

Rory Burke AND Steve Barron

PROJECT MANAGEMENT LEADERSHIP



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BUILDING CREATIVE TEAMS

Second Edition

**Rory Burke
Steve Barron**

WILEY

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Foreword

Project management and project leadership are two sides of the same coin. They are inter-linked, and need to be if a project is to be delivered on time, to budget and of the desired quality. Many project managers pay too much attention to managing and spend too little time leading. As with everything in life, finding the right balance is key.

The right balance between managing and leading comes with experience, and often a painful experience due to lack of awareness or desire to find the right balance. For sure, both are necessary, but alone each is not sufficient. To be clear I am not speaking about management and leadership; these are roles with specific activities. Such roles are occupied by people who seek to be seen as project managers or project leaders respectively. This attribution by others gives emphasis to followers, and the importance of how others perceive their behaviors and identities. Warren Bennis (*On Becoming a Leader* (1989:2) Perseus Books, Cambridge, MA) usefully captured this attribution process thus: 'leadership, like beauty, is hard to define but you know it when you see it'. To be seen as a 'beautiful' project leader or project manager requires that the individual pay attention to leading and managing. How the leading, or managing, is done shapes the attribution of how beautiful someone is seen to be. But here's the thing . . . both managing and leading are processes, and such processes are learnt. Everyone has the potential to become better at leading and managing. As such, the born versus made debate is simply irrelevant. We are what we are and we can all be better. To be better requires us to think and learn about becoming better and applying such learning to test and develop such processes.

To help us further we need to clarify the difference between managing and leading. In a simple way, managing could be considered as the process of '**sense-making**': understanding the situation and appreciating the necessity of organizing resources to achieve objectives. Leading is more oriented toward '**sense-giving**': helping people to understand objectives, inspiring them to achieve a higher performance through commitment to a vision and guiding them along the journey to overcoming obstacles.

It should be clear that one without the other will simply not get the desired results. This book has been written with this balance clearly in mind. It is a clear and straightforward structure, which will help guide the reader toward becoming better at both project management and project leadership. The number of useful texts that try to achieve this much-needed balance, and pay clear attention to the process perspectives of project management and project leadership, are too few.

Dr Steve Kempster
Professorial Director of Leadership Development
Director of the Lancaster Leadership Centre
Lancaster University Management School

Authors' Notes

Rory Burke



Project Management Leadership focuses on key project management leadership principles and theories, and explains how they are used in the project environment. This book has been updated to enable the project management leader to lead the project team, and the project participants to achieve the project objectives, as outlined in the project charter and business case.

Project success is usually expressed as having completed the project deliverables on time, within budget and to the required quality, but, from a leadership perspective, project success might be expressed as having motivated and inspired the project team members into giving their best performance toward completing the project objectives. It is, therefore, essential that project managers understand the features and characteristics of project leadership techniques so that they can manage the process effectively.

There have been two major changes to the project environment in recent years, which have motivated significant changes in the project manager's leadership style, namely: the introduction of project teams working within a matrix-type project organization structure; and a general increase in the workforce's level of education, ability and expectations.

These organizational changes mean that project managers might not have full line authority over the resources they need to carry out the work. Project managers must, therefore, develop negotiation and networking skills to enable them to obtain labor and equipment from the resource providers.

The other factor motivating a change in leadership style is the improved ability of the workforce, which is now better educated, more experienced, more competent and more articulate. This improved competency has led to higher expectations and increasing demands, the workforce having a greater say in their working environment, and being more prepared to question their project management leader's instructions.

These two factors alone have encouraged a dramatic shift from the command and control leadership style of yester-year to a more participative and collaborative approach.

Project Management Leadership has been written to support courses and modules in project management and project leadership. The text is structured in line with the PMBOK and APM BoK, and includes plenty of examples and exercises, together with PowerPoint presentation slides for lecturers.

Writing this book has been a joint effort with my co-author Steve Barron. Steve has done an amazing job writing his chapters while holding down a full-time job at Lancaster University. A special thank you goes to Sandra Burke and Jan Hamon for proofreading the text.

Rory Burke

Steve Barron



In the years that have elapsed since the first edition of *Project Management Leadership*, the need for an effective understanding of leadership within project contexts seems to have increased. There is even more talk about leadership having an important role for project managers, who are recognizing the need to develop leadership skills. Indeed, the nature of projects as transient, unique and requiring change-related activities, demands a high level of leadership practice.

It has been wonderful to receive such positive feedback from the first edition. It seems to provide a useful resource for teachers who want a single source for leadership-related ideas and methods. For many students it accomplishes the same purpose, though it is also presented as an accessible introductory text that can lead to more advanced material where necessary.

In the first half of my career I worked in industry and was privileged to work with inspirational leaders such as Dr Carl Loller, Peter Beckett and Steve Wilkinson, and I want to thank them here

for their support and guidance; it is still very much appreciated. I was able to learn from them (and others) about leadership and adapt their style and behaviors into my own leadership style. I hope this book provides a good starting point for those embarking on this journey.

Often, when I am in a difficult situation, I think about what one of those inspirational people would do or say at this point. This always helps me to see the situation in a different way and gives me a new approach. It is wonderful to hear their voices in my head as I imagine how they would deal with my difficult situation. I continue to thank Stephen Doughty, Martin Wells and Steve Kempster for providing some of those enduring voices.

Also, I need to thank Rory and Sandra Burke, my co-conspirators in this renewed endeavor. I have been delighted to work with them again and have learnt so much from both of them. Once again, I must thank Rory for his expertise, persistence and patience while we have revisited the content of this book from opposite sides of the globe.

Finally, as a teacher, I note that much of my continual learning comes from students of project management with whom I have had the honor and privilege of working over the last fifteen years at Lancaster. I wish you all well in your future careers.

Therefore, I want to dedicate this edition to past, present and future students of project management who recognize the need for leadership skills within this challenging and rewarding vocation.

Steve Barron
Lancaster, August 2013

Introduction to Project Management Leadership

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter you should be able to:

- Recognize the portfolio of skills a project manager needs to complete projects successfully.
- Understand the leadership content of the project management body of knowledge.

Project management leadership is one of the special project management techniques that enable the project manager to lead and manage the project team, project stakeholders and other project participants. Project management leadership is a process by which a project manager can direct, guide and influence the behavior and work of the project team towards accomplishing the project objectives. It is, therefore, essential that the project manager understands the characteristics and features of project management leadership to be able to apply the process effectively.

This chapter will introduce the project environment, and the relationship between project management leadership and the other project management disciplines and techniques. It will indicate how the project lifecycle can be used to show where project leadership and its associated

techniques can be used effectively as the project progresses along the lifecycle. This chapter will also introduce key bodies of knowledge and identify the knowledge areas relating to project management leadership and project teamwork.

The project manager's challenge is to strike a balance between the appropriate type of leadership skills and styles, and the level of project management systems – both are required for project success.

How to Use This Book

This book will subdivide **Project Management Leadership** into a number of sections for ease of presentation and understanding.

The first part introduces the leadership skills and styles that form the backbone of project leadership:

- Project governance and ethics.
- Project leadership BoK.
- Project organization structures.
- Leadership behavior.
- Leadership styles.
- Power to influence.
- Resistance to change.
- Emotional intelligence.
- Leadership vs. management.
- Working with stakeholders.

The second part introduces project teams and shows how to select, build and lead a project team:

- Project teams.
- Teams vs. groups.
- Team roles.
- Team development phases.
- Team-building techniques.
- Coaching and mentoring.

The third part groups a number of key related topics that underpin the project leader's competence:

- Negotiation skills.
- Motivation.

- Delegation.
- Communication.
- Conflict resolution.
- Problem solving.
- Decision making.
- Facilitation for project leaders.
- Knowledge management.

1. History of Project Management

The history of modern-day project management leadership can be dated back to the 1950s when a number of companies started appointing one person to manage their projects (see Table 1.1). This particularly applied to multi-disciplined projects in remote locations.

Table 1.1: History of Project Management – shows the emphasis is now on project management leadership

1950s	In the 50s the project management leader's position was established as the <i>single point of responsibility</i> with autonomous authority over a pool of resources. This change enabled complex projects in remote locations to be led and managed by a person on the ground.
1960s	In the 60s nearly all of the special planning, control techniques and project management processes we use today were developed on military and aerospace projects. This included PERT, CPM, matrix organization structures, scope management, configuration management and earned value. The matrix organization structure was found to be particularly suited to managing multi-disciplined projects.
1970s	In the 70s the emphasis of the project lifecycle progressively moved from the implementation phase (where most of the resources were used) to the front-end design and development phase, which had the greatest potential for adding value and the least amount of cost for making changes.
1980s	In the 80s the development of the PC and project management software revolutionized planning and control calculations. Because a common database was used, it forced functional departments to share information. This sharing of information was one of the most significant changes because it integrated the departments and moved the planning and control of information into the project office.
1990s	In the 90s large companies started to adopt a management-by-projects approach through a Project Management Office (PMO). This enabled the PMO to act as a center of excellence for project management leadership.
2000s	With each passing decade the emphasis and focus on project management leadership has been influenced by the project environment (facilities, types of projects and education). The focus is on understanding how people are involved in projects and how issues such as uncertainty and ambiguity make projects into complex situations. As a result, there is a growing need for project management leadership skills – hence the purpose of this book is to introduce the latest project leadership tools and techniques used to manage successful projects.

2. Project Manager's Portfolio of Skills

Projects are not performed in a vacuum; they are influenced by a wide range of internal and external factors, constraints and stakeholders. The project management leader will need to consider the wider aspects of the project environment to fully appreciate what topics are included and how they are inter-related, and, just as importantly, what topics are excluded and why. Managing projects requires a diverse range of skills and abilities; consider the following breakdown and refer to Table 1.2.

Technical Management Skills: The project management leader's technical management skills include the technical skills and product knowledge required to design and manufacture the product or project. Every profession has its own unique range of subject-related technical skills and competencies, which are required to perform the work.

Table 1.2: Project Management Leader's Portfolio of Skills – shows the project management leader's portfolio of skills subdivided into technical management, project entrepreneurship, project management and project leadership

Project Management Leadership			
Technical Management	Project Entrepreneurship	Project Management	Project Leadership
The project manager needs technical skills , together with product knowledge, to design and make the project or product. The focus is on solving technical problems, design solutions and design configuration arrangements.	The project manager needs entrepreneurial skills to spot and exploit marketable opportunities, to find innovative solutions to company problems, together with networking skills, to communicate with a wide range of useful contacts and stakeholders.	The project manager needs project management skills to set up the project management system, which will help plan and control the project throughout the project's lifecycle. The focus is on achieving the objectives outlined in the project charter.	The project manager needs project leadership skills to influence and lead the project participants, together with a vision, strategy and determination to drive the project. The focus is on facilitation, negotiation, influencing, networking and communication.
Technical skills Competency Product knowledge	Spot opportunities Solve problems Networking	Project charter Scope management Planning and control system	Vision Values Strategy

Technical management skills are responsible for the functioning of a project and, therefore, are a key part of configuration management and scope management, which includes the project feasibility study, build method and scope changes.

On smaller projects the project management leader might be expected to be the technical expert as well as the manager and leader of the project. In fact, early on in a person's career they probably will not be appointed as project manager unless they are a technical expert in the field of the project. But as projects increase in size, so will the size of the project team and project organization structure. In which case, the project management leader will become progressively less involved in technical issues and more involved in managing and leading the project team and project participants.

Project Entrepreneurship Skills: It is important to include the project management leader's project entrepreneurship skills of spotting opportunities, inventing new products, solving challenging problems, making decisions and accepting the associated risks, because these are the **triggers** that exploit opportunities and initiate new ventures and new projects. One could argue that without entrepreneurial skills the status quo would rule and there would be no new projects!

The project management leader can also benefit from entrepreneurial skills during the execution of the project because, as the project moves forward, there will be better information on the latest technology, better information on the market conditions and, most importantly, the latest information on the competition's products and pricing strategy. With entrepreneurial skills the project management leader will be able to incorporate the latest technology into the project's configuration, tailor the project to appeal to the target market and enhance the project to maintain the company's competitive advantage.

Project Management Skills: The project management leader's project management skills are required to set up and run a project management system, which will help plan and control the project. The project management system is the backbone of the planning and control process, which might need to be tailored to meet the needs of the project sponsor, the needs of the project and the needs of the stakeholders (particularly the project team, contractors and suppliers).

As projects grow in size, so the information and communication flows will grow exponentially. The project, therefore, needs an integrated system to issue instructions, monitor progress, process progress data, forecast and report performance. Without an effective system the information overload will lead to chaos.

The project manager will also benefit from conceptual skills and the ability to think analytically, break down problems into smaller parts (WBS), recognize the logical relationships between activities (CPM) and the implications between any one problem and another (interfaces), deal with ambiguous situations (risks) and change management skills.

Project Leadership Skills: The project management leader's project leadership skills are the driving force behind the project, where the project leader is enthusiastically communicating the vision, outlining the strategy and empowering and inspiring the project participants. As the single point of responsibility, the project leader is responsible for coordinating the input from all stakeholders and addressing their needs and expectations. The sources of the following definitions are explained in the next section.

PMBOK (PMI) defines **Leadership** as: *Developing a vision and strategy, and motivating people towards achieving that vision and strategy.*

The APM BoK defines **Leadership** as: *The ability to establish vision and direction, to influence and align others towards a common purpose, and to empower and inspire people towards achieving project success. It enables the project to proceed in an environment of change and uncertainty.*

If the project is using a matrix-type organization structure, the project leader might not have formal authority over the resources required to complete the project. In this situation, the project leader needs to develop influencing and negotiation skills to secure the best deals with the resource providers.

It is the project leader who needs to ensure that the project has the **RIGHT** people to do the job, that everyone **CAN** do their job, and then ensure that everyone **IS** doing their job. To achieve these leadership objectives the project leader will need a range of leadership skills: team selection, team building, training, coaching, mentoring, delegation, motivation and performance monitoring and evaluation.

The project leadership skills, in some respects, form a catch-all situation, where the project leader is responsible for ensuring all of the management skills work together (technical, entrepreneurial and managerial).

3. Project Management Body of Knowledge

As the discipline of project management has grown and become established, so a number of institutions and associations have been formed to represent the project management practitioners, with respect to education, professional accreditation, ethics and maintaining a body of knowledge.

The purpose of having a body of knowledge is to identify and describe best practices that are applicable to most projects most of the time, for which there is widespread consensus regarding their value and usefulness. This body of knowledge is also intended to provide a common lexicon and terminology within the profession of project management – nationally and internationally. As a developing international profession there is still a need to converge on a common set of terms.

There are a number of institutions, associations and government bodies that have produced, for example, a body of knowledge, unit standards and/or competency standards. The two that will be referred to in this book are the:

- Project Management Institute (PMI).
- Association for Project Management (APM).

The PMBOK (PMI) defines a **body of knowledge** as: *An inclusive term that describes the sum of knowledge within the profession . . . and rests with the practitioners and academics that apply and advance it.*

The PMI Project Management Body of Knowledge (PMBOK) is one of the cornerstones of project management, so it is important to look at this body of knowledge in order to investigate the knowledge areas included within project management. The PMBOK (PMI) subdivides project management into ten knowledge areas (see Table 1.3).

Table 1.3: (PMI) PMBOK Knowledge Areas – shows the body of knowledge subdivided into ten knowledge areas

Project Scope Management	Project scope management includes the processes required to ensure that the project includes all of the work, and only the work, needed to complete the project successfully. It is primarily concerned with defining and controlling what is and what is not included in the project, thus meeting the project sponsors' and project stakeholders' goals and objectives. It consists of authorization, scope planning, scope definition, scope change management and scope verification.
Project Time Management	Project time management includes the process required to ensure timely performance of the project. It consists of activity definition, activity sequencing, duration estimating, establishing the calendar, schedule development and time control.

Table 1.3 (Continued)

Project Cost Management	Project cost management includes the process required to ensure that the project is completed within the approved budget. It consists of resource planning, cost estimating, cost budgeting, cash flow and cost control.
Project Quality Management	Project quality management includes the process required to ensure that the project will satisfy the needs for which it was undertaken. It consists of determining the required condition, quality planning, quality assurance, quality control and continuous improvement.
Human Resource Management	Human resource management includes the process required to make the most effective use of the people involved with the project. It consists of organization planning, staff acquisition and team development.
Project Communications Management	Project communications management includes the process required to ensure proper collection and dissemination of project information. It consists of communication planning, information distribution, project meetings, progress reporting, document control and administrative closure.
Project Risk Management	Project risk management includes the process concerned with identifying, analyzing and responding to project risk. It consists of risk identification, risk quantification and impact, response development and risk control.
Project Procurement Management	Project procurement management includes the process required to acquire goods and services from outside the performing project team or organization. It consists of procurement planning, solicitation planning, solicitation, source selection, contract administration and contract closeout.
Project Integration Management	Project integration management integrates the three main project management processes of planning, execution and control, where inputs from several knowledge areas are brought together.
Project Stakeholder Management	Project stakeholder management includes the processes and activities that enable the project manager to ensure that the needs and expectations of the project stakeholders and interested parties are being addressed.

The (PMI) PMBOK does not include a special knowledge area for ‘project leadership’ but, of its ten knowledge areas, there are three knowledge areas that focus on the human factors of project management, namely: *human resource management*, *project communication management* and *project stakeholder management*.

3.1 Human Resource Management

The (PMI) PMBOK defines project **Human Resource Management** as: *The process required to make the most effective use of the people involved with the project. It consists of organization planning, staff acquisition and team development.*

Table 1.4: The Four Knowledge Areas Involved in Human Resource Management

Knowledge Area	Topics	Topic Covered in these Chapters
Plan Human Resource Management	Identifying and documenting project roles, responsibilities and reporting relationships, as well as creating the staffing management plan.	4 – Project Organization Structures 12 – Project Teams
Acquire Project Team	Obtaining the human resources needed to complete the project.	14 – Team Roles
Develop Project Team	Improving the competencies and interaction of team members to enhance project performance.	15 – Team Development Phases 16 – Team Building Techniques
Manage Project Team	Tracking team member performance, providing feedback, resolving issues and coordinating changes to enhance project performance.	12 – Project Teams 22 – Conflict Resolution

Human resource management is divided into four sections (see Table 1.4). The right-hand column of the table indicates the chapters where these topics are discussed.

