.** Much research has highlighted the high rate of early returns, especially amongst North Americans who have even higher rates than Europeans. Up to 40% of expatriate US managers fail to complete, and up to 80% of them perform under par, yet only 40% of organizations take a serious interest in the role of the spouse (Sparrow and Hiltrop, 1994). The research largely agrees that a prime reason for early returns is failure to adjust; other important reasons include non-work adjustment, perceived low procedural fairness.

**Expatriate adaptation and adjustment.** Adaptation is a construct which includes adjustment as a dimension but also includes identification with hosts, cultural competence and role acculturation. So adaptation is the result of the acculturation process, and signifies changes in the expatriate in response to environmental demands. The process of adaptation can result in reaction, adjustment or withdrawal. General adjustment is correlated most highly with spouse general adjustment, moderately with interpersonal skills, general self-efficacy, social efficacy, role discretion, frequency of interaction with host country nationals and spouse interaction adjustment. Work adjustment is most closely related to general self-efficacy, role discretion, role ambiguity and role conflict, followed by frequency of interaction with host country nationals, home headquarters and family adjustment.

**Expatriate job performance.** This needs to be differentiated from adjustment and adaptation. Hough and Dunnette (1992) identify 11 critical incidents of expatriate behaviours, of which the following can be described as determinants of job performance\(^2\) rather than job dimensions:

- spouse and family support
- knowledge of foreign language
- adjustment to living abroad
- organizational support

**General Issues**

Non-work considerations focus primarily on the role of spouse and family, and these have been extensively researched by Tung (e.g. 1988) and Adler (1992), especially in terms of social support. Issues include the capability of the in-country family to provide general emotional and psychological support, which is a function of the family's own adjustment and which directly affects self-efficacy and expatriate job performance.

Mendenhall and Oddou (1985) suggest that, within the cross-cultural framework, the major determinants of successful adjustment are:

* Being able to replace sources of pleasure and happiness in the home culture with acceptable substitutes in the host country
* Developing specific strategies for coping with the stress produced by the new situation
* Developing high self-efficacy regarding one's technical competence as exhibited in the host country position
* Developing genuine friendships with host country nationals
* Being willing and able to communicate widely with host nationals, not just a very few people within the immediate work group
* Having an accurate understanding of the rules, customs, behavioural dispositions and causal attributions that are characteristic of host country nationals
* Having a capacity to be tolerant of cultural differences with which the expatriate may fundamentally disagree

The role of women in expatriate management remains low and traditionally three reasons have been put forth to account for this: women's lack of interest in international careers; organizations refusal to send women abroad for fear of poor performance and the fact that foreign cultures are perceived to discriminate against women. All three of these reasons have been closely examined and have been found to be untrue.

\(^2\) The remainder e.g. communication and persuasion, technical competence are actual dimensions of performance itself
Indigenous Psychologies