The human resource management knowledge area focuses on the roles, responsibilities and reporting structures within the project organization structure and the project team. It also includes creating the project team, designing the team, team roles and recruitment. The next area focuses on team development, which will be discussed in this book as forming, storming, norming and performing, together with team-building techniques (indoor and outdoor). The last section on managing and leading the team focuses on resistance to change and conflict resolution.

3.2 Project Communication Management

Project communication and networking skills are the life blood of project management leadership and therefore a key knowledge area.

The (PMI) PMBOK defines **Project Communication Management** as: *The process required to ensure proper collection and dissemination of project information. It consists of communication planning, information distribution, project meetings, progress reporting and administrative closure.*

The (PMI) PMBOK subdivides project communication management into three sections (see Table 1.5). The right-hand column of the table indicates the chapters where these topics are discussed.

Table 1.5: The Three Knowledge Areas Involved in Project Communication Management

Knowledge Area	Topics	Topic Covered in these Chapters
Plan Communications Management	Determining the information and communication needs of the project stakeholders.	11 – Working with Stakeholders
Manage Communications	Making necessary information available to project stakeholders in a timely manner.	21 – Communication
Control Communications	Collecting and distributing performance information. This includes status reports, progress measurements and forecasting.	21 – Communication

The communication knowledge area focuses on developing the project's lines of communication and content (who, what and when). It then considers how to communicate the information (document control). The next area discusses methods of reporting project progress and forecasting. The last area focuses on keeping the stakeholders informed and resolving any conflicting issues.

3.3 Project Stakeholder Management

For a project to be successful it is critical that the project's stakeholders are identified and their needs and expectations assessed so that a leadership plan can be developed. Project stakeholder management is subdivided into four sections (see Table 1.6).

Table 1.6: The Four Knowledge Areas Involved in Project Stakeholder Management

Knowledge Area	Topics	Topic Covered in these Chapters
Identify Stakeholders	Identify who is impacted by the project and who has an impact on the project.	11 – Working with Stakeholders
Plan Stakeholder Management	Plan how to determine and manage the stakeholders' needs and expectations.	11 – Working with Stakeholders
Manage Stakeholder Engagement	Engage with the stakeholders and encourage them to be involved in the project's decision-making process.	11 – Working with Stakeholders
Control Stakeholder Engagement	Monitor and control the stakeholder engagement.	11 – Working with Stakeholders

This new knowledge area recognizes that stakeholder management is more than just assessing needs and expectations – there must also be an appropriate level of engagement with the stakeholders so that they can be involved in the project activities and the decision-making process.

3.4 APM BoK

The APM BoK 6ed (2012) subdivides project management into four main sections to provide a flexible toolkit from which to select the most appropriate management approach:

- Context
- People
- Delivery
- Interfaces

This book focuses on the **'People'** section, which is ultimately about motivating and coordinating people into achieving the project objectives. To achieve the project objectives, as outlined in the project charter, the project management leader needs various interpersonal skills to be able to interact with other people. These are outlined in the knowledge areas shown in Table 1.7.

Table 1.7: APM BoK 6ed – shows the APM BoK's people knowledge areas

Knowledge Areas	Topics	Topic Covered in these Chapters
Leadership 1	To establish a vision and direction for the project team to follow.	3 – Project Leadership BoK
Leadership 2	To align the project team to a common purpose.	12 – Project Teams
Leadership 3	To empower and inspire the project team to give its best performance.	3 – Project Leadership BoK
Leadership 4	To influence the stakeholders.	11 – Working with Stakeholders
Communication	To establish the lines of communication as the means by which project information and instructions are exchanged.	21 – Communication
Conflict	To identify and address the differences between two parties.	22 – Conflict Resolution
Delegation	To give a person the responsibility to act on behalf of the project manager.	20 – Delegation
Power to Influence	To influence the behavior and actions of others in order to achieve the project objectives.	7 – Power to Influence
Negotiation	To reach a mutual agreement between two parties.	18 – Negotiation
Teamwork	To guide the project team into working in collaboration and cooperation towards a common goal.	16 – Team-Building Techniques 15 – Team Development Phases
Ethics	To establish an ethical framework that sets recognized standards of conduct and behavior.	2 – Project Governance and Ethics

The APM BoK defines interpersonal skills as the means by which people relate to, and interact with, other people. Therefore, project sponsors, project management leaders and team members need to understand how to apply interpersonal skills. They must know the limits of their own ability and ensure that they are constantly reassessing their strengths and weaknesses so that they can strive to achieve their full potential.

The APM BoK encourages a broad understanding of the main leadership styles (certainly the styles covered in this book) together with the simple approach of understanding the differences between transactional leaders and transformational leaders (see Table 1.8).

Table 1.8: Differences between Transactional Leaders and Transformational Leaders

Project Leadership	
Transactional Leaders	Transformational Leaders
<p>Transactional leaders ensure that requirements are agreed upon and that the rewards and penalties for achievement, or lack of it, are understood. Transactional leadership is an exchange process to do with setting objectives and plans: <i>'do this and you will be rewarded thus'</i>.</p> <p>Transactional leaders use the traditional project management approach of motivating the project team members to achieve expected levels of performance by helping them to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recognize task responsibilities. • Identify goals. • Develop confidence in meeting desired performance levels. • Understand how their needs and the rewards they desire are linked to goal achievement. <p>Transactional leaders develop structures that clarify what is required of the team members. These leaders reward team members who follow their instructions. However, when things go wrong the team members are considered to be personally at fault, and are punished for their failure. This approach emphasizes getting things done within the umbrella of the rules and doing everything as per the instructions. As such, this approach is more commonly seen in large, bureaucratic organizations where political considerations are part of daily life.</p>	<p>Transformational leaders do everything possible to help people succeed in their own right and become leaders themselves. They help those people to transform themselves and achieve more than was intended or even thought possible.</p> <p>Transformational leaders are visionary leaders who:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Have a vision for the future which excites and converts potential followers. • Try to convince others of their vision and direction. • Are always visible and act as a role model. • Are continually motivating and rallying their followers. • Are constantly doing the rounds, listening, smoothing and enthusing. <p>This participative approach enables project leaders to encourage the team members to be part of the process and inspire them to go beyond their task requirements.</p>

4. Project Lifecycle

The project lifecycle (see Tables 1.9a and 1.9b) is introduced here in the first chapter because it will be used extensively throughout this book to show how different leadership parameters change over the different phases.

Table 1.9a: Project Lifecycle – shows the first part of a ten-phase lifecycle from corporate vision to project disposal

Corporate Vision and Values Phase	Corporate Requirements Phase	Business Case Phase	Project Feasibility Study Phase	Project Definition Phase
The corporate vision and values phase establishes the corporate vision and values, which outline the purpose and long-term aims of the company, together with details of the company's culture, philosophy and the way the company intends to do business.	The corporate requirements phase investigates what the company needs to do to maintain competitive advantage and stay in business, and what opportunities the company could exploit to help achieve its long-term corporate objectives.	The business case phase outlines corporate strategy, which includes how to solve corporate problems, requirements and opportunities, by setting forth a number of proposals. The business case seeks to justify the use of company resources when pursuing each course of action.	The feasibility study phase assesses the business case in order to confirm it is feasible to manufacture and implement within the identified constraints. It confirms how well the business case(s) addresses the client's requirements and aligns with the corporate vision.	The project definition phase uses the guidelines from the feasibility study to design the project, outline the build method and develop detailed schedules and plans (baseline plan) for all the knowledge area topics that are required to make the project.
Output: Corporate vision and values statement	Output: Corporate requirements	Output: Business case	Output: Feasibility study report	Output: Project design and project plan

The project lifecycle structure will be used in this book to subdivide project leadership and responsibility by project phase. This is a logical approach because, by definition, each phase produces a different set of deliverables and, therefore, one would assume each phase would require a different set of skills and a different type of team requiring a different style of leadership.

Table 1.9b: Project Lifecycle – shows the second part of a ten-phase lifecycle from corporate vision to project disposal

Project Execution Phase	Project Commissioning and Handover Phase	Operation Startup Phase	Project Upgrade Phase	Project Disposal Phase
The project execution phase uses the design and project plan from the definition phase to make the project. An execution strategy is developed to strike a balance between making the project, using corporate resources and outsourcing.	The project commissioning and handover phase inspects and confirms that the project has been made to the approved design, then hands over the project to the client for operation.	The operational startup phase implements the new facility, product or service into the operational environment. It is the project sponsor's responsibility to ensure that the operation of the project realizes benefits for the client organization. From the client's perspective this is the main purpose of the project.	The half-life upgrade phase incorporates the latest technology, systems and fashions to keep the project running efficiently and competitively.	The disposal phase brings the project to a formal closure by dismantling the facility and restoring the environment to its original state.
Output: Certificate of completion	Output: Project closeout report	Output: Business case closeout report	Output: Upgrade closeout report	Output: Disposal closeout

The project lifecycle structure interlinks the project phases by a common thread to ensure that all aspects of the project refer back to the corporate vision and requirements. This particularly applies to governance and ethics, which outline how the company intends to do business and ensure that the project risks are within the acceptable corporate level of risk.

5. Project Management Leadership

This first chapter has made a point of highlighting that the project manager needs a portfolio of technical, managerial, leadership and entrepreneurial skills – it is not a case of one skill being more important than the others. Figure 1.1 shows it is essential that the project manager is competent in all four areas – technical skills, project management skills (including project systems), project leadership and project entrepreneurship – in order for the project to be a success.

Figure 1.1 shows that the project manager needs technical skills, project management skills, project leadership skills and entrepreneurship skills to be effective. The circles are drawn of equal size, implying that they are of equal importance.

From the start it should be recognized that project management skills and project leadership skills go hand-in-hand – you cannot have one without the other; they are like links in a chain. It might be argued that one skill is more important than another at certain times in the project but, for a project to be managed successfully from start to finish, the project manager must be proficient in both sets of skills.

A person does not suddenly become a project manager. It is likely that they will specialize in a technical field but, with experience and technical ability, they will be appointed to manage a project team and manage a project. The transition from project manager to project leader requires the

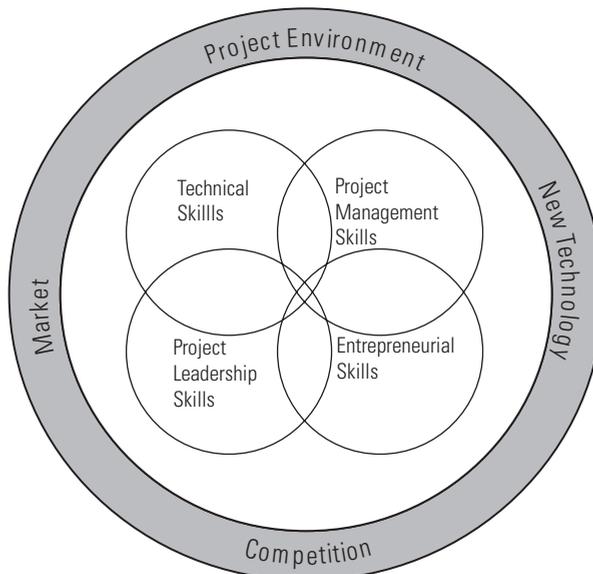


Figure 1.1: Intersecting Skills

ability to understand the past, attend to the present and look to the future. The project environment is often complex and chaotic; the leader needs to have a clear vision of where they want to go, and a clear strategy of how to get there.

In the past, project management development focused on tools and techniques associated with planning and controlling a project. Today, it is acknowledged that building high-performance teams, managing the client's expectations and managing the project's business plan also play an important part.

EXERCISES:

1. Using a project you are familiar with, and with reference to skills identified in this chapter, identify and categorize the technical skills, project management skills, leadership skills and entrepreneurial skills that are used to guide your projects to success.
2. Write down what you think represents sufficient capability in the management and leadership skills in your list. You can now determine which leadership skills you need to develop.

Project Governance and Ethics

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter you should be able to:

- Develop a project governance framework.
- Develop a project ethics framework.

Project governance and ethics are part of the corporate vision and values that outline the purpose and aims of the company, together with details of the company's culture, philosophy and the way the company intends to do business. It is, therefore, essential that the project leader understands the characteristics and features of project governance and ethics to be able to manage the process effectively.

This chapter will explain how to develop a project governance and project ethics framework.

The project leader's challenge is to develop a project governance and project ethics framework at the project level that aligns with the company values and meets acceptable business and environmental practices.

1. Project Lifecycle

The project lifecycle shows the relative positions of the corporate strategy phases, project phases and operation phases. The corporate vision and values phase (first phase) develops the corporate vision to give the company strategic direction, and also develops the corporate values to outline how the company intends to do business (see Figure 2.1 below).

The corporate values statement outlines the organization’s beliefs and culture that are shared amongst the shareholders and stakeholders (employees, contractors, suppliers and even customers). It is these values that drive a company’s behavior and priorities and determine how it intends to do business. The content of the corporate values statement will be discussed under the following headings:

- Project Governance – where the project governance translates the corporate values and governance into a practical framework to govern the project.
- Project Ethics – where the project ethics translate the corporate values and ethics into a project ethics framework for moral conduct and behavior.

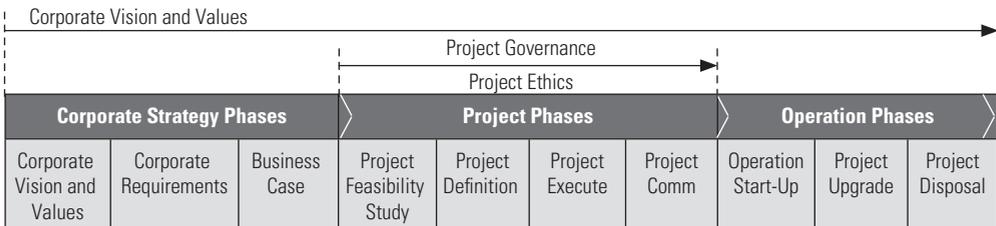


Figure 2.1: Project Lifecycle – shows the relative position of the corporate strategy phases, project phases, operation phases, together with the extent of the corporate vision and values, and the project governance and project ethics with respect to the other phases

2. Project Governance

Corporate governance is an internal safety net that tries to prevent rogue elements within a company going off at a tangent and, particularly, pursuing activities not known about by the company's executive. There have been recent examples where rogue traders have been involved in **off-balance-sheet** activities that eventually brought down well-established companies, such as Barings Bank (UK) and Enron (USA). This section will translate corporate governance into project governance as a practical framework for governing projects (see Table 2.1).

The APM BoK 5ed defines **Governance of Project Management (GoPM)** concerns as: *Those areas of corporate governance that are specifically related to project activities. Effective governance of project management ensures that an organization's project portfolio is aligned to the organization's objectives, is delivered efficiently and is sustainable.*

In other words, the benefits realized for the company from its projects must support its corporate objectives (corporate vision and values). Further, the projects must be implemented efficiently to ensure that they are making the best use of company resources and will be sustainable, which means they must align with the company's values on sustainability.

The PMBOK 4ed defines **Project Governance** as: *The management approach taken to support project delivery. Ultimately, governance provides a comprehensive, uniform method of controlling the project and ensuring its success.*

Table 2.1: Project Governance

Project Selection	The corporate governance process ensures that the selected projects align with the business case, statement of requirements and the corporate vision and values. This helps to prevent the company using its resources to pursue projects that do not support the company vision. It could be argued that, even if these projects make a profit, they are diluting the resource pool that should be used to implement the company's vision.
Stakeholders	The selected business cases should align with the stakeholders' needs and expectations. The stakeholders should be engaged at a level that is commensurate with their importance to the project and the organization.
Level of Risk	The level of project risk should be in line with the corporate acceptable level of risk – this filters out unwanted high-risk ventures. Some companies might accept high-risk projects if there is the potential for a good return. Whichever way, this is the place to formally establish the constraints.

(Continued)

Table 2.1 (Continued)

Project Organization Structure	The project organization structure's roles, responsibilities, authority and performance criteria are clearly defined, so that everyone working on the project knows who is responsible for what and who is reporting to whom.
Authority	The project sponsor and the project manager are given the authority they need to use company resources; this authority is assigned in the agreed manner (outlined in the business case and the project charter). This means that the assigned authority should be commensurate with responsibility, and that the project manager has the authority to make certain decisions that will lead to the consumption of company resources.
Statement of Requirements	The needs and opportunities analysis ensures that the statement of requirements is based on relevant and realistic market research data to give an accurate assessment of what the company needs to do to maintain competitive advantage. The statement of requirements underpins the whole project management process; this means that if the needs are inaccurate then the business case and the project will be compromised.
Business Case	The business case not only provides a feasible solution to address the identified needs, but also justifies the allocation of company resources and funds.
Scope Management	<p>The scope management process ensures that:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The scope of work outlines the full content of the project, and that the WBS method of subdivision produces suitably sized work packages that can be managed effectively. • The scope changes are approved by the nominated people so that they can be incorporated in the project plan build method, the operational configuration and the project budget. • There are no unacceptable risks and scope creep is avoided. • The specifications and verification acceptance criteria are agreed before starting the work.
Project Initiation	The project is formally initiated by the appointed person (project sponsor).
Go/No-Go Decision	The go/no-go decision of each phase is made by the appointed person (project sponsor) in conjunction with the portfolio manager and the project steering board.
Project Charter	The project charter clearly outlines what is required and how it will be achieved, and issues authority for the project manager to use company resources.
Planning and Control	The project planning and control process follows the steps outlined in the project plan (issue instructions, expedite procurement, measure progress, guide the project to completion).
Quality Control	The quality control process mechanism ensures the work is completed to the required condition.
Progress Reporting	There are clearly defined criteria for reporting progress to the nominated members of the project organization.
Project Success	There are clearly defined critical success factors for the project manager to achieve – certainly time, cost and quality will be defined.

Table 2.1 (Continued)

Communication	There are clearly defined lines of communication for communicating project information between all the project stakeholders.
Documentation	The governance process ensures that the project documents are effectively communicated, controlled and stored for retrieval in the agreed manner.
Issues Management	There is a mechanism to capture the issues that arise during the project, with an appropriate mechanism to resolve them.
Reviews and Closeout Reports	Formal phase reviews and project closeout reports are conducted to confirm completeness and acceptance as outlined in the phase or project, together with identifying lessons learnt.

This list of examples clearly shows that the project governance process should be deeply embedded within the project lifecycle's procedures to ensure that the corporate values influence how the company does business.

3. Project Ethics

The APM BoK 5ed defines **Ethics** as: *Relating to proper conduct. Ethics covers the conduct and moral principles recognized as appropriate within the project management profession.*

Project ethics embraces the morally accepted conduct and behavior expected from the project leader and team members. These are defined as a company's or a team's code of moral principles that set standards to help distinguish between what the company or the project team believes is good or bad, and what the company or the project team believes is right or wrong.

Project ethics help to establish principles of behavior that guide the project leader and team members in making choices when there are a number of alternative courses of action. Most professions have a code of professional conduct that their members are required to sign up to and follow. Consider the following:

- A company's code of ethics is part of the corporate values developed by the CEO.
- The project's code of ethics is part of the project charter developed by the project sponsor and project manager.
- The project team's code of ethics is part of the team charter developed by the team members.

These should be seen as guidelines on how project participants should behave in situations susceptible to ethical dilemmas, such as the required level of honesty of reporting progress and project accounts, and the guidelines to distinguish between what is a gift and what is a bribe. The characteristics and features of ethics are listed in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Table of Ethics

Trust	Trust and respect are the foundations of leadership and an essential component of teamwork that cannot be assigned – trust has to be earned. For example, the project manager must earn the trust of the project team members before being fully accepted as the overall project leader. And, conversely, the project team members must earn the trust of the project manager before the project manager will be inclined to empower them with the responsibility to carry out project work; the opposite would be to micro manage.
Integrity	A person's integrity is related to consistency of actions, values, methods and principles. Integrity is seen as the quality of having a sense of honesty and truthfulness; the opposite would be termed hypocrisy. Richard Nixon was famously forced out of office when he lost the trust and respect of the American people. Because of his actions many deemed him to be a person lacking integrity.

Table 2.2 (Continued)

Honesty	Honesty refers to a person's moral character and denotes positive virtuous attributes such as integrity and truthfulness as opposed to lying, cheating or theft. Honesty is a key ethical behavior. An honest person is considered to be moral (or has morals), while a dishonest person is considered immoral.
Mistakes	One of the areas where leaders' honesty is tested is when they make a mistake – do they own up or cover up? If the team members suspect that their leaders are covering up their own errors, the team members might also be inclined to cover up their mistakes as well. Why would they put up their hands when no one else does? Besides the effect on trust, covering up would also rob the team and project of valuable feedback on problems because, if the cause of mistakes is not addressed, there is a good chance they will occur again; it becomes a vicious circle of dishonesty.
Respect	Managing team members with dignity and respect denotes a positive recognition of their qualities, while being rude to employees indicates a lack of respect and is disrespectful. Not only is it disrespectful to manage people unethically, it is also counterproductive because employees respond more positively to being treated with respect.
Collaboration	Collaboration refers to the process of two or more team members working together to achieve common objectives. This is essential when the project sponsor needs to work with other interested parties to achieve common objectives – the opposite would be a confrontational style of management. It would be deemed ethical to collaborate to benefit the project and unethical to be confrontational and put the project at risk.
Coercion	Coercion is the practice of forcing another team member to behave in an involuntary manner by the use of threats, intimidation, trickery or some other form of pressure. Such actions are used as leverage to force the victim to act in a certain way; for example, coercing a person to sign a document or vote for a particular motion. Unethical use of coercive power would include: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Power not to reward • Power to threaten demotion • Power to withhold overtime • Power to limit salary increases • Power to transfer people to another position.
Bullying	Bullying is not only unethical, illegal and psychologically harmful, it is also nonproductive. Bullying is the act of performing unacceptable behavior to exert power over another team member. This could be as juvenile as calling people names, saying or writing unpleasant stories about them, leaving them out of activities, not talking to them, threatening them, making them feel uncomfortable or scared, taking or damaging their belongings, physically harming (unlikely in a work environment) or making them do things they do not want to do.

(Continued)

Table 2.2 (Continued)

Harassment	<p>Harassment covers a wide range of threatening and offensive behaviors that are intended to disturb or upset the team members. Sexual harassment refers to persistent and unwanted sexual advances where refusing can potentially have negative consequences.</p>
Corruption	<p>Corruption is usually associated with the bribing of officials and people in a position of authority and trust; the bribery is used to influence their judgment.</p> <p>For example, it is considered unethical to award a contract or approve a deliverable on the strength of a bribe rather than the contractually required criteria. The rationale being that the bribe is given to accept substandard goods.</p> <p>It would also be deemed unethical not to select the contractor offering the best quotation (whether it is the highest or lowest), because this might mean the client could end up paying significantly more for a shoddy project.</p>
Sweatshops and Child Labor	<p>Sweatshops refer to working conditions that are considered to be unhealthy and dangerous and therefore it is unethical to support companies that operate these conditions. This includes exposure to harmful materials, hazardous situations, extreme temperatures or abuse from employers. Sweatshop workers are known to work long hours for little pay and have little opportunity to change, improve or escape their conditions.</p> <p>Sweatshops are also associated with the unethical practice of using child labor. There is international concern about the employment of children under a certain age, when they should be attending school. There is also concern about children being financially exploited where their level of pay is well below a deemed minimum wage.</p>
Animal Testing	<p>Animal testing refers to the use of non-human animals in experiments. The dilemma is that many medical drugs cannot be legally released until they have been thoroughly tested on animals first. This type of research is usually conducted by universities, medical schools, pharmaceutical companies, farms, defence establishments and commercial facilities that provide animal testing services to industry.</p> <p>The sensitive nature of the work of this industry has encouraged the development of strict ethical conduct. This can work both ways to protect the animals and also to protect the scientists.</p>

There is a legal component to ethical behavior that the project sponsors have to uphold in their management and contractual arrangements. When managing international projects, the project sponsor and project manager could unwittingly be drawn into unethical behavior when accepting competitive quotations. For example, they might unknowingly be issuing contracts to sweatshops using child labor in a country where this practice might be legal and acceptable, but unacceptable in the country where the company sells its products.

EXERCISES:

1. Discuss how your company or a company you are familiar with has developed a corporate values statement outlining how the company intends to do business.
2. Discuss how your project or a project you are familiar with has developed the corporate governance into a project governance framework.
3. Discuss how your project or a project you are familiar with has developed the corporate ethics into a project ethics framework.

Project Leadership BoK

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter you should be able to:

- Understand the project leadership body of knowledge.
- Understand how the project manager establishes a vision for the project that inspires the project team.
- Understand how the project manager can empower the project team.

Project leadership is a process by which a project manager can direct, guide and influence the behavior and work of the project team towards accomplishing the project objectives. The bodies of knowledge all have definitions of project leadership as part of the human side of project management. It is, therefore, essential that the project leader understands the characteristics and features of these definitions as they underpin the project leadership body of knowledge.

This chapter will introduce the project leadership definitions as a broad introduction to the subject area before expanding leadership traits, leadership behaviors and leadership styles in the following chapters.

The project leader's challenge, particularly project managers who are studying for certification, is to understand how the bodies of knowledge define leadership.

1. What is Project Leadership?

The following bodies of knowledge have similar definitions outlining the meaning of project leadership.

The APM BoK 6ed (2012) defines **Leadership** as: *The ability to establish vision and direction, to influence and align others towards a common purpose, and to empower and inspire people to achieve success. It enables the project to proceed in an environment of change and uncertainty.*

The PMBOK defines **Leadership** as: *Developing a vision and strategy, and motivating people to achieve that vision and strategy.*

The IPMA defines **Leadership** as: *Providing direction and motivating others in their role or task to fulfil the project's objectives.*

Table 3.1 highlights the key words included in the bodies of knowledge and shows where they will be explained in this book.

Table 3.1: Key Words for Project Leadership

Vision and Inspiration	Outlining long-term objectives. Inspiring the team.	This chapter
Strategy	How to achieve the corporate vision and requirements.	This chapter
Influence	Influencing and aligning the project team towards a common purpose.	See Chapter 7 – <i>Power to Influence</i>
Empowerment	Giving the team members more say about their work environment.	This chapter
Collaboration	Working together with the team.	This chapter
Motivation	The inner force that inspires team members to achieve the objectives.	See Chapter 19 – <i>Motivation</i>
Success	Achieving assigned objectives.	This chapter.

2. Project Vision and Inspiration

Vision is a widely used term describing a project leader's ability to visualize the future. Vision is usually presented at the strategic level, but for the purposes of this book this section will also include vision at the project sponsor's and project manager's level.

CEO's Vision: The CEO's vision defines the company's long-term objectives, which might be expressed as where the company wants to be in the business sense in three to five years' time. It is important to have a defined and achievable target so that all the company's production work and project work can be aligned to achieve the corporate long-term goals and objectives. Without an objective, it could be argued that the company is directionless – any direction is the right direction!

The CEO's vision outlines the desired or intended future state of an organization, a company, an enterprise or a public department in terms of its fundamental objectives, position and strategic direction. The key feature of a corporate vision is that it is a long-term objective. It is not something that is going to be achieved overnight; it is a desired position of the future but, more importantly, it is a statement of aspirations and motivation for the company to achieve something significant.

The characteristics and features of a vision are presented at the executive and project levels in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Corporate Vision – shows a table of characteristics and features of a corporate vision

	CEO	Project Manager
Future	The CEO's corporate vision gives the company a sense of direction and future state for the organization; it is a long-term intention, maybe three to five years ahead (investment cycle). Any period less than three years would be too short, and any period longer than five years could be significantly influenced by unknown factors (new technology, an economic cycle).	At the strategy level the project sponsor's vision is based on the business case addressing the corporate requirements. The timeframe would be the time it takes the company to realize benefits. At the project level the project manager's vision is based on the critical success factors outlined in the project charter. The timeframe would be the length of the project.

(Continued)

Table 3.2 (Continued)

	CEO	Project Manager
Realistic	The corporate long-term objectives should be realistic and achievable. The company employees would soon lose their motivation to achieve the corporate objectives if they sensed they were unachievable. The corporate objectives would then become flowery executive talk and be disregarded by the workforce.	At the project level the feasibility study confirms that the business case and project charter are feasible within the defined constraints.
Identity	The corporate vision helps to cultivate a sense of corporate identity or brand image – the corporate vision should be something to be proud of. Rolls Royce, for instance, portrays a vision of a company that provides engineering excellence.	A project often takes on its own identity. This particularly applies to standalone projects, such as building a bridge, constructing a ship or manufacturing an aircraft.
		
	<p>Photo: Courtesy of Rolls Royce ©Press Images – The Rolls Royce logo on the engine cowling is the sign of engineering excellence</p>	
Purpose	The purpose and rationale behind the company's very existence should be embedded in the corporate vision. It should act like an invisible hand guiding the strategic decision making. For example, the objective might be to become the leading manufacturer of quality computers within five years. Therefore, everything the company does should be aligned with becoming the leading manufacturer of quality computers.	The purpose and rationale behind the project should be outlined in the business case and project charter. The purpose should guide the decision making to achieve the project's objectives.

Table 3.2 (Continued)

Alignment	How the company intends to align or associate itself with topics of interest should be outlined in the corporate vision. For example, a policy of sustainability would imply an alignment with sustainable products and a sustainable environment. One would then expect the company to practice eco-friendly policies and use sustainable products, energy-saving devices and recycling, translating the corporate vision into a corporate value.	At the project level there is a sequence of alignments. The project charter aligns with the business case, and the business case aligns with the corporate requirements and ultimately the company vision. The decision-making process at the project level should continually confirm that the project is still aligned with the latest version of the corporate vision.
Involvement	The corporate vision enables all potential stakeholders (customers, employees, suppliers and contractors) to decide on their level of involvement with the company. The notion being that some customers prefer to be associated with certain companies; this is often referred to as brand loyalty. On the other hand, some people might not want to be associated with certain products. For example, during the Gulf of Mexico oil leak a number of local people in America boycotted BP's filling stations.	At the project level the project's vision enables potential stakeholders and interested parties to decide on their level of involvement with the project. There might be interested parties that disagree with the project and protest against it. For example, lobby groups might protest against the building of a motorway.
Resources	The corporate vision enables the company to prioritize the selection of projects that align best with achieving the company's long-term objectives. This enables the company to make the best use of its resources to achieve its objectives, as opposed to initiating projects that are not aligned with the corporate vision and will, therefore, dilute the resource pool available for aligned projects.	At the project level the project's execution strategy (make or buy decision) outlines how the project intends to make the most efficient use of internal resources and outsourcing.

To be effective and mutually supportive, the corporate vision must be assimilated into the organization's culture. The CEO and the board of directors have the responsibility for:

- Regularly communicating the vision in what they do and say.
- Creating narratives that illustrate the vision.
- Acting as role models by embodying the vision.
- Creating short-term objectives that act as stepping stones to achieve the long-term vision.
- Encouraging others to craft their own personal vision to be compatible with the organization's overall vision.

A corporate vision is very difficult to achieve without an effective project methodology to guide the implementation of the corporate strategies. In other words, without an effective project methodology the aspirations of the corporate vision might be self-limiting.

Project Vision: The project manager's first task is to analyze the project charter to identify what the project has to achieve. The vision should provide a clear target with sufficient information to inspire and motivate the team. The project's vision should provide an inspiring image of the project's goals.

Communicating the project vision is one of the project manager's key leadership responsibilities. Project vision is important for the team members because it outlines the reason for their very existence as a team. The project's vision becomes the team's agenda and, as such, it needs to be greater and more important than the personal agendas. A vision is only effective when it is held and shared by all the team members. Team ownership is critical for achieving peak performance from the team.

The project manager has the primary responsibility for formulating, communicating and enthusiastically presenting the vision and sharing it with all the team members. It is important to achieve a shared vision to ensure everyone is pulling in the same direction, because lack of shared vision might cause disagreements and misunderstanding later in the project. Shared vision leads to a number of benefits:

- Better coordination of the tasks.
- Stronger commitment to the project.
- Higher levels of team member satisfaction.
- Increased loyalty to the team.

This empowers the team to take some control over its own actions and the work environment.

CASE STUDY – NASA MOON (WWW.JFKLIBRARY.ORG)

One of the best examples of a clear vision statement that galvanized a nation was when President Kennedy said, *'We choose to go to the moon in this decade'*. His speech in 1961 established a clear target (the moon), a clear time scale (eight years), and a clear vision for the people of America.

The decision to go to the moon, as simple as it sounds, was a massive financial commitment on a par with the construction of the Panama Canal and the Manhattan Project in terms of scope and cost.

In an interview Neil Armstrong is reported to have said that when the NASA engineers were discussing technical design, if the options became too complicated or would take too long to develop, they would say, *'In this decade'*. This demonstrates how the vision guided the decision making to ensure that all the decisions and actions were aligned with the ultimate goal.

President Kennedy's goal was achieved on July 20, 1969, when Apollo 11 commander Neil Armstrong stepped off the lunar module's ladder and on to the moon's surface and said, *'One small step for man; one giant leap for mankind'*.



Photo: Courtesy of Nasa©Press Images

Exercise: Give three examples of how the corporate vision statement guided decision making at the project level.

The project's vision becomes the team's energy, as well as its source of power, inspiration and motivation. To achieve this power, the vision must be linked to a project that is worth doing and meaningful in the eyes of each team member – the team must buy into the beneficial purpose of the project. This is where the project manager might have to use passion and salesmanship skills to sell the vision to the team members (individually and collectively) and convince them of the project's benefits.

A vision by itself is not enough to inspire and motivate the team. Accompanying the vision must be a perceived interdependent need. Team members must appreciate that their vision of the project is not achievable without their combined talents functioning interactively as a team; none of them can complete the project individually. This is one of the main differences between project teams and the less cohesive project groups. If there is no interdependent need to achieve the vision, then there is no need for an interactive project team structure to carry out the project, and the less intensive, less interactive and simpler forms of cooperation and group work would suffice (see Chapter 12 on *Project Teams* where groups are discussed).

The project leader's behavior and actions are an important part of selling the vision to the team members. If project managers do not appear to be totally committed to their projects, then their indifferent behavior and actions will subconsciously undermine the vision and demotivate the team but, by demonstrating a serious passion towards the project, this message motivates and inspires a similar interest and commitment from the team members.

Project managers need this commitment from the team members because, during their project, teams will face many problems limiting performance and will face many pitfalls holding up their progress; some situations might seem overwhelming. It is at times like these that teams need strong and determined leadership that is both persistent and tenacious. They need to be able to recover and bounce back from the setbacks, profit from their mistakes and continue to move forward. Teams should be able to refer constantly to the project's objectives, particularly when they hit a problem.

CASE STUDY – VISION

Entrepreneurs have the power of vision to be able to predict what the market will look like in the future and what products it will require. In the 70s Steve Jobs (Apple Computers) and Bill Gates (Microsoft) had the vision of seeing a personal computer on everyone's desk at a time when only a few large companies had mainframe computers.

No market research at the time would have given Apple Computers the slightest chance of success. Which is why, in the late 70s, so many well-managed computer companies turned down the opportunity to make the desktop and left it to small companies, such as Apple Computers and Microsoft, to pioneer the desktop, enabling Apple and Microsoft to be the first to get their feet in the new market.

Exercise: Give three examples of companies that have an inspiring vision of where they want to be positioned in the future.

3. Leadership Vision vs. Project Lifecycle

The project lifecycle can be used to show the extent of leadership vision within each phase and between phases. This is a logical approach as vision is related to positions of responsibility and authority.