This section addresses in brief those aspects of various cultures that are particular or unique to them, often where there is no direct equivalent elsewhere. These concepts are usually indigenous and traditional, derived from community and ordinary living rather than specifically related to business or management. Sometimes, the areas of emphasis are very different to conventional US/UK psychology, and have not often been incorporated into the study of psychology or management in the UK or USA from where most of the literature in these subjects derive. Yet all have the potential to have major implications for management. A selection of these is listed below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Areas of differential emphasis in psychological literature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>Emphasis on affiliative obedience, machismo, consent, family status quo, respect, family honour, cultural rigidity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Puerto Rico</td>
<td>Emphasis on respect, family and hierarchy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>'Sympatia'- development of community action projects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
<td><em>Cognitive tolerance</em>'- maintenance of attitudes or behaviour that are logically inconsistent, social approval, 'not on seat', stronger emphasis on social skills in general within concept of intelligence. 'Intrusive' western management methods often seen as inappropriate. Loyalty codes often although not exclusively linked to tribal allegiances. Social approval responding as a sign of courtesy and respect.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malawi and South Africa</td>
<td>&quot;Indaba&quot;, which is a decision-making cabinet of experienced and respected individuals or elders.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>Hindus- stress not only due to negative affective states. Detachment rather than active coping to obtain stress reduction; therefore if work conscientiously, stress unrelated to success or failure. Acceptability of ingratiating techniques as ways to advance individual goals while operating within a hierarchical collective context.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>&quot;amae&quot; - reliance and dependence upon the indulgent love of an older person -usually on as key characteristic of social relationships. Concept of harmony (rather than consensus). &quot;kanban&quot;- concept of whole transcending the sum of the parts; also &quot;prajna&quot;, an intuition of the whole as a source of &quot;vijnana&quot;, reason. Also respect for seniority/age and for the &quot;teacher&quot; with wisdom. &quot;Keretsu&quot; form of economic grouping of companies in a &quot;kaisha&quot; or community which is served in preference to, for example, shareholders. &quot;Sempai-kohal&quot; and &quot;naniwabushi&quot; reflect the strong emotional obligations placed on Japanese leaders by their subordinates. Long term orientation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China and Taiwan</td>
<td>Confucian values- filial piety, industriousness, giving and protecting face (a form of social ego), favouring of socially orientated achievement, &quot;guanxi&quot; (a form of developed relationships and networks), exchange of personal favours [&quot;ren ching&quot;]. Long term orientation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>&quot;We&quot; implies plural but includes a unity when used. 'Cheong' as human affection- people living in close proximity values of unconditionality, sacrifice and empathy. Long term orientation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Islamic countries</td>
<td>Relationships focused on 'brothers', forming the basis of the extended family communities, &quot;khamula&quot; and the community at large &quot;umma&quot;. Threat of expulsion real although extreme.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western Europe in general</td>
<td>Cultural diversity within western Europe is as great as rest of world: Spain- &quot;perverse norms&quot; agreed as ethically desirable but deviance from them not punished. In France and Germany education systems reflect meritocracy in the former and adherence to formality in the latter. In France, management still more male dominated than in UK or USA. Influence of French psychologist Moscovici and theory of social representation whereby we learn that everyday events are understood in certain ways within our own culture; attitude is the property of an individual whereas social representations are collectively created and maintained.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>The Dutch see themselves as egalitarian, direct and critical, pragmatic and money-minded, strong on procedures yet permissive, tolerant and indifferent, international in outlook.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK, USA, Ireland and Australia</td>
<td>'classical' emphasis on individual achievement and reward based on individual merit, intrinsic job satisfaction, formal written contracts, recent trend towards reduced hierarchical structures, [Protestant] work ethic. In UK and Europe- relatively high state intervention vs. low in USA.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Pakikisama - going along with the majority, 'kapwa' - fellow beings and 'bahala-na' - stoical resignation. 'Intrusive' western research methods seen as inappropriate; prefer community group discussion as primary research method.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>Deviant views not accepted for several decades; founding fathers Vygotsky [subjective experience and individual behaviour as part of social relations and events experienced and internalised to form boundaries of personal friendships] and Pavlov [conditioned behaviour] dictated psychology.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Theory X, Theory Y and Theory Z

Theory X and Theory Y began with a book in 1951 by Douglas McGregor- 'The Human side of Enterprise'. This theory really combined early influences of FW Taylor [Scientific Management as a motivational principle] with the increasingly popular view of participation and involvement. Theory X stated that people were inherently lazy, would opt for the easiest path, did not desire responsibility, only worked for the money, were not interested in organizational goals. This, said McGregor, was typical in many organizations and was neither effective, nor good management. Theory Y, on the other hand, stated that people wanted to work, were responsive, willing to take responsibility, etc. and that this style was both effective and good management. He argued that participative management styles were appropriate to Theory Y and in the book set out how organizations could become more participative.

Improved communications and more open management were the cornerstones of Theory Y and examples of efficient organizations and their open, participative styles were, and still can be, cited. This very simple approach, which seems so obvious now, was quite revolutionary in the 1950's, because this was the era of the assembly line, where work was simplified and reduced so that it could be done more repetitively, with lower unit costs and higher levels of output. Having said that, there is still a large number of organizations operating with assembly lines.