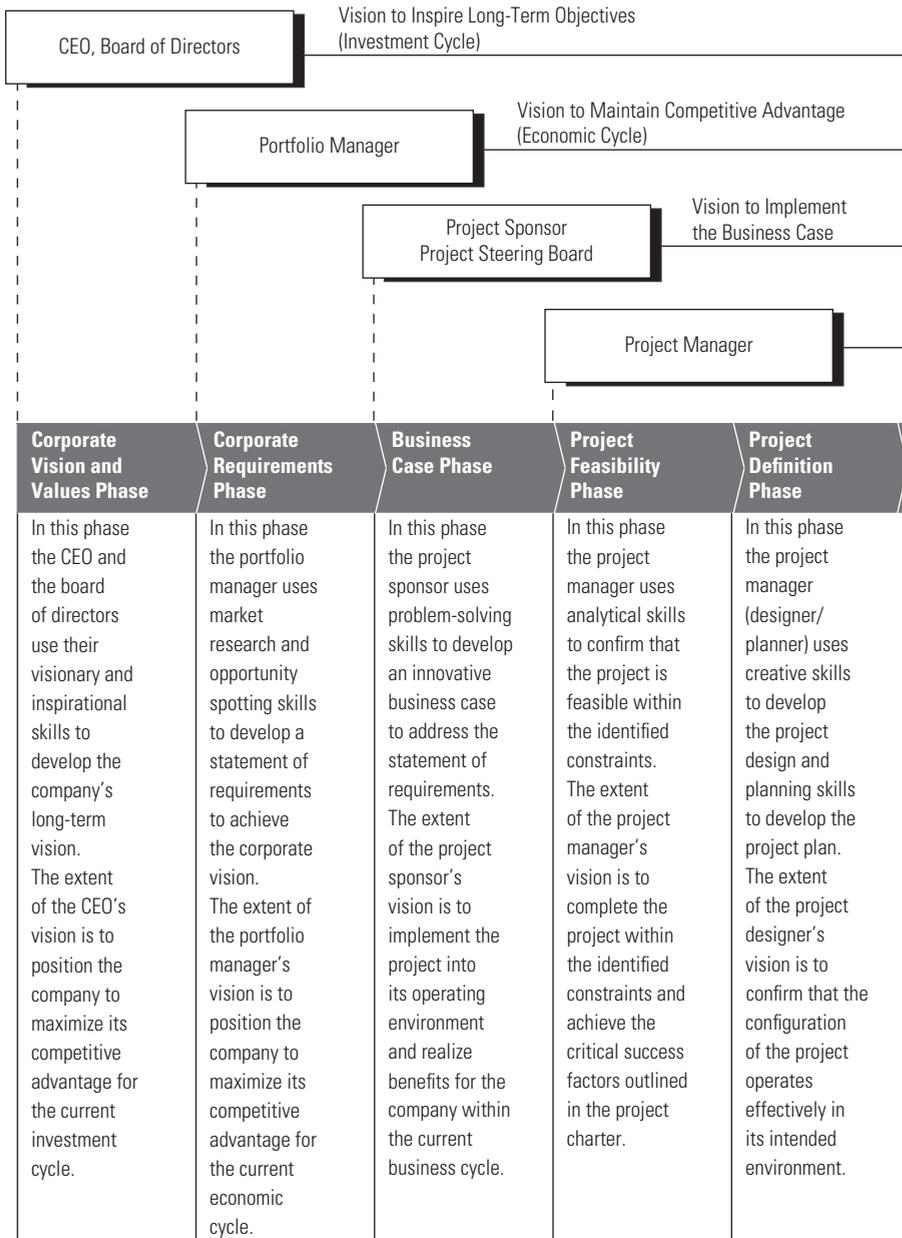
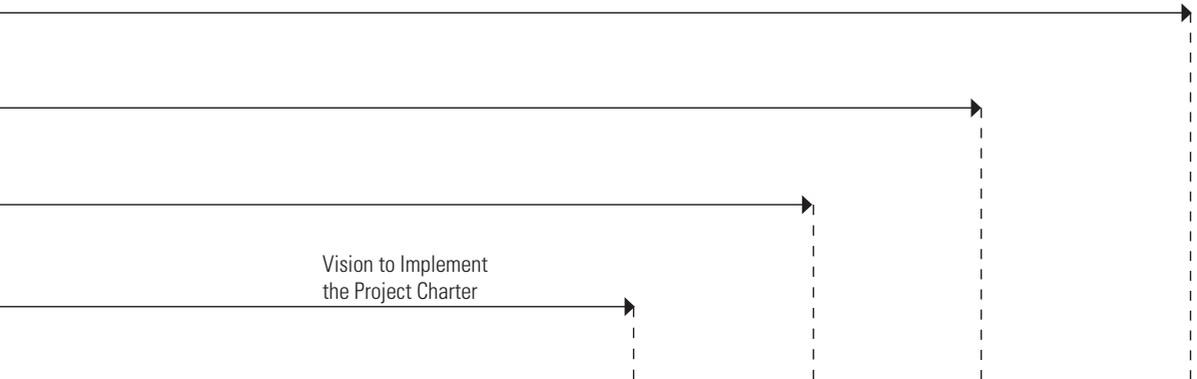


Figure 3.1: Leadership Vision vs. Project Lifecycle



Project Execution Phase	Project Commissioning Phase	Operation Start-up Phase	Project Upgrade Phase	Project Disposal Phase
<p>In this phase the project manager uses project-specific skills to make the project's main deliverable. The extent of the project manager's vision is to complete the phase and be available to cover the project during its warranty period.</p>	<p>In this phase the project manager uses investigative skills to test, run up and commission the project. The extent of the project manager's vision is the successful commissioning of the project.</p>	<p>In this phase the project sponsor and operations manager use start-up skills to implement the project into its operating environment. The extent of the project sponsor's vision is the period it takes to realize benefits for the company.</p>	<p>In this phase the project sponsor uses market research skills to determine the best time to upgrade the project. The extent of the project sponsor's vision is both short term and long term to maintain competitive advantage.</p>	<p>In this phase the project manager uses decommissioning and environmental skills to dispose of the project and return the site to its original state. The extent of the project manager's vision is the time to complete the disposal phase.</p>

4. Project Strategy

The project strategy is like a road map that shows a destination and how to get there. In the project context, the project vision (project charter) is the destination, and the project plan, build method and execution strategy are the road map. It is the project manager's responsibility to ensure that all the team members properly understand the project plan and that they know what is expected of them individually and collectively as a team. The project plan is usually a collection of documents and individual plans that are rolled up to form the project's baseline plan.

Having a project plan and communicating it to those involved in the project is one of the cornerstones of effective project leadership. This might seem obvious but it is surprising how many organizations believe that their project plan is only prepared for the client's benefit.

Project planning takes time and effort and can easily be delayed when operational pressure calls for immediate attention. While many successful projects have been managed without a strategic plan (simply by setting short-term goals), the problem with this myopic approach is that the project manager might fail to see the big picture to achieve the project's overall objectives. This means entrepreneurial opportunities, which could enhance the team's performance, might be missed. We live in a fast-moving environment where progress measured by historical data might not indicate what is likely to happen next, and yet, it is the future where everyone must compete.

Where necessary the leader should restate the strategy to ensure that all the team members (individually and collectively) have understood the plans. This can be achieved at the operational level by quantifying the work into job cards and scheduling these into rolling-horizon Gantt charts. It is the project manager's responsibility to ask questions to confirm the team members' understanding and check for comprehension.

It is important that the project manager recognizes that the team members do not always know what to do and how to do it; they need guidance and direction to focus their efforts. When team members do not know what to do, it leaves them insecure, often paralyzed to act, certainly defensive, frustrated and demotivated.

Team members also do not like a stop-go style of leadership, where the members start on a job and then, before they have time to finish, they are moved to another job and, before they have finished that, they are moved back to the first job. All the moving around prevents the members getting into a productive work rhythm.

The main weakness in leadership has been identified as failure to focus the team on the project's objectives. If the goals are unclear chaos will follow, because no one wants to follow a leader who does not know where he is going. People will perform much better if they are inspired, motivated, directed and supported by good leadership.

Clear leadership is required to ensure that project decisions align with corporate strategy, otherwise individuals will use other decision rules in choosing what to work on:

- First in–first out (FIFO).
- Last in–first out (LIFO).
- Loudest demand.
- Squeakiest wheel.
- Boss’s whim.
- Least risk.
- Easiest.
- Most likely to lead to raises and promotion.
- Most politically correct.

Without leadership and corporate strategic alignment, managers might try to accomplish too many diverse projects whenever half an opportunity presents itself; consequently their results will suffer. Even though everyone might be working hard, without a coordinated effort they could be producing less. Lack of strategy clarity coupled with a ‘*do it all*’ mentality chokes the company, reduces output, misuses scarce resources and leads to employee burnout, resulting in project investment that is unrelated to the corporate strategy. There is no point in having the best, most able and committed project team if there is no strategy to give it direction.

Table 3.3: Empowering Teams to become Self-directed

Share Information	Team member involvement starts with simple techniques such as information sharing with team members, and asking team members for suggestions about improving the work environment.
Self-Directed	Projects gradually move towards greater autonomy for team members, which first leads to solving their own problems, and then progressively to becoming self-directed teams. This in turn helps to eliminate barriers between departments.
Managerial Duties	The team eventually starts to take over managerial duties such as scheduling their work and ordering materials.

Project managers should strive for a management system that assigns team members more empowerment, more creativity, more freedom and more flexibility with fewer rules and regulations and less central control.

Table 3.4 includes some of the benefits of empowerment.

Table 3.4: Benefits of Empowerment

Motivation	Empowerment increases initiative and motivation, and encourages the team members to adopt a more positive attitude.
Self-Confidence	Empowerment enhances the project team's self-confidence.
Resilience	Empowerment enables the team to be more resilient when faced with setbacks.
Loyalty	Empowerment increases loyalty and fosters team ownership.
Ownership	Empowerment encourages the team members to take ownership of their work and take responsibility for the results.
Decision Making	Empowerment enables the team members to make decisions and have some control over their own destiny.
Teamwork	Empowerment encourages the project team to work together as a unit.
Contribution	Empowering workers widens the boundaries of individual and team contributions.
Team Pride	Team members like to feel proud of their team and feel they are making a meaningful contribution to the project. The project manager needs to be aware that if team members do not feel proud of their team this might impact on their self-esteem, their performance and ultimately encourage them to leave the team.

Empowerment is a clear shift in leadership style from 'Theory X' (team members who need to be watched and controlled and will abuse any freedom they are given) to 'Theory Y' (team members who are responsible and welcome autonomy, will rise to the occasion and, if trusted, will become trustworthy). Empowerment is obviously designed for 'Theory Y' team members (see Chapter 6 on *Leadership Theories and Styles*).

Empowerment runs contrary to many established management practices, where it is traditionally assumed that the project manager knows best and will direct and lead the project team. The transition from a centrally controlled project to a self-directed team is a fundamental shift in project leadership.

The implication is that 'empowerment' suits some people more than others, and should be positioned in the broader context of an '*enabling*' project work environment.

Leadership is the ability to inspire others to empower themselves to work towards mutual goals. Lack of project leadership becomes evident when there is a disparity in the team's goals and private goals, and personal agendas start dictating the team members' behavior.

Empowered, self-directed teams do not need to seek project leader approval for many of their decisions about how to carry out their work. This is because they perform their own planning, monitoring and control. This is obviously a more efficient way to operate.

6. Control Freaks

The opposite of empowerment is control freak project managers who micromanage everything the project team members do. As the project manager is the single point of responsibility, there is a natural tendency for some project managers to want to control everything; they are, after all, going to be held responsible.

An obsessive need to keep control can arise from how project managers perceive power. Instead of seeing power as something that can grow by sharing, control freaks see power as finite. If they delegate power to the team members they will have less power. Why would control freaks want to disempower themselves, particularly if they got to their present position by hanging on to power?

Table 3.5 lists the symptoms of control freak project managers.

Table 3.5: Symptoms of Obsessive Behavior in Project Managers

Delegating	They feel uncomfortable delegating; the team will only make a mistake and I will have to fix the mess.
Responsibility	Once an objective is defined they need to control how it is achieved; after all, they are being held responsible.
Take Over	They frequently need to take over critical aspects of the project to ensure they are done right.
Decision Making	They often have to change a team member's decision because they know a better method to do the work.
Trust	They need to make all the decisions, read every letter, approve every purchase order; I just cannot trust the team to get it right.
Progress	They need constant updates on progress; they have to watch the team like a hawk otherwise it will slack off.
Negotiation	Their way is always the best way; there is no need to negotiate with the team members.
Meetings	In meetings they do most of the talking – well, the team members do not have anything to say!
Mistakes	They fear team members will make mistakes; in fact, they know the team members will make mistakes.

Control freaks are unfashionable in these days of team empowerment. It is now recognized that the control freaks' old-school command and control style erodes the team members' self-esteem. Gifted team members who experience this sort of treatment will soon get frustrated and take their creative ideas and competence to another employer. These could be the very ideas the team

needs to maintain its competitive advantage. To become less of a control freak the project manager should consider the steps outlined in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6: Taking Less Control

Acknowledge	Acknowledge that he or she is a control freak, and acknowledge the need to change.
Question	Instead of issuing instructions to the team, ask questions and listen.
See Opportunities	See an employee's mistakes as an opportunity for the team member to learn how to perform the task correctly next time.
Plan	Agree a project plan with the team; then step back and let the project team get on with it. Use management by exception (MBE) reporting if anything serious goes amiss, but always be available to guide and coach if help is required.

When project managers micromanage, they take away that sense of freedom and personal control vital to team dynamics and problem solving, and they cannot really hold people responsible for their results if they closely supervise their methods.

If a project manager can empower the team to self-direct its scope of work, this frees up the project manager's time to focus on other aspects of the project.

7. Collaboration

The project leader approach is undergoing a revamp. Project leadership is now seen as less to do with charismatic leaders and more to do with the quality of the project manager's relationship with the project team members and other interested parties. There is an awareness that the traditional command and control leadership style is no longer effective in today's project environment. A new collaborative model is evolving to meet the more complex and competitive project environment, and the greater social expectations of the team members.

Collaboration can be defined as: *The process of two or more parties working together to achieve common objectives.*

In the project context, a collaborative approach would be the project manager working with the team members and other interested parties to achieve the project's objectives.

No Need for Collaboration: If project managers have access to all the resources they need, and have the skills to solve all the anticipated problems, then they do not need to collaborate with anyone. But this would probably only relate to small, simple projects, because on large, complex projects the project manager will almost certainly need to negotiate for resources and expert advice.

Benefits of Collaboration: Collaboration is necessary when neither party can carry out the project on their own (see Table 3.7).

Table 3.7: How Collaboration Can Benefit the Project Manager

Teamwork	Effective teamwork is based on collaboration; a number of people working interactively together to achieve a common objective.
Synergy	When a number of team members collaborate, the output can be greater than the sum of the individual inputs. The cross-fertilization of ideas enables the team members to come up with new ideas they would not have developed on their own.
Whole Picture	Collaboration helps to bring people out of the confines of their particular specialty and creates a sense of interdependence. When individuals work on a multi-disciplined project they tend to only be accountable for their own scope of work but, when a number of team members collaborate on a project, the team accepts accountability for the whole project.
Communication	Without collaboration the departments on a multi-disciplined project might not talk to each other, but with collaboration the departments have to talk to each other because they are all part of the same team trying to achieve the same objectives.

(Continued)

Table 3.7 (Continued)

Listening	Collaboration encourages people to be prepared to listen and understand the points of view of other people. Listening is a key component of involving the whole team.
Negotiation	The project manager negotiates with the team about how to carry out the project. Through collaboration the project manager and the team members strive for a win-win situation.

Managing collaboration requires special project management skills; less emphasis on individual achievements, more emphasis on **teamwork**. Collaboration requires appropriate pay structures designed to reward all the team members rather than any one member.

Even when the benefits of teamwork are clear and tangible, **trust** is almost always an issue and needs to be addressed by the participants. This is because of the nature of collaboration; when people collaborate, the product is not 'mine' or 'yours', but 'ours'.

8. Success

A leader's ultimate purpose is to be successful. This section will discuss the meaning of success as it relates to the project sponsor and the project manager.

The media is always quick to portray projects that are late and over budget as failures. For example, the building of the Sydney Opera House was many years late and many times over budget, but was it a failure? To answer this question we need to define project success, and that definition will depend on from whose perspective it is being considered.

Project Manager's Perspective: Project success from the project manager's perspective is related to delivering the project deliverables. These deliverables are usually quantified and verified using project management critical success factors. The classic question would be to ask, '*Was the project delivered on time, within budget and to the required quality?*' If the answer is 'yes' to all of these questions then the project would be deemed to have been a success from the project manager's perspective.

Project Sponsor's Perspective: Project success from the project sponsor's perspective generally relates to the realization of benefits for the company. These benefits are usually outlined in the business case as a means of implementing corporate strategy to solve a problem, address a need, maintain competitive advantage, exploit an opportunity, increase profit, increase sales figures or enhance a brand image.

This means that the project sponsor and project manager have different criteria for determining project success and, if a project's success is only considered from the project manager's perspective, this can be misleading, particularly if it relates to a project in a changeable market.

CASE STUDY – SYDNEY OPERA HOUSE

The NSW Government's original vision (1950s) was for a suitable venue for large theatrical productions. A design competition was held and Jorn Utzon's innovative design of the Sydney Opera House was selected.

The building of the Sydney Opera House did not go smoothly; it was late, over budget and reported to be an '*aesthetic and acoustic disaster*'. It was generally deemed a failure from a project manager's perspective.

However, now the Sydney Opera House is one of Australia's national icons and tourist attractions. It is described as a World Heritage building of which UNESCO says, '*The Sydney Opera House is a great architectural work of the 20th century. It represents multiple strands of creativity, both in architectural form and structural design, a great urban sculpture carefully set in a remarkable waterscape and a world famous iconic building*'. Therefore, from a client's perspective the project is considered to be a resounding success.



Photo: Sydney Opera House, courtesy of Angelica Payne – shows the Opera House's innovative and impressive architecture

Exercise: Consider three large capital projects in your country and assess their success from both the project manager's and project sponsor's perspectives.

The difference between corporate success and project success can be shown diagrammatically in Figure 3.3 where the project sponsor is looking outward at the market (where the project will operate), and the project manager is looking inward at the project (project plan, build method and execution strategy).