Where the theory refers to identification with organizational goals, it has long been accepted that these were within the Western understanding, i.e. efficiency, profit maximisation. If we redefine organizational goals to include the provision of socially desirable benefits, or as increasingly becoming the wish amongst some in the West, to include some commitment to the environment in a 'green' way, this does not negate the theory. New organizational goals simply means that the goal orientation that is important in this theory becomes one where profits and efficiency are secondary rather than primary.

Many early writers considered the assembly line to be productive and simple. However, some social scientists [e.g. Joanne Woodward] saw that people would not maintain high output levels of mindless repetitive work indefinitely and that alienation from work was a very serious issue with important consequences. By the 1950s, many large manufacturing companies had committed huge amounts of financial investment to assembly lines [e.g. the motor industry, food processing]. So the dilemma of work simplification versus job enrichment was born, although not all writers at the time realised the magnitude of this debate [including McGregor!]

Since Theory X and Theory Y, many other theories of motivation have been put forward, but always from the perspective of the "white western middle classes ". Examples of these are Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory (1956), Vroom's expectancy and valence theory (1964), Porter and Lawler's expectancy theory (1968, derived from Vroom), Adam's equity theory (1963 and Jacques, 1968) Locke's path-goal theory (1981), McClelland and Atkinson's (1953) theory of achievement motivation [cf. Jung and Adler]. All of these theories encounter problems when attempts to apply them in other cultures are made. Value systems in groups and organizations in America would include job design/job simplification/alienation/QWL, views of freedom and autonomy for workers, different interpretations of law in terms of individual rights, different attitudes to trades unions, "managers' rights to manage", an emphasis upon private enterprise, individualistic culture, emphasis upon high achievement motivation and internal locus of control and less dependence on the State. There were Inter-European Differences in employee involvement- e.g. workers' councils in all with varying rules about formation/operation, cultural differences in private and public organizations and work attitudes.

'Theory Z' (Ouchi, 1981) was intended as a way to apply Japanese principles to American business and is based on commitment, trust, incentives of long-term employment, good working relationships (teamwork), quality and pride. It includes positive attitudes to seniority, different business values, a group decision-making system of "ringi", team meetings every week using quality circle principles and TQM, 'flexible manufacturing which included multi-skilling and JIT techniques,

Japanese behaviour in the workplace and in everyday life is different to what we are used to in Europe or America. For example, the Ohio leadership styles of 'consideration' and 'initiating structure' (cf. other names) are differently interpreted in Japan into 'performance' and 'maintenance'. The Japanese tend to spend longer time periods on single tasks and have a much greater emphasis on long-term planning [see Hofstede]; these are also much more integrated into training and development which is considered an investment in human potential [contrast UK businesses which reduce training budgets to save money]. Japanese employees are much more expected to take responsibility for and to initiate self-development in non-work hours. Japanese concepts underpinning all types of behaviour include wa- the notion of harmony and cooperation. 'Gakureki shakai'- the social system which attaches importance to educational background. There are also the "sacred treasures": life-time employment, seniority, enterprise unions- 'i.e.' means family as basic concept of employer

Wa" and "gakureki shakai" can be argued to work against creativity and innovative behaviour, by suppressing individual achievement and for example encouraging students to choose the university rather than a subject to study. Japanese education worked to bring all students up to certain levels in all subjects, therefore concentrated on getting people up to standard in areas of deficiency rather than the US approach of emphasising and developing the best points.
Japanese Issues in HRM: Employee training and development

Enterprise Groups
There are six main enterprise groups [zaibatsu], each comprising of organizations from each of several sectors. In 1995, these looked as in table 1 (examples only)

Table 1: examples of organizations within the six main zaibatsu

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Mitsubishi</th>
<th>Mitsui</th>
<th>Sumitomo</th>
<th>Fuji</th>
<th>Sanwa</th>
<th>Ichikan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bank</td>
<td>Mitsubishi</td>
<td>Sakura</td>
<td>Sumitomo</td>
<td>Fuji</td>
<td>Sanwa</td>
<td>Ichikan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>other finance</td>
<td>Mejia life Ins</td>
<td>Mitsui Life</td>
<td>Sumitomo Life</td>
<td>Yasuda</td>
<td>Toyo Trust</td>
<td>Asahi Life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cars/ships</td>
<td>Mitsubishi</td>
<td>Toyota</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>Nissan</td>
<td>Hitachi</td>
<td>Kawasaki</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steel</td>
<td>Mitsubishi</td>
<td>Nippon</td>
<td>Sumitomo</td>
<td>NKK</td>
<td>Kobe</td>
<td>Kawasaki</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electronics</td>
<td>Mitsubishi</td>
<td>Toshiba</td>
<td>NEC</td>
<td>HITACHI OKI</td>
<td>HITACHI SHARP</td>
<td>HITACHI FUJITSU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Machines</td>
<td>Nikkon</td>
<td>Mitsui</td>
<td>Nihon</td>
<td>Canon NSK</td>
<td>NTN Hoya</td>
<td>Asahi (Pentax)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food</td>
<td>Kirin beer</td>
<td>Nihon Milling</td>
<td>Asahi beer</td>
<td>Sapporo beer</td>
<td>Suntory</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estate agent</td>
<td>Mitsubishi</td>
<td>Mitsui</td>
<td>Sumitomo</td>
<td>Tokyo Tatemon</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Atsuyuki Suzuta, Financial Industry, courtesy Hironobu Kaneda 1993

In these zaibatsu (keretsu), members enjoy some mutual benefits and organizations can help each other when there is a problem, but the keretsu are more than this- they constitute a 'community'- a form of communitarianism (see A. Etzioni for expansion of this), and these in a way reflect the preference for the group rather than the individual. Each organization within this family is also like a family, implying as it does a form of paternalistic support being provided by the managers, indeed this is an obligation for them to do this.

Some reasons for the problems of the Japanese economy
Bad credits in financial institutions.
Free interest levels replacing government-controlled interest levels [over-regulated rates of return].
Loss of confidence in the future by Japanese consumers and investors, leading to reduced spending and thus reduced incomes and employment.
Lack of flexibility and responsiveness [over regulation and excessive reliance on habit and tradition] in both product and factor markets for labour, land, capital and management leading to ossification of the economy and inability to adapt to changing circumstances.

Japanese Management training using on-the-job methods
Watanabe of the Japanese Efficiency Association has identified the following as the five main 'talents' needed in the 21st century:

creativity important for both managers and employees
logic needed to help Japanese intentions to be understood by other cultures
sensitivity and flexibility to be able to respond quickly to changes and future situations
independence not wanting to be too reliant on one organization
confidence really referring to trust and keeping promises

Japanese see training and development as planned experience. Trainees need to be provided with the right sequence and type of experience, and must learn and understand from their experience. "Not studying but imitation is needed to master your work". Confucian basis, that employees will watch and observe their superior, and the superior will only offer advice if asked the way by the employee. This is all entwined with respect for seniority. It is not expected that managers provide precise instructions for what employees should do, but instead should issue more diffuse goals for the employee to achieve and be motivated towards. Quality is related to the wholeness of the product or process, rather than being focused on separate parts of it.

This emphasis on learning by observing and asking leads towards training and development within the company rather than outside it. Much therefore depends on the employee's individual motivation to observe, learn and ask.. It is much less likely that skills will be imported from outside when they could be 'grown' from within the company.