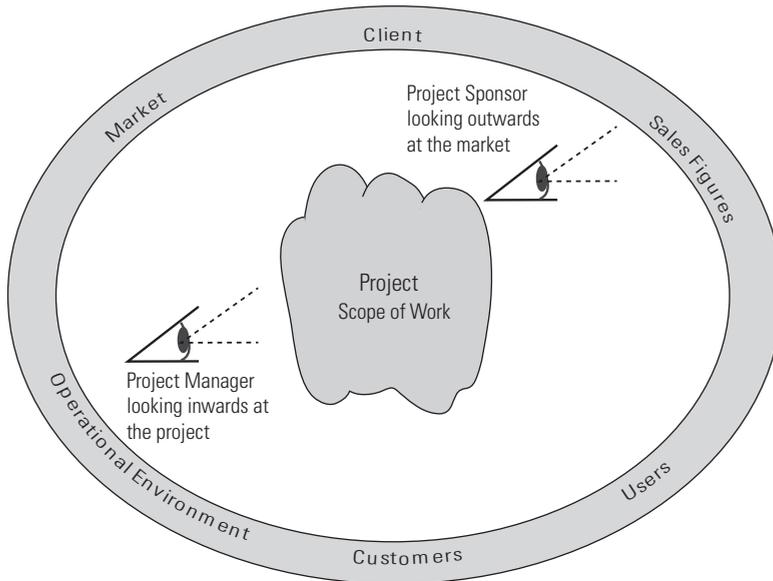


Figure 3.3: Project Sponsor’s vs. Project Manager’s Focus – shows the project sponsor looking outward at the market, and the project manager looking inward at the project

Good leadership results in better team building, which, in turn, produces better leadership; it is a chicken and egg situation. A team cannot grow without good people, and it is impossible to get good people without good leadership. As project managers’ leadership skills improve, so there will be better employees wanting to join their team; it is a positive spiral.

The essence of a positive working team is that each member can contribute to it, so that the team benefits from the total skills and abilities of its members. A team leader who creates a working atmosphere in which that can happen, even if it means actually standing back and handing responsibility to others from time to time, is likely to contribute a great deal to the success of the team.

EXERCISES:

1. Discuss how the characteristics and features of project leadership outlined in the bodies of knowledge relate to the projects you are familiar with.
2. In a project you are aware of, discuss how the project leader empowers the team members.
3. In a project you are familiar with, discuss how the project leader collaborates with the team members.

Project Organization Structures

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter you should be able to:

- Understand the different types of organization structures used to manage projects.
- Understand the advantages and disadvantages of the different organization structures.
- Understand how to lead a matrix organization structure.

Project organization structures include a number of special organization structures within the human resource knowledge area that enable the project manager to lead and manage multi-discipline projects. It is, therefore, essential that the project manager understands the characteristics and features of project organization structures to be able to manage the process effectively.

This chapter will explain how to manage the three main types of project organization structure: functional organization structures, matrix organization structures and pure project organization structures.

As the single point of responsibility, the project manager's challenge is to develop a project organization structure that reflects the needs of the client (business case), the needs of the project (project charter), the needs of the project team members (team charter) and, just as importantly, the needs of the stakeholders.

1. What is a Project Organization Structure?

An organization structure enables a company to group people in a controlled manner for the purpose of performing work. In the project context, a project organization structure includes all of the elements set out in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Project Organization Structure

Temporary Organization Structure	A temporary organization structure that can be set up to perform a project, as outlined in the business case and project charter, and then disbanded when the project is complete.
Reporting Structure	Reporting structures that outline who reports to whom, identifying the relationship between the project participants, together with defining their duties, responsibilities, authority and lines of communication.
Assigning Responsibility	A project organization structure that enables responsibilities to be assigned to project participants to perform the work. In the project context, the project manager is the single point of responsibility who will, in turn, issue instructions to the resource providers.
Project Coordination	A project organization structure that enables the work to be coordinated, supervised, monitored and controlled, and guides the project towards achieving the objectives.
Assigning Authority	A project organization structure that enables authority to be assigned to the project manager to issue instructions and use company resources.
Procedures	A project organization structure that provides the foundation on which to apply the company's standard operating procedures and practices.
Problem Solving	A project organization structure that enables team members and key stakeholders to participate in the problem-solving and the decision-making processes.
Decision Making	A project organization structure that enables the project manager and team members to make decisions that have collective support, and that align with the project charter, the business case, the corporate requirements and the corporate vision.
Interlinking People	A project organization structure that interlinks the people working on a project with both internal colleagues and external stakeholders.

Project Organization Structures: Due to the dynamic nature of projects it is possible to have a number of organization structures running concurrently and, over the duration of the project, all of the organization structures might be used at one time or another. These structures outline the relationship between the various participants, the lines of responsibility, the lines of authority and the lines of communication.

Within the organization structures used to manage projects there are a number of variants caused mainly by the distribution of power (authority) between the project manager and the functional manager(s) and the project manager's access to resources.

On projects this relationship can be presented as a continuum of organization structures from functional to pure project (see Figure 4.1).

- Functional organization structure.
- Matrix organization structure.
- Pure project organization structure.

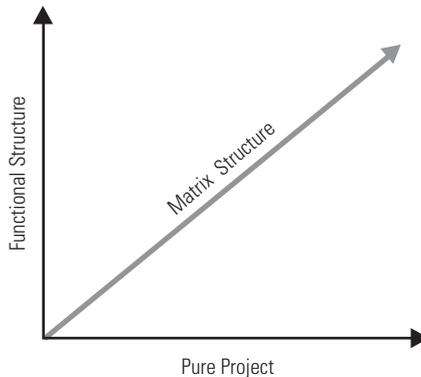


Figure 4.1: Project Organization Structure Continuum – shows the balance of power from the functional organization structure to the matrix organization structure, to the pure project organization structure

A characteristic of project management is that it relies on a number of functional departments and subcontractors to supply the resources to produce the project, each appearing to act autonomously and yet requiring strong communication links with each other. The project manager needs to cut across organizational lines to coordinate and integrate specific resources located in different departments. To achieve this the project manager must have appropriate tools, in particular an information system that not only accommodates interdisciplinary tasks but also has the cross-functional capability of retrieving data from the different departments.

Projects have traditionally been managed through a classic functional hierarchical type organization structure but, with the increase in multi-discipline, multi-department, multi-company and multi-national projects, there has been a move towards management-by-projects, project teams and matrix organization structures.

2. Functional Organization Structure

The most pervasive organization structure is the basic hierarchical structure which has been handed down from the medieval kingdoms, the military and the church. The functional organization structure groups people by specialization (production, marketing, accounts, engineering, etc.). The principle behind the functional structure is that it is easier to manage specialists if they are grouped together and supervised by an individual with similar skills and experiences. This centralizes similar resources, gives an economy of scale, provides mutual support by physical proximity and clearly defines line and staff divisions of responsibility and authority.

Figure 4.2 outlines a typical functional structure with a number of functional departments reporting to the general manager. This structure is ideal for projects within a department, and for projects where the work of each department can be performed separately.

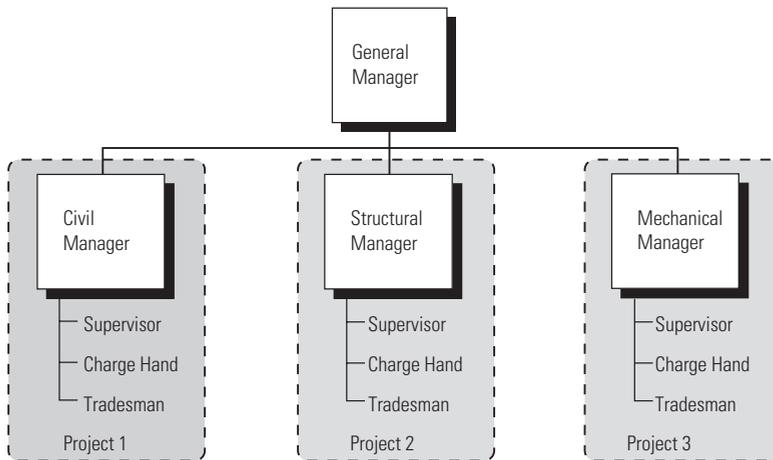


Figure 4.2: Functional Organization Structure – shows a functional organization breakdown structure subdivided into civil, structural and mechanical

For example, on a construction project, the civil department would complete its scope of work and then hand it over to the structural department, which, in turn, would complete its scope of work before handing it over to the mechanical department (see Figure 4.3).

Activity Description	Mon 1	Tues 2	Wed 3	Thurs 4	Fri 5	Sat 6	Sun 7	Mon 8	Tues 9	Wed 10	Thurs 11	Fri 12	Sat 13	Sun 14	Mon 15
Civil	████████████████														
Structural						████████████████									
Mechanical											████████████████				

Figure 4.3: Gantt Chart – shows project work being performed sequentially as separate projects

2.1 Functional Organization Structure Advantages

Table 4.2 considers some of the **advantages** inherent in a functional organization structure, particularly for projects within a department.

Table 4.2: Advantages of a Functional Organization Structure

Simple OBS	The functional department is a simple structure which is easy to understand and easy to use.
Technical Expertise	Functional departments provide a home for technical expertise and a platform for continuing technical development.
Support	Functional departments provide good support for work carried out within the department.
Flexibility	Functional departments can achieve a high degree of flexibility for projects within the department, because people in the department can be assigned to the project, then immediately reassigned to another project. Switching back and forth between projects is easily achieved.
Career Path	Functional departments provide the normal career path within a company for advancement and promotion.
Estimating	A functional department's work is simpler to estimate and simpler to manage as the scope of work is usually restricted to the department's field of expertise, and the functional database should contain information from previous projects (closeout reports).
Communication	Lines of communication within the department are short and well established.
Reaction Time	There is a quick reaction time to problems within the department.
Team Building	As the functional department staff are continually working together, the team building should be well developed in the performing phase (see Chapter 15 on <i>Team Development Phases</i>).
Consistent Work	Some employees prefer working in a consistent work environment with similar work routines, rather than the changeable and challenging work environment of diverse multi-disciplined projects.
Responsibility	Functional departments clearly define the team member's responsibility and authority within a well-established chain of command.

These advantages clearly show that a functional organization structure is an efficient and effective way of managing projects within the functional department.

2.2 Functional Organization Structure Disadvantages

Table 4.3 considers some of the **disadvantages** inherent in a functional organization structure, particularly when being used to manage multi-disciplined projects.

Table 4.3: Disadvantages of a Functional Organization Structure

Single Point of Responsibility	There is no single point of responsibility on multi-disciplined projects as the project's work moves from one department to another; this can lead to coordinating chaos. Without a nominated project manager, the coordinating and linking role must fall to the project sponsor. As projects become larger and more complex, it becomes increasingly difficult for senior management to coordinate the day-to-day problems of individual projects.
Lines of Communication	On multi-disciplined projects there are no formal lines of communication between the workers in the different departments; like a funnel, information flows straight up and down. Generally, the only formal line of communication between departments is through the functional managers, which lengthens the lines of communication and slows down the response time. With these long communication cycles, problem solving and decision making will be self-limiting. In practice, out of necessity, informal links may be established between the people working on the project.
Competition	Competition and conflict between functional departments could limit effective communication of important project information.
Priority	Departmental work might take priority over project work. If there is a resource overload, the department's work will take preference over the project's work. If the activities are critical, the project's schedule will be pushed out, which could delay the handover to the next department and, ultimately, delay the project's completion.
Client	For functional managers the project's work is not always their main focus of concern, particularly when the work has moved to another department. The client (project sponsor) might feel like a football being passed from one department to another. Clients prefer to deal with one person; the project manager.
Coordination	Without a clear project manager the project sponsor might actually end up coordinating the different functional departments himself.
Responsibilities	The responsibility for external coordination with the client, contractors, suppliers and other stakeholders might become muddled because of overlapping, underlapping and inadequately defined responsibilities.
Department Focus	The department might myopically focus only on its scope of work in preference to a holistic view of the project and, consequently, a departmental solution might not result in the best solution for the project as a whole. For example, the production department might want standardization, while the marketing department might want to offer a range of products to attract a wider market.

Table 4.3 (Continued)

Limited Resources	Functional structures are not effective in a multi-project environment because of the conflicts associated with assessing the relative importance and priorities as each project competes for limited resources.
Decision Making	No single department is responsible for the overall project's success; this could lead to decision by committee.
Career Growth	Initially, the career growth for graduates could be quicker and more focused within a functional department, but they could soon reach a limit as they will be constrained by the department's single field of expertise.
Horizontal Coordination	Multi-discipline projects call for horizontal coordination, a characteristic that is foreign to vertically orientated functional hierarchy structures.

3. Matrix Organization Structure

The topology of the matrix structure has the same format as a mathematical matrix (columns and rows). In this case, the vertical lines represent the functional department's responsibility and authority, while the horizontal lines represent the project's responsibility and authority, thus giving the matrix structure its unique appearance and name (see Figure 4.4).

The matrix structure is considered by many practitioners to be the natural project organization structure, as it formalizes the informal links (mentioned in the previous section). On multi-disciplined projects, employees need to communicate vertically within their department to perform their tasks, and horizontally with other departments and the Project Management Office (PMO).

The matrix structure is a temporary structure superimposed on the existing functional structure. The matrix structure is created to respond to the needs of the project where people from the functional departments are assigned to the project on a full-time or part-time basis. When the project is complete, the matrix structure is removed and the functional structure remains intact. The aerospace industry finds this structure works well on medium-sized projects, but for large capital projects they prefer to use the pure project organization structure (see next section).

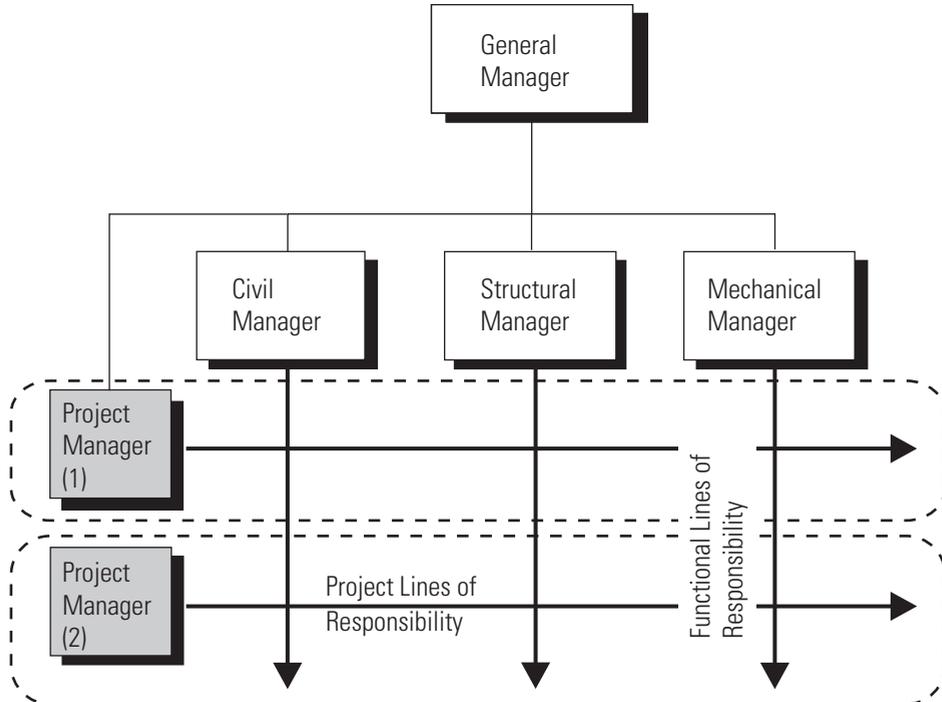


Figure 4.4: Matrix Organization Structure – shows the project managers' (project 1 and project 2) lines of responsibility and authority overlaid on the functional managers' vertical lines of responsibility and authority

Table 4.4 considers some of the **advantages** inherent in the typical matrix organization structure.

Table 4.4: Advantages of a Matrix Organization Structure

Responsibility	The project manager is the clear single point of responsibility .
Resources	The project can draw on the entire resources of the company. When several projects are operating concurrently, the matrix structure allows a time-share of expertise, which should lead to a higher degree of resource utilization.
Share Equipment	By sharing the use of equipment the capital costs can be shared between projects and functional departments.
Rapid Response	The project manager communicating directly with the project sponsor achieves a rapid response to the client's needs.
Problem Solving	Problem solving (brainstorming) can draw on a much wider input for ideas and innovative solutions.
Trade-off	The needs of the project manager and functional manager can be addressed simultaneously by negotiation and trade-off. The project manager is mainly concerned with what and when (scope and planning), while the functional manager is mainly concerned with who and how (resources and technical).
Experts	Teams of experts within the functional department are kept together as the projects come and go.
Many Experiences	The multi-disciplinary environment exposes people to a wider range of experiences.
Career Path	By retaining their functional home, specialists keep their career path.

Table 4.5 considers some of the **disadvantages** inherent in the matrix organization structure.

Table 4.5: Disadvantages of a Matrix Organization Structure

Complex	The matrix organization structure is complex and more difficult to understand than the simpler functional or pure project organization structures.
Communication	More communication links are required to keep the additional number of managers informed and consulted.
Dual Responsibilities	Dual responsibility and authority leads to confusion, divided loyalties, unclear responsibilities and conflicts over priorities and allocation of resources.
Costs	The cost of running a matrix organization is higher than a functional or pure project organization because of the increased number of managers involved in the administration and decision-making process.
Decision Making	With functional projects and pure projects, it is clear who has the power to make decisions, whereas with the matrix structure, the power would be balanced between departments. This could cause doubt and confusion, which means the productivity of the project might suffer.
Complex Decisions	In the matrix structure the project manager controls the administrative decisions, while the functional managers control the technical decisions. Division of power and responsibility could lead to an overly complex situation.
Two Bosses	Where the project and functional lines of influence cross there exists a two-boss situation, which is a recipe for conflict.
Team Selection	Functional departments are unlikely to give up their best personnel to the project, so internal team selection might be self-limiting.

For the matrix organization structure to work successfully the functional departments might have to make some major adjustments to the way they work on projects. The matrix structure introduces new management interfaces and these will increase the potential for conflict. New management skills will be required for the functional managers to accommodate conflicting goals, priorities and resource demands.

The onus is on the project manager to practice an appropriate leadership style towards the functional managers, which would certainly include negotiation to address the trade-off between who controls the what, when, who and how.

A characteristic of the matrix organization structure is that it relies on the functional departments for resources. Although the project and functional departments might appear to work autonomously, for project success, they need strong communication links with each other. The project manager needs to cut across organizational lines to coordinate and integrate specific resources located in the functional departments. To achieve this the project manager must have both a fully integrated information and control system and the means of addressing the responsibility–authority gap (see Chapter 7 on *Power to Influence*).

3.1 Matrix Organization Structure Leadership

In the leadership role, when managing projects within a matrix organization structure, project managers should consider the points outlined in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Considerations for a Matrix Organization Structure

Project Charter	Project managers should use the project charter to substantiate their position and state how the project will be managed. This should particularly outline the relationship between the project manager and the functional managers. If there is no project charter, the project manager should take the initiative and write the project charter and have it signed off by the project sponsor.
Balance of Power	Matrix structures are usually categorized by the balance of power between the project manager and the functional managers.
Flexibility	Because project managers do not have line authority over the resources, they must be prepared to be flexible and adjust the project schedules to fit in with the other functional departments' planning.
Cooperation	Project managers must realize they can achieve little on their own, they need the cooperation and support of the functional managers. The key for project success in a matrix environment is, ' <i>One who gets things done by working through others.</i> '
Negotiation	The project manager needs to develop a good working relationship with the functional managers, contractors and suppliers who own the resources, materials and equipment. The project manager cannot demand resources so, therefore, needs to practice a more participative, consultative, negotiable style of leadership.
Trade-offs	One of the key features of negotiation is the ability to identify what trade-offs can be made and still achieve the project objectives. In the project / functional interface, the acknowledged trade-off is the 'what and when' (scope and schedule) controlled by the project manager, and the 'who and how' (resource and technical) controlled by the functional managers.
Leadership Style	Projects are managed by people with different personalities, different management styles and different leadership styles. Some project managers rely on their persuasiveness and negotiating ability, while others look for position authority and senior management support. In addition, power is dynamic and can change as the project progresses.
Interfaces	The success of a matrix structure is dependent on how the interfaces between the project manager and the functional departments work, because every project decision must be negotiated across this interface. The interface is a natural conflict situation, since many of the objectives between the project and functional departments are different.
Dragging One's Feet	If the project manager feels the functional managers are dragging their feet on supplying resources or sabotaging the project, the project manager must look to outside contractors. This will be easier if the project manager has control of the project budget – this relates back to the project charter.
Specialists	The project manager needs to be aware that certain people might work better in their normal functional environment with their own functional team members where they have functional support. This applies particularly to specialists, designers and engineers who might need support from colleagues within their own discipline.

(Continued)

Table 4.6 (Continued)

Functional Managers	The project manager must appreciate that project work can be an alien environment for some functional managers. They are not used to sharing responsibility and authority, intersecting with other departments and being coordinated by someone outside their department. For the one-off project a softly, softly approach is recommended. However, for a corporate change to the matrix structure, the functional managers might need help adjusting to the new working arrangements as project work starts to take priority over departmental work.
Complexity	Some people find the matrix structure complex and confusing. The project manager should spend time explaining how the matrix structure works and check that the team members understand what is expected from them.
Project Roles	The matrix structure requires multiple roles (functional and project) which are sometimes ambiguous and conflicting. These roles need to be sorted out through discussion and negotiation with the team members.
Cohesive Team	One of the key features of a successful matrix structure is a cohesive team. The project manager should use team-building techniques to encourage the team members to work together effectively.
Communication	The project manager must ensure that there are effective communication channels and free access to information between the project participants.
Conflict	The project manager must have mechanisms in place to resolve interpersonal team conflicts quickly and effectively (see Chapter 22 on <i>Conflict Resolution</i>).
Us and Them	If functional departments develop an ' <i>us and them</i> ' mentality, this can cause friction when a number of departments have to work together on a project. Rivalry between departments is often about competition for resources. It is the project manager's responsibility to smooth things over, defuse misunderstandings and create a healthy working environment.
Competition	The flip-side to interpersonal conflict is competition, which is healthy and can be very productive. It is the project manager's responsibility to keep interpersonal conflict constructive to generate innovative ideas and solve challenging problems.
Two Bosses	The project manager should explain the issues associated with the 'two-boss situation', and make sure the workers are never pawns in an interpersonal conflict with the functional managers.
Empowerment	Project teams tend to work better if they have a greater say in how they carry out their work. To take advantage of this, the project manager should use a collaborative and participative approach and empower the team members to plan their own work, solve their own problems and make their own decisions wherever possible, particularly issues impacting on their own work environment. The project manager should encourage <i>brainstorming</i> techniques to generate lots of creative ideas, followed by decision-making techniques to converge on an optimal solution which has collective support and commitment.

Table 4.6 (Continued)

Domineering Managers	A domineering manager (project or functional) might win a few skirmishes, but sooner or later they will alienate everyone working on the project. Cooperation and negotiation are the key features to successful teamwork. Arbitrary and one-sided decisions by either party will increase the potential for interpersonal conflict.
Matrix Friction	The project manager needs to manage staff continuity. For example, Simon starts a job (say programming), then returns to his functional department when he comes to a hold point. If, when the work continues, Simon is not available, then another person from the programming department is assigned – Mary. Mary has to spend some time getting up to speed on the project, reviewing what Simon has done; this is wasted time which would not have happened if Simon had continued with the job – this is called matrix friction. Couple this with the lack of project commitment from a high number of jobs and it is obvious that team efficiency will be below par.
Termination Anxiety	All people working in a matrix organization structure fear they are going to lose their jobs at the end of the project; in some instances this will be the case. However, the project manager should be able to ease the pain by keeping people informed and helping them to find another position.
Team Needs	The matrix structure often seems to be designed to meet the needs of the project, but not necessarily designed to meet the needs of the team members. The project manager should determine the team members' needs (recognition and sense of achievement) so the team members can be included in the way the project is managed.
Teamwork	The project manager should encourage the project team members to work as a team. Teamwork and participative problem solving must be emphasized, rather than who solves the problem and role definition. The team concept should not be purely 'lip service' but should be nurtured and supported by the project manager. Finger-pointing and backbiting only lead to more serious conflicts and lack of productivity.
Senior Management Support	Research has shown that if support from the top is made obvious then functional manager doubters, and any other reluctant providers of resources, will become less doubtful and less reluctant. It is, therefore, up to the project manager to encourage senior managers to show their support for the project.

For the matrix structure to work successfully the functional departments might have to make major changes in the way they work. The matrix structure introduces new management interfaces and increases the potential for conflict. New management skills might be required to accommodate conflicting goals, priorities and resource demands.

4. Pure Project Organization Structure

The pure project organization structure is similar in shape to the functional organization structure except that all the departments are dedicated to the project. The pure project organization structure has autonomy from the rest of the company as a self-contained unit with its own technical staff and administration (project office). This type of structure is typical of large capital projects – the Olympics, NASA and offshore projects (see Figure 4.5). The project manager has a high level of authority to manage and control the project's resources and constraints.

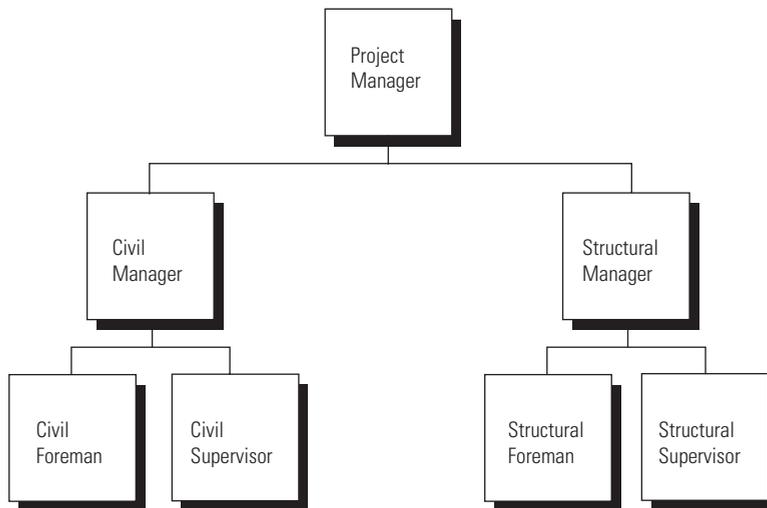


Figure 4.5: Pure Project Organization Structure

The **advantages** of the pure project organization structure are outlined in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Advantages of a Pure Project Organization Structure

Authority	The project manager has full line authority over the project.
Commitment	Team members are totally committed and focused on the project.
Communication	It promotes more effective communication between the project manager and the team members.
Reporting	All members of the workforce report directly to the project manager.
Resources	There are no functional department heads whose permission must be sought to use their resources.
Lines of Communication	The lines of communication are shorter than the multi-disciplined functional route.
Skills	If there is a series of similar projects, the team of skilled experts can be kept together.

Table 4.7 (Continued)

Motivation	Because the project team tends to have a strong separate identity, this encourages a high level of communication between members. Inspiration and motivation are high and task-orientated.
Decisions	With centralized authority, decisions are made quickly.
One Boss	With the one-boss situation, the lines of communication, responsibility and authority are clear and undisputed.
Simple Structure	A pure project presents a simple structure, which is easy to understand, implement and operate.
Holistic Approach	There is a holistic approach to the project.

The **disadvantages** of the pure project organization structure are outlined in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Disadvantages of a Pure Project Organization Structure

Resources	If the parent company has a number of projects running concurrently, with pure project structures this could lead to duplication of effort in many areas and an inefficient use of company resources.
Technical Skills	To ensure that there is access to technical know-how and skills, there might be a propensity to stockpile equipment and personnel. This might lead to resources staying on the project longer than required.
Termination	Project team members work themselves out of a job at the end of the project.
Flow of Ideas	If the project divorces itself from the functional departments and other projects, this could sever the cross-flow of ideas and information within the company.
Employment	As the project cannot offer continuity of employment, this might encourage the company to use subcontractors. If the subcontractors do not generate a detailed closeout report the company will lose valuable experience and information.

4.1 Pure Project Organization Structure Leadership

In the leadership role, when managing projects within a pure project organization structure, the project manager should consider the points outlined in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9: Considerations for a Pure Project Organization Structure

Project Charter	The project manager should establish the project charter with the project sponsor to obtain commitment from the project sponsor to supply the resources and support.
Quality	The project manager should build quality assurance into the pure project structure design, and conduct periodic management audits.

(Continued)

Table 4.9 (Continued)

Recruitment	Projects in a remote location will probably have to look after their own recruitment. As the quality of project personnel will make or break the project, the project manager should develop a recruiting network to ensure the supply of competent personnel and subcontractors.
OBS Costs	On large capital projects, which take years to complete, the project manager needs to watch out for cost creep within the Project Management Office (PMO) as the project matures. Administrations have a tendency to grow over time.
Loyalty	Project teams are formed to complete the project. It is the project manager's responsibility to encourage the team members to work together and build loyalty towards the project.
Phase Out	As project work is completed, it is the project manager's responsibility to start phasing down on a timely basis.
Termination	All project employment has to come to an end sooner or later. It is the project manager's responsibility to make project termination as painless as possible. The project manager can help employees find other employment and help them with contacts and references.

The pure project organization structure establishes a unity of command for the project and promotes effective formal communication channels between the project manager, the project team, the project sponsor and other stakeholders.

EXERCISES:

1. Discuss how you would lead multi-disciplined projects that span a number of departments; relate this to a project you are familiar with.
2. Discuss how you would manage the two-boss situation found in the matrix organization structure; relate this to a project you are familiar with.
3. The pure project organization structure gives the project manager full control over the resources. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of this arrangement; relate this to a project you are familiar with.

Leadership Behaviors

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter you should be able to:

- Understand why leadership behaviors are what make leaders.
- Identify a range of important behaviors that are adopted by successful leaders.
- Understand why these behaviors are important.

W

e judge ourselves on our *intentions*, others judge us on our *behaviors*.

'Behaviors' is the name we give to things we *do*. Our behaviors are usually driven by our *values*; they are what others observe about us and what they use to decide the type of person we are. For example, someone might notice that we are late for a project meeting. If this is the first time, then their opinion of us might not change, but if our tardiness is observed regularly, then their opinion of us probably will change.

Certain behaviors are more socially acceptable than others. In the example above, our consistent lateness might only be annoying. However, if we have told a lie, then just one occasion might get us the label of 'liar'!

For a leader, behaviors are everything. It is the outward perception that creates the perception in others of us as a leader. This perception is finely balanced and, if our behaviors are not consistent with what is expected from a leader, then we are not seen as 'a leader'.

1. What are Leadership Behaviors?

Leadership behaviors are what we do in response to how we interpret leadership theories within a particular situation. For example, we can look at Adair's Action Centred Leadership model (see Chapter 6 on *Leadership Theories and Styles*) and determine how our behavior shows a preference for task, team or individual well-being. If we consistently emphasize achievement of the task above team and individual concerns (e.g. getting the job complete by the deadline demands excessive overtime at the expense of the team's health), then we will be labeled as a particular type of 'leader'. This is regardless of what we say about our intentions. There is a wealth of evidence that arises to support this view when we observe politicians at work!

Another example is to consider Berne's Transactional Analysis. A leader will have an effective communication style that fits the situation and be able to move appropriately between the different Parent/Adult/Child roles.

2. Competent Project Leadership

Our ability to exhibit appropriate leadership behaviors depends upon the situation. We might be an Olympic standard swimmer and can demonstrate this with ease in a swimming pool. If we find ourselves falling overboard from an ocean liner at sea, or in a fast-moving river through rapids, then the Olympic swimming skills will be helpful, but our performance could be compromised by the way water moves differently in our new environment.

In the same way, we may be able to demonstrate effective leadership within a small team environment where we are comfortable with the associated technical skill needed for product delivery. However, if we move to a larger team containing people we don't know, or we move from leading a team providing information technology projects into a sales-focused team, then parts of our environment that give us confidence have changed. This change of situation can cause us to move back down our leadership 'learning curve', resulting in reduced performance. This means it becomes more difficult to demonstrate good leadership behaviors in these new situations.

However, there are some key things that a leader can keep in mind to maintain effective leadership behaviors in difficult situations. Stephen Covey has written much about these key behaviors, such as the seven habits and principle-centred leadership. Some of these and others will be presented later in this chapter.

3. The Logic of Failure

Dietrich Dörner from the University of Bamberg, Germany is an authority on cognitive behavior, specializing in logic and the theory of action. His research using computer-based simulations investigated how people respond to difficult and complex situations. It is interesting that, rather than identifying how people are successful in such situations, he was able to explain why it is so easy to get it wrong! Many people attempted his simulated tasks and few succeeded to achieve very simple outcomes. His data showed that there are fundamentally three criteria that, potentially, lead towards failure. By addressing these three criteria, it can be possible to convert failure into success (see Table 5.1).

Reflection and Reviewing Information: Participants in Dörner's simulations spent time collecting and understanding information at the start of the activity and then, as the activity progressed, they continued to rely on their original analysis and assumptions. They failed to take account of the changing situation that resulted from their earlier actions affecting the status of the problem. Therefore, we can suggest that continuous or periodic review of the status of the situation by updating and analyzing new data is more likely to yield a successful outcome.

Asking Questions: Similarly, participants asked questions early in the activity, reducing the number of questions as they switched to actions that were based on their original data. Maintaining a questioning approach throughout the activity should improve their chances of success.

Making Decisions: Contrary to the previous two criteria, the trend for unsuccessful participants as the activity continued was to increase the number of decisions they made. These decisions were based upon out-of-date information, driven by a need for urgent action to correct a failing situation. It seems sensible, then, to balance the number of decisions made with necessary action. This is similar to the different approach needed to control a vehicle on land, on water or in the air. Anyone who has steered a boat or flown an airplane knows that these vehicles need small and steady steering commands that gently maneuver the boat or plane. On the other hand, a land-based vehicle, such as a car or bicycle, can respond to quick and changeable steering inputs. Successful leadership decisions need careful and steady deliberation to avoid challenges about changed minds and 'u-turns'.

A summary of Dörner's findings indicates that poorly performing participants:

- Acted without prior analysis of the situation.
- Failed to anticipate side effects and long-term repercussions.
- Assumed that the absence of immediately obvious side effects meant there was no need for corrective measures.
- Let over-involvement in detail cause blindness to changes in situations and emerging needs.
- Were prone to cynical reactions, blaming others and groupthink.

Table 5.1: Key Criteria for Failure and Success – shows trends for how unsuccessful participants responded to Dörner's simulations and suggestions for how these responses could be modified for success

	Unsuccessful Action	Successful Action
Reflection and Information Gathering	Relies on initially collected data and analysis.	Collects and analyzes new data throughout. Rethinks the situation as it changes.
Asking Questions	Asks questions initially.	Continually questions and challenges throughout
Making Decisions	Increases number of decisions made to satisfy demand for action	Balances frequency of decisions with action needed.

These difficulties arise because the problems that leaders face, whether directly within projects or elsewhere, involve multiple interconnected environments, situations and events that are described as *systems*. Additionally, these systems change over time, often at different rates, to create a set of dynamic, complex circumstances that cannot be solved by simple, deterministic methods. Leaders must interact with such dynamic systems in a way that produces results.

Oftentimes, projects are examples of such dynamic systems where multiple tasks are ongoing at the same time, each task progressing at different rates, each task having many interconnections with other tasks, both within and external to the project. These interconnections also include personal relationships between people working on them.

Dealing with dynamic systems creates time pressure. Leaders cannot wait long before acting because the system can change, making the proposed action no longer relevant. For example, one of our contractors might win a large, important contract from another company that removes their resources from the work they are doing for us. These events are often outside our control and we think we can only observe. A smart leader will be looking for trends, i.e. how a system changes over time and recognizing that our understanding of a system is usually wrong or, at least, incomplete.

As projects become more about change processes than about building power stations, understanding these concepts becomes more important. Even in large construction projects, such as building an Olympic Park, success is not just in solving technical problems, but in understanding how people will respond to and interact with the completed structures and layout.

This is why the information in this book is so important to inform how a Project Management Leader can respond to, and engage with, these types of situations. Normal 'command and control' responses cannot work because, for example, it cannot be easily determined what needs to be controlled, how control must be applied and how much control will yield results. Therefore, leaders need to maintain a high-level perspective, avoiding being over-distracted by detail and short-term gains.

4. Covey's Seven Habits

Habits are things that we do as part of our daily experience. They represent a default action that is a personal choice and drive our behaviors. For example, we might always put sugar in our tea. The first time we have sugar, the reason might be that sugar makes tea taste better. Over time, we get used to the sweet taste and tea is not tea without added sugar – we cannot conceive tea without sugar – it has become a habit.