Three main types of training and development in Japan:
on the job training  - learning the job by doing or observing it, being helped by the superior. Is premeditated and planned, by setting goals regularly for the trainee, over the long term rather than short term. Always with company 'mission' at heart. Is clearly a personalised means of training, but is dependent on the knowledge, skills and attitudes of the superior.

off-the job training  - First, there is training conducted by the organization in short bursts of 1 to 6 days, to train and develop skills and knowledge. His sort of training will be conducted with groups of employees at the same level. Second, there will be some training to inculcate new knowledge about other organizations or cultures, and example here would be MBA training. The obvious disadvantage is that employees are away from their workplace.

self-enlightenment  - It is expected at the management trainee levels and for those working in highly skilled areas that a significant amount of private study is undertaken in addition to the long hours at the workplace. This concerns each individual diagnosing their own training and development needs, and then setting up their own personal schedules to achieve this. This may be done by distance learning, correspondence courses, etc. The trainee will also be expected to show how what they have learned may be used in the organization, in other words not just acquire the skills and knowledge but use them too. This training, along with long work hours, can curtail the socialising [beer, karaoke and golf] that may be necessary to progress.

Some additional issues
For Japanese, working time and 'life time' are closely intertwined. "Tall trees catch more wind"- if you get to be too superior, you may find that you are obstructed.

International HRM: Cross-cultural approaches to staffing and selection
Culture influences the process of R & S in many ways, such as attitudes towards selection and testing, the purposes that staffing serves, and the perceived fairness and appropriateness of criteria and methods that are used in the process.

In terms of attitudes to selection, in North America, selection is a one way process whereby applicants are tested by employers to predict their future work behaviour. In Europe, selection involves much more of a mutual agreement and negotiation between the organization and applicant. In some European countries, such as Italy, France, Sweden and Portugal, the very issue of testing has a negative connotation because it is perceived as an invasion of privacy, violating the individual's rights to control their own careers and creating a barrier to the holistic representation of oneself.

The main purpose of R & S also varies across cultures: strategic HR planning is geared to recruiting the right number of people with the best qualifications to do the job in North America, whereas the view is much more long term and orientated towards societal as well as economic needs in Pacific and Southeast Asia.

The criteria for selection vary from the emphasis on education, experience, cognitive skills and personality in the US, whereas for example in Latin America, positive attitudes towards family life are the most frequently used selection criteria. Few studies show the importance of interpersonal criteria: in Japan, team members favourable opinions are taken into account and in many Islamic Arab countries, agreeableness, trustworthiness and good interpersonal relations are important criteria; in India and some African countries, being in the same "in-group" as the manager [family, homeland, tribe] are important, as are guanxi and reciprocity in China. Where membership of an "in-group" is important and are considered to lead to more harmonious and efficient working, it is often likely that the recruitment channels may be different, such as word-of-mouth, whereas in North America and Europe where there is no such emphasis such methods would lead to the accusation of unequal opportunities.

The bulk of studies comparing different countries' selection methods are largely restricted to North America and Northwest Europe; biodata is least common, needing as it does to be specially constructed for each organization, although to some extent banks of possible items can be obtained. The interview is one of the most common methods of selection (Robertson and Smith, 2001), and references, despite their low validity generally as a method are used in the majority of countries for different reasons and in varying weights- as a final check in the US, UK and Australia but with much more reliance in Southeastern Europe and India.

Equal opportunities, particularly in relation to the workforce integration of women and the disabled also include cross-cultural variations. For example, it is much harder for women managers to progress in Japan and France, than , say, in the UK and US, although there is ample evidence of unfairness everywhere: a UN report in 1995 identified that discrimination against women is all round the world, mainly due to women's constraints by their family-related responsibilities (Davidson and Cooper, 1992). Three main issues are relevant here: juggling work and family responsibilities; attitudes towards women and work; lack of support from their families and the organizations in which they work (Aycan and Kanungo, 2001).

Aycan and Kanungo (2001) propose that the following cross-cultural variables are particularly relevant to selection and assessment: individualism-collectivism, universalism-particularism [personal/business relationships], specific-diffuse relationships [eg work/non-work distinction] and achievement orientation.

References- International HRM
References: cross-cultural psychology, expatriate workers and Japanese management techniques