Habits can be changed. After recognizing that too much sugar is not good for me, I decided to stop using sugar. It took a while for me to get used to tea without sugar. Now, tea does not taste like tea with sugar in it. I changed my habit. In the same way, we can change our leadership habits and behave differently to better cope with leadership situations.

Stephen Covey identified seven important habits, not only helpful for leaders, but also for coping with life.

Habit 1 – Be proactive: A leader is prepared, has done the necessary homework and is ready for what is within the foreseeable horizon. The outward view of an inspirational leader is like the view of a graceful swan gliding effortlessly over the water, though beneath the surface, hidden from view, the swan's legs are working hard to propel the swan along. Behind the scenes, the leader is properly organized from the result of effective thinking and planning.

This preparation not only involves project-related information, but also personal development needs (see habit 7).

Habit 2 – Begin with the end in mind: The seven habits often align nicely with the project management process. When we start a project we must first identify the objectives that define what the project must achieve. This habit suggests the same thing for our leadership action. We must think about what our desired result is, envision what that will be like and then we can design a way to achieve those objectives.

Habit 3 – Put first things first: This habit is about setting priorities. This is a good way to deal with conflicts that arise when decision making. Once we know what our most important objective is, we can emphasize this need in our thinking and action. Covey emphasizes the need to prioritize things that are important over things that are urgent. Important things have a high value and we benefit from their completion. Urgency only implies a tight deadline; if urgent things are not providing value then they should not be done at all!

Habit 4 – Think win/win: This is an important part of the negotiation process (see Chapter 18 on *Negotiation*) where all parties involved leave the negotiation with their goals achieved. It is not always easy to find a solution that fits all people's needs, but the desire to achieve a win/win

outcome is an important leadership habit that drives effective behaviors. The outcome is that our behaviors show that we are concerned with the needs of others and are prepared to compromise in order to help them achieve their goals.

Habit 5 – Seek first to understand, then to be understood: This is effectively telling us to put on our brakes. When someone else is talking, have you ever found yourself just waiting for them to finish, so that you can tell them your point? This happens more often than we care to admit. Leaders must develop a listening habit that allows real understanding of other people's perspectives. If we do not understand the other person's point of view, how can we be an effective leader? For example, combining habits 3 to 5, if we don't know what priorities drive someone else's needs and behaviors, how can we achieve a win/win outcome?

Habit 6 – Synergize: We know that a team is more than the sum of its parts. A leader continuously looks for opportunities for combining people and/or things in order to produce additional benefits beyond those achievable when they are separate.

Habit 7 – Sharpen the saw: Leaders are always seeking improvement, both in themselves and in others. Personal development and growth is top priority for effective leaders and it is rarely subverted in favor of other needs. For example, it may be quicker and cheaper to allocate a task to a specialist, but we could give it to an inexperienced team member to help them learn and develop. The extra cost and time invested will allow the team member to broaden their skills and be more able to complete similar tasks in the future. Leaders are also continually developing their own abilities and seeking opportunities that take them outside of their 'comfort zone'.

Covey's eighth habit – In 2004, Covey published an eighth habit that built upon Peter Drucker's notions of knowledge workers, an important concept for the 21st century. Knowledge workers represent a high proportion of today's workforce who apply a specific skill set that has moved beyond an apprentice stage, providing a complicated or complex service that is not achievable by the people who are their supervisors. For example, a photocopy repairer has collected a range of diagnostic skills needed to identify photocopier faults. These are skills not held by their supervisors who are usually scheduling and allocating workload from calls received. This largely destroys the notions of 'superiors' and 'subordinates' and is one of the reasons why people who can exhibit effective leadership behaviors are in high demand.

Covey suggests that leaders need to find their own style, and help others to find theirs, building upon four components of nature – body, heart, mind and spirit – that provide a breadth of focus for developing leadership behaviors. These can be linked to Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (see Chapter 19 on *Motivation*) and Covey's earlier Principle-Centred Leadership.

In Principle-Centred Leadership, Covey emphasizes the need for trust in organizations. He claims that the lack of trust equates to a malevolent virus that destroys the ability of an organization to

operate successfully. Covey developed a model that shows the focus for leaders at each of four organizational levels. This is shown in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2: Leadership Focus for Organizational Levels – shows the key focus for leaders at each of the four main organizational levels

Organizational Level:	Focus:
Organizational	Alignment
Managerial	Empowerment
Interpersonal	Trust
Personal	Trustworthy

At the *organizational* level, the focus is *alignment*, ensuring that all objectives align with the company mission and strategy. This means that all the active energy in a company aligns with the company's purpose. For a project leader, this means that the project objectives must be in line with company objectives.

At the *managerial* level, where company action is organized and controlled, the emphasis is on *empowerment*, allowing workers to show incentive and initiative to complete work needed to achieve their objectives. Leaders must remember that empowerment includes workers having authority needed to complete their work. Also, leaders must recognize that empowerment is not given, it is received. This means that, if people do not believe that they are empowered, or choose to be empowered, then they are not empowered. Just telling someone they are empowered is not enough.

At the level where people work together, the level Covey calls the *interpersonal* level, the focus is *trust*. Trust is the 'oil' that makes the operation work at this level. Without this 'oil', the operation will grind to a halt.

For each *individual* worker, to enable trust, each one must be *trustworthy*.

Leaders must engender trust at all times through their behavior. The easiest way to do this is to be trustworthy and to trust others (until they betray that trust). Ricardo Semler writes about his decision to remove a security perimeter from Semco's manufacturing site in Brazil during the early 1980s. The purpose of the perimeter and security guards was to prevent theft of company-owned tools and materials. He found that the cost of maintaining the perimeter was far higher than the cost of theft. More importantly, he recognized that removal of the perimeter would demonstrate trust in his employees that resulted in reduction of losses due to theft. It is said that the best way to encourage someone to be trustworthy is to trust them.

5. Effective and Unsuccessful Leadership Behaviors

Things that leaders do, their behaviors, can be effective in promoting them as leaders and contribute to creating successful outcomes, or they can do the opposite. Specific behavior depends upon the situation and the desired outcomes, but there are some general guidelines that suggest some behaviors are better in most, if not all, situations. Similarly, there are other behaviors that are most likely to achieve failure or suggest lack of leadership abilities.

The earlier sections in this chapter draw upon the work of Dörner and Covey to indicate important leadership behaviors. Table 5.3 introduces some additional behaviors that contribute to either effective or unsuccessful leadership.

Table 5.3: Leadership Behaviors – shows a broad range of suggested leadership behaviors for effective and unsuccessful leadership

	Leadership Behaviors	
	Effective	Unsuccessful
Working with Others	Shows interest in and responsive to the needs of others	Does not demonstrate personal commitment to/respect of others
	Loyal to colleagues, respects others	Talks about others behind their backs, disrespectful
	Recognizes commitment, hard work and focus from others	Does not recognize contribution of others
	Agrees objectives and expectations for self and others	Fails to agree objectives and clarify expectations
	Reviews performance against objectives and expectations	Tolerates low standards and poor performance
	Enables and empowers others to act on initiative	Discourages new thinking
Communication	Exhibits active listening	Disregards or does not value input from others
	Gives clear messages	Unclear, vague communication
Meetings	Schedules and conducts effective meetings	Re-arranges/cancels meetings at the last minute
	Distributes agenda and associated paperwork in advance	Agenda presented at meeting or no agenda

(Continued)

Table 5.3 (Continued)

	Leadership Behaviors	
	Effective	Unsuccessful
Problem Solving and Decision Making	Takes personal ownership of problems	Does not take responsibility, ownership or accountability
	Consults others in decision making	Does not involve others in decision making
	Utilizes information, knowledge and experience effectively in decision making	Does not seek out or value information, knowledge or experience to support decision making
Organizing and Thinking Ahead	Proactive: effective planning and management	Reactive: does not plan, responds to situations when they arise
	Congruent: aligns intentions, words and deeds	Hidden agendas, secretive
	Considers how detail informs and aligns with the big picture	Focuses on detail rather than the big picture
	Is able to think out of the box.	Constrains thinking to within known parameters
Commitment	Is personally prepared to tackle difficulties or sensitive issues	Displays reluctance to embrace conflict or sensitive issues
	Demonstrates contagious passion, motivation and enthusiasm	Appears distant or not engaged
Personal Style	Prepared to acknowledge own mistakes and learn from them	Hides own mistakes or repeats them
	Keeps an open mind and evaluates the situation after reviewing information	Jumps to conclusions, allocates blame
	Maintains a balanced and unbiased approach	Becomes emotional, irrational or temperamental

EXERCISES:

1. Think about your behaviors and compare them to those identified by Dörner and Covey.
2. Give at least three examples of when you have behaved in a way that supports effective leadership behaviors. How did these behaviors contribute to a successful outcome?
3. Give at least three examples of when your behavior did not support an effective leadership approach. In these situations, how do you think your behavior could be modified in order to improve the outcome?

Key Points:

1. Leadership only manifests through the behaviors of a leader.
2. There are behaviors that contribute to effective leadership and other behaviors that detract from it.
3. The choice of the best leadership behaviors depends on the situation and desired outcomes. However, there are important leadership behaviors that are applicable to most situations.

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Leadership Theories and Styles

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter you should be able to:

- Investigate the various leadership styles and identify how particular theories can offer an effective approach to suit the situation.
- Understand the appropriate leadership theories.
- Understand the circumstances that suggest particular leadership theories.

Leadership theories are developed to inform our understanding of leadership and to improve leadership skills and behaviors. These approaches can only represent suggestions and approximations to what really happens in leadership situations.

However, the approximations provide insights into specific situations and help us to determine an appropriate leadership response. Also, investigating these theories can give a historical perspective about how approaches to leadership have developed.

Leadership theories help us to identify and categorize different leadership styles adopted by leaders in different situations. Leadership style is found to be reliant upon a number of issues:

- The personality of the leader.
- The maturity of followers.
- The current situation.
- The wider needs of the environment.

Effective leaders are able to adapt their style of leadership to suit the prevailing circumstances. Also, these theories are important for followers to recognize the approach taken by their leaders. The following sections provide some important current and historical leadership theories.

1. Leadership Theories

Leadership theory suggests that we can take a range of perspectives, or show different preferences for how we understand leadership. These are key to recognizing why academics and authors, for example, find it difficult to agree and explain what leadership is. Attending to each of these different perspectives means that the nature of leadership continues to be investigated and discussed.

There is a range of theories that suggest different approaches or leadership styles.

1.1 'Great Person' Theory

This theory evolved from observations of great leaders from history, whether this be military, spiritual, intellectual or political. In some cases, this theory assumes that leaders are born, not made. However, there are implications that the 'great people' are great leaders as a result of learning from situations throughout their lives. In essence, this theory suggests that we can emulate and learn from the actions of great leaders.

1.2 Trait Theories

Trait theories offer an extension to 'great man theories', suggesting that there is a set of traits or inner qualities that can define a leader. If we adopt these traits, then we too can be a successful leader. Some leaders will be born with effective traits, others can learn them through exposure or study. This type of theory is fundamental to many training courses that provide opportunities to investigate such traits.

1.3 Behavioral Theories

Behavioral theories suggest that leadership is embedded in the actions of leaders. This develops the trait theories from some inherent qualities of leadership into considering what leaders do. Chapter 5 on *Leadership Behaviors* develops this concept further. These theories suggest that leaders can be made, i.e. leadership skills can be learnt and developed.

Fundamentally, our behaviors are driven by our values and, in leadership terms, there are some perspectives on value categories that are represented by simplified theories. For example, where is the focus of decision making? If the leader makes the decisions, then this is an *Authoritative* or *Autocratic* leadership style. If the leader involves the project team in decisions, then the leader is adopting a *Participative* or *Democratic* leadership style. When a leader has minimal involvement and leaves decisions to the project team, this is a *Laissez Faire* leadership style.

In some situations, a leader adopting what appears to be a Laissez Faire style can be providing a *Supportive* or *Servant* style that is proactively providing effective management of the environment. Here, the leader ensures that any negative external influences do not affect the project team and that the team can take full advantage of any positive external effects.

1.4 Contingency and Situational Theories

These theories suggest that the specific leadership style is determined by the external environment or specific situation. So, if we have a mature, expert project team, it is more appropriate to adopt a Laissez Faire leadership style, rather than an Authoritarian style. For more information, please see Section 3 about Situational Leadership in this chapter.

1.5 Transactional Theories

Transactional theories are applicable to a managerial approach to leadership. They offer a simplistic style that is based upon ‘transactions’ or instructions between a manager and employee that can be linked to reward for successful completion of work, or, possibly, punishment for perceived failure.

For example, McGregor (1960) proposed two fundamental approaches to managing people, which he labeled Theory X and Theory Y.

McGregor’s Theory X – Authoritarian Leadership Style: This leadership style assumes that the average person will do their best to avoid work and responsibility so, therefore, they must be directed and forced to work. Theory X assumes that the workforce is unambitious and requires occupational security. Using the Theory X leadership style, the project leader’s role would be to coerce and control the team members to achieve the project objectives.

McGregor’s Theory Y – Participative Leadership Style: The participative leadership style assumes that people enjoy work and will take responsibility by applying and directing themselves to further the aims of their company. These people do not need to be controlled, their performance is achieved through participation, collaboration and reward for their achievement. Using the Theory Y leadership style, the project leader’s role would be to help develop the team members’ potential to achieve the project objectives.

McGregor’s contention was that Theory Y represented a more accurate profile of human nature in the workplace. He felt the limit was the leaders’ ingenuity in discovering how to realize the potential of their human resources. McGregor also observed the self-fulfilling prophecy, where managers who assume their people are lazy and uncooperative often ended up with just that; McGregor found the converse was also true. Managers’ assumptions about their people tend to condition the way they approach their own role and the reaction they receive.

As a result of these observations McGregor suggested that the essential task of management is to create opportunities, release human potential, remove obstacles, encourage growth and provide guidance. He referred to this as management-by-objectives (MBO).

This transactional style is useful in projects as it can be supported by contracts (at team, personal, employment and subcontractor levels) and, seemingly, enforced through reward or punishment. This requires accurate and appropriate evidence to be provided to prove successful achievement of objectives.

CASE STUDY

For an example of Theory X and Theory Y in action, consider company X, which practices Theory X, where everyone clocks in at 8 and clocks out at 5 precisely; the cards are always checked for late-comers. Whereas in company Y, which practices Theory Y, the staff also work 8–5 but no one clocks in or out and if someone is late there is an understanding that they will make it up another day.

Now consider what is likely to happen if both companies are awarded a rush project that must be completed as soon as possible. In company X the staff will continue to clock-in at 8 and leave at 5 precisely; they are time focused not task focused. However, in company Y, the staff will start earlier and work later to finish the work on time; the team is project work focused. There is an understanding that they will either be paid overtime or a bonus, or they can take time off as required.

1.6 Transformational Leadership Theories

These theories place emphasis on developing relationships through effective communication, motivation and influence. Transformational leaders are non-inspirational, sometimes relying on charismatic presence, though an effective style can evolve through practicing positive behaviors (see Chapter 5 on *Leadership Behaviors*). This is usually the most appropriate leadership style to adopt for most situations.

Transformational leaders are able to balance the needs of the task whilst attending to team issues and developing people, all at the same time. We will look in more detail at this leadership style in the next section.

2. Action Centered Leadership

John Adair developed a leadership model that focuses on leadership action. The model suggests that the leader should focus on three responsibilities: Task, Team and Individual, acting according to the demands of each (see Figure 6.1). Some people acknowledge that Adair, who developed leadership training for Sandhurst Military Academy, was the first to suggest that leadership can be an acquired skill that can be learnt and developed.

It is important to note that the leader must attend to all three of the task, team and individual responsibilities but can focus on each one at different times in order to deal with specific needs.

Achievement of the Task: Most frequently, the purpose of a group/team is to complete some work, so the leader needs to maintain focus on achievement of objectives. The leadership responsibilities are:

- To ensure the aims and vision of the group, its purpose and direction are identified and agreed.
- To facilitate acquisition of resources needed by the group to achieve the task.
- To ensure the group's plan identifies appropriate strategies and tactics with clearly defined deliverables, measures of success, budgets, deadlines and timescales.
- To ensure that accountabilities, objectives and measures are established and agreed for all group members and that work is delegated.
- To ensure that quality standards, effective reporting, monitoring and control structures for the task are established.

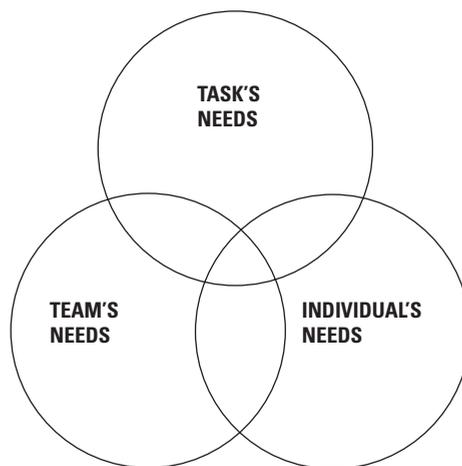


Figure 6.1: Action Centered Leadership – shows the intersecting circles of the task's needs, the team's needs and the individual's needs

Maintenance of the Group: A leader must ensure that the group's collective needs are identified and group cohesion is maintained. Leadership responsibilities for maintaining the group are:

- Facilitate or assist the formation and maintenance of a team or group charter that establishes shared values, ethics and standards of performance and behavior.
- Encourage the team to focus on its objectives and uphold the principles of the team charter to motivate the group towards a collective sense of purpose.
- Enable, facilitate and ensure that there is effective communication within the team and with appropriate external agencies.
- Anticipate conflicts and disagreements in the group and assist the group to work through them in a supportive manner, identifying and capturing lessons from the experience.
- Help to identify and review the group roles, composition and suggest modifications to team structure that would help to better balance the group.
- Assist team development, training, morale, team spirit and cooperation.
- Help to develop the collective maturity and capability of the group so that it can work with increased freedom and authority for action.
- Provide supportive feedback to the group about progress and team issues and seek similar comment and feedback from the group.

Support for the Individual: Each member of the group or team will have their own personal needs, and the leader will need to support individuals to maintain their personal effectiveness and contribution to team success. To support individuals, the leader must address the following responsibilities:

- Understand each team member's personality, skills, strengths, needs, personal goals and fears.
- Support each individual to achieve their personal plans, deal with their problems and challenges and respond appropriately to their successes and failures.
- Help to align personal objectives and accountabilities with the group needs, building on the capabilities and strengths of each team member.
- Provide appropriate recognition and praise to individuals, acknowledging their effort and good work. Where appropriate, reward with extra responsibility, advancement, status, freedom and authority.
- Assist personal development and training.

Adair's view of leadership also implies that motivation is not solely generated internally within an individual. External factors, including an effective leadership style, can spark motivation in others.

3. Situational Leadership

This set of leadership styles suggests that different styles are better in different situations, and that effective leaders must be flexible enough to adapt their style depending upon the working maturity of their followers. An effective situational leader is one who can quickly change leadership styles as the situation changes.

Blanchard and Hershey (1969) characterized the situational leadership style in terms of the amount of direction and support that the leader provides to their followers. The styles follow a natural progression through the development of the follower as four behavior types, as shown in Figure 6.2.

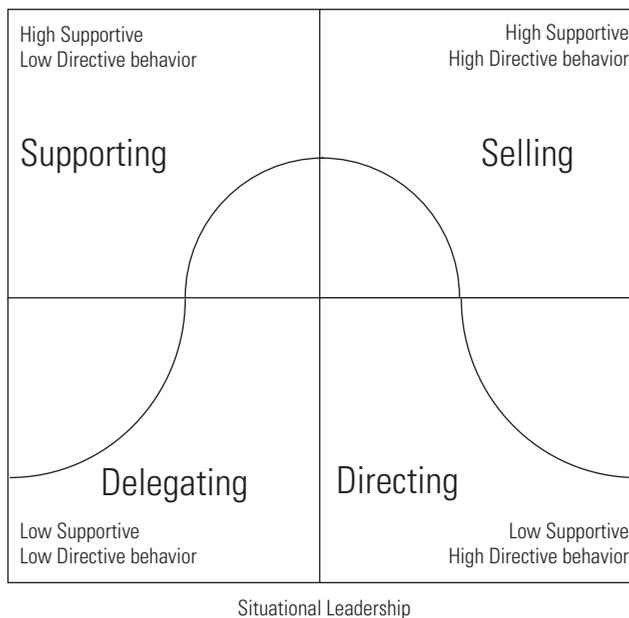


Figure 6.2: Situational Leadership – the route from Directing to Delegating

Directing or ‘Telling’ Leadership style is appropriate for followers who lack competence but are enthusiastic and committed to the work. They need direction and supervision to get them started.

Coaching or ‘Selling’ Leadership style is for followers who have some competence but lack commitment to the task. These followers need direction and supervision because they are relatively inexperienced. They also need support and praise to build their self-esteem, and involvement in decision making to build their commitment.

Supporting Leadership style is for followers who have competence but lack confidence or motivation. These followers do not need much direction because of their developed skills but leader support is necessary to bolster their confidence and motivation.

Delegating Leadership style is for followers who have both competence and commitment. These followers have the ability and drive to work on a project by themselves with little supervision or support from the leader.

The four situational leadership styles suggest that leaders should put greater or less focus on the task in question and/or the relationship between the leader and the follower, depending on the development level of the follower (see Table 6.1).

3.1 Situational Leadership/Development Matching

Consider the situation where a new person joins your project and you are asked to help the person during the first few days. If you were to provide instructions and 'leave them to it', expecting the work to be completed without further direction, you would be applying a delegating style. Would this be appropriate in these circumstances? The new team member will likely feel helpless and demotivated and it is unlikely that the work will be done properly. Generally, a new person on the team needs direction and support – a directing style.

Example: Consider this example on a sailing yacht. The navigator reports to the skipper that the latest weather forecast has issued a gale warning. As skipper how do you respond?

Skipper to crew:

Directing: *'I want you to put one reef in the main and change the headsail to the storm jib.'*

Coaching: *'The navigator says we are in for a bit of a blow, I think you should put one reef in the main and set the storm jib.'*

Supporting: *'The navigator says we are in for a bit of a blow. How can I help?'*

Delegating: *'A gale is forecast.'*

Another example of mismatched styles is when you are handing over work to an experienced colleague. If you leave detailed instructions with a list of all the tasks needed to be completed, you have adopted the directing leadership style. The work will likely be done, but how will your colleague feel about how you have dealt with them? Perhaps the colleague needs a supportive style if some of the work is unfamiliar, or a delegating style.

Adopting the appropriate style to suit the follower's development level and experience can get work done properly, build solid relationships and provide effective development opportunities.

Table 6.1: Situational Leadership Styles – focus and action

	Leader's Attention to Task	Follower's Ability to Complete Task	Leader/Follower Relationship Focus	Process and Roles Defined by	Communication	Led or Decisions Taken by	Supervision by Leader	Action
Directing (or Telling)	High	Low	Low	Leader	One-way, leader to follower	Leader	High	Leader determines follower's ability and confidence. Leader provides clear instructions for the follower to do the work.
Coaching (or Selling)	High	Some	High	Leader	2-way, but mostly leader to follower	Mostly leader	High	Leader is dealing with developing ability or over-confidence. Leader sells, listens, advises and assists by explaining and clarifying decisions and action. Follower involved in decision process to build skill and confidence.
Supporting	Low	High, but incomplete	High	Follower	2-way, mostly follower to leader	Follower, leader takes part	Low	Follower is not fully competent or feels insecure about completing the task. Leader wants to find out where follower still needs support.
Delegating	Low	High	Low	Follower	Minimal	Follower	Minimal	Follower is able and motivated to complete the task. Follower involves leader when needed. Leader trusts follower and provides recognition and praise at the end of the task

4. Authority

A similar model to Situational Leadership is suggested by Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973). This model also has a strong dependency on the development of the follower and the component styles are also similar. The model is influenced by the relative authority exercised by the team or retained by the leader. As the leader's authority is passed to the project team, the style of leadership changes (see Figure 6.3).

There is close correlation of the styles with the Situational Leadership model and allocation of authority can be compared with the result of the transition between directive and supportive styles.

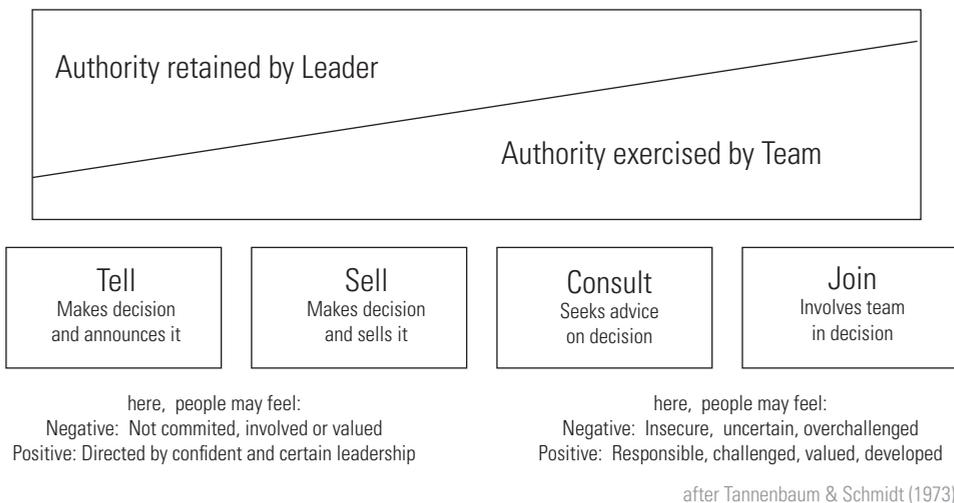


Figure 6.3: Residence of Authority in the Leader – Team relationship. Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1973

5. Emotional Intelligence (EI) Leadership Styles

Based upon his work on Emotional Intelligence (EI) (see Chapter 9 on *Emotional Intelligence*), Daniel Goleman describes six leadership styles that have some overlapping concepts with the Situational Leadership model. We will identify where the overlaps can be considered. Goleman further developed his six leadership styles after their initial publication (Goleman, 1998). The original names are provided in parentheses for reference.

- Visionary (or Authoritative).
- Coaching.
- Affiliative.
- Democratic.
- Commanding (or Coercive).
- Pacesetting.

Goleman asserts that, *‘Leaders who have mastered four or more styles — especially the Authoritative, Democratic, Affiliative and Coaching styles — have the best climate and business performance’*. This means that leaders do not need to be conversant with all of the EI leadership styles and that there are some positive styles that effective leaders are advised to develop (see Table 6.2). However, the more positive styles in their repertoire, the more likely it is they will have a better working environment and business results.

5.1 Visionary Style

This leadership style generally improves every aspect of organizational climate and works well in almost any project situation. A visionary project leader has vibrant enthusiasm, clear vision and motivates people, clearly identifying how their work fits into the larger vision of the project. The project team understands what it does and why it matters, improving commitment to project goals and strategies. Standards for success are clear and the project team has freedom to innovate with flexibility in accomplishing its tasks.

5.2 Coaching Style

The coaching style is a powerful tool that generally has a positive impact on climate in the project. The focus is on development and this style improves commitment with motivated followers who want to improve performance. The leader provides supportive feedback. Therefore, coaching generally improves results, the project team feels cared about and free to

experiment. Unfortunately, this style appears to be used the least often, since leaders say they don't have the time to help people grow. When implemented badly, the coaching style has the appearance of micro-management.

5.3 Affiliative Style

The affiliative leader tries to create harmony and build strong emotional bonds, by creating a sense of belonging and building relationships, which all have a positive effect on trust and loyalty. This style works well in general, and is particularly good when trying to build team harmony, increase morale, improve communication or repair broken trust. The focus is on emotions and feelings which are shared openly and the leader provides positive feedback that is motivating. The affiliative style is not appropriate when people need clear direction to navigate through complex challenges. Alternating the visionary style with the approach of the affiliative leader produces a potent combination.

5.4 Democratic Style

The democratic leader spends time getting buy-in, building trust, respect and commitment. People have a say in decisions that affect their goals and how they do their work which keeps morale high. Such consultation has drawbacks due to the time it takes to be effective and this can adversely affect the project climate. This style works best when the leader is uncertain about direction and needs to seek the views of the project team, or for generating fresh ideas for executing the vision. In times of crisis, consensus may not be effective.

5.5 Commanding Style

This leadership style is least effective in most situations, and has a negative impact on the project climate. Decision making is autocratic, which kills ideas from the team; their sense of initiative and ownership disappears. There is a feeling of intimidation, little accountability for project performance and the team stops bringing bad news, or any news at all, in fear of getting blamed for it. The commanding style should be used with extreme caution, possibly during a crisis or genuine emergency; the long-term impact is ruinous to the project team.

5.6 Pacesetter Style

The pacesetter leader sets high expectations and is obsessive about doing things faster and better, and expects the same of everyone else. Poor performers get replaced and morale drops as

Table 6.2: Emotional Intelligence Leadership Styles – adapted from Goleman *et al.* (2002), *Primal Leadership*

Leadership Style	Effectiveness	Purpose	When Appropriate	When not Appropriate
Visionary	Most strongly positive	Mobilize people towards a vision	When changes require a new vision or direction is required. Most situations.	If followers are more expert, a grand vision might be seen as pompous or out of step.
Coaching	Positive	Develop people for the future	To help employee improve performance or develop long-term strengths	When follower resists change, lacks motivation or needs excessive direction or feedback.
Affiliative	Positive	Creates harmony and builds emotional bonds	To heal rifts in a team or to motivate people during stressful circumstances	Should not be used alone: poor performance can go uncorrected.
Democratic	Positive	Forges consensus through participation	To build buy-in or consensus or to get input from valuable employees	Can lead to dithering when consensus is elusive. When decisions are urgent.
Commanding	Negative – least effective in most situations.	Demands immediate compliance	Works best in a crisis, to kick start a project or with problem employees. Use judiciously	At all other times.
Pacesetter	Negative	Sets high standards of performance	To get quick results from a highly motivated and competent team	At all other times.

Emotional Drivers	Typical Phrase	Action and Results
Self-confidence, self-awareness, empathy, transparency	'Come with me'	<p>Articulate where the group is going, but not how it will get there.</p> <p>This style reaps the benefit of retaining most valued employees.</p> <p>Helps people to see the 'bigger picture' and maximizes 'buy-in'.</p>
Develops others, empathy, self-awareness	'Try this'	<p>A powerful tool for developing people and it needs investment of time.</p> <p>Establishes rapport and trust, builds self-confidence.</p> <p>Followers establish long-term development goals and plan for them. Daily work is linked to goals that stretch.</p> <p>Works well with followers who show initiative.</p> <p>When executed poorly, looks like micro-management.</p>
Empathy, building relationships, communication, conflict management	'People come first'	<p>Share emotions.</p> <p>Affiliative style is limited as a direct driver of performance.</p> <p>Some cultures value strong relationships before doing business.</p>
Collaboration, teamwork, empathy, conflict management and influence. Good communication.	'What do you think?'	<p>Works to achieve buy-in.</p> <p>Suitable when the leader is unsure of the direction to take.</p> <p>Need to respond appropriately to messages.</p> <p>Followers need to be well informed.</p>
Drive to achieve, initiative, influence, self-awareness, empathy, self-control and self-awareness to keep on track.	'Do what I tell you'	<p>Demand immediate compliance with orders and don't explain reasons behind them.</p> <p>Military style: appropriate when safety or security can be compromised.</p> <p>Rather than delegate, leaders have tight control and monitor.</p> <p>Performance feedback focuses on what went wrong, criticism. Praise rarely used.</p>
Conscientiousness, drive to achieve, initiative, empathy, self-control and self-awareness to keep on track.	'Do as I do, now'	<p>Use sparingly. Perhaps during growth. Destroys trust and provokes anxiety. Restricts innovative thinking.</p> <p>Leader pinpoints poor performers and demands more from them or personally rescues the situation.</p> <p>Followers often need to 'second guess' what the leader wants.</p> <p>Morale usually plummets.</p>

people feel overwhelmed by the continued demands for excellence. The project team often does not feel that the leader trusts team members to work in their own way, so flexibility evaporates and work becomes task focused. Although guidelines may be clear to the leader, they are not clearly articulated so that the project team understands them. This approach only works well to achieve a specific short-term goal when the team is highly skilled and self-motivated.



Figure 6.4: Reflecting Complexity in Approaches to Leadership

6. Linking Leadership Styles to Projects

Figure 6.4 represents a comparison of agreement and certainty in undertakings such as projects, plotting different leadership styles. For a specific task we can consider it to be in a range from being very certain to very uncertain. Stakeholders associated with that task can be in agreement or far from agreement. We can then map appropriate leadership styles that depend upon how our task or project fits within these ranges.

Certain and Agreed: Here our project is similar to a ‘painting by numbers’ style where we are all in agreement and clear how to proceed. We can apply straightforward project management techniques to organize and plan. Decisions are simple and will not be contentious, so a directive leadership style would be suitable. Alternatively, this type of project might be suitable for developing or practicing a new leadership style.

Certain and Not Agreed: When we are working with a project that has clear goals and methods but there is disagreement amongst the stakeholders, a more flexible leadership style is appropriate. Here, depending upon the maturity of the project team, the Situational Leadership model can be applied. Alternatively, any of the positive EI leadership approaches can be appropriate. If agreement cannot be achieved, the EI commanding style might be needed for a short time to move the project forward.

Not Certain and Agreed: In this type of project, stakeholders have agreement about goals and methods but there is a high potential for risk occurrence. The uncertain nature of the project might require a change in leadership approaches to fit the situation. When there is the right expertise available to address any uncertainty, leadership should respond to that expertise with a commanding or visionary style. If there is no expertise available, then a democratic style is likely to be effective.

Partially Certain and Partially Agreed: This condition fits in the center of the figure and suggests there is some agreement amongst stakeholders, but there is also some disagreement. Some of the project task is clear and unambiguous and some of the task presents uncertainty. Many projects exist in this area and the project manager can draw upon most of the leadership styles to suit the situation. Possibly the most effective style overall would be the visionary style, introducing the democratic leadership style to address the uncertainties in the project and one of the directive styles for the more certain aspects.

Not Certain and Not Agreed: This is a difficult combination to provide effective leadership. It represents a kind of ‘*lost in the fog*’ project where there may be difficulties with stakeholders as

well as having an unclear task. Accomplished leaders might need to move amongst all the positive EI leadership styles depending upon their own vision, available expertise and the influence of stakeholders.

Selection of the right leadership style will come with some experience and development of various approaches, particularly when combining different leadership styles. The practitioner is recommended to start simply, in a comfortable environment, and develop each style step by step. Teaming with a mentor or coach can provide considerable support when trying to negotiate a new leadership style.

EXERCISES:

1. How do you think your personal style is illuminated by the range of theories presented in this chapter?
2. Consider how your approach includes each focus: task, team and individual. Explain examples when you have addressed each focus.
3. Describe how you can apply Situational Leadership to your projects.

Key Points:

1. Leadership theories suggest a style appropriate for different situations. Which style you adopt will affect your relationship with the project team and your ability to delegate work effectively.
2. An effective leadership style needs to consider a range of influences and consequences (at least task, team and individual) (see John Adair's Action Centred Leadership).
3. Leadership in projects requires consideration of complex issues due to the uniqueness and uncertainty inherent in project work.

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Power to Influence

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter you should be able to:

- Understand that power is derived from the project manager's position in the organization and the project manager's personality.
- Understand how to address the responsibility–authority gap.
- Develop a plan to enhance the project manager's power to influence the outcome of the project.

Project leadership is a process by which a project manager can direct, guide and influence the behavior of the project team and participants towards accomplishing the project objectives. There is a range of methods the project manager can use to influence the project team. It is, therefore, essential that the project leader understands the characteristics and features of '*power to influence*' and is able to manage the process.

This chapter will outline the six main areas of leadership power: legitimate, coercive, reward, expert, referent and communication.

The project leader's challenge is to identify the best mix of power to influence methods that are appropriate for the situation (the team members and the project).

1. What is Power to Influence?

Leadership power refers to the ability the project leader has to influence the behavior of the team members and stakeholders so that they are willing to follow the leader. Leadership power to influence can be subdivided into six areas, as shown in Figure 7.1 and Table 7.1.

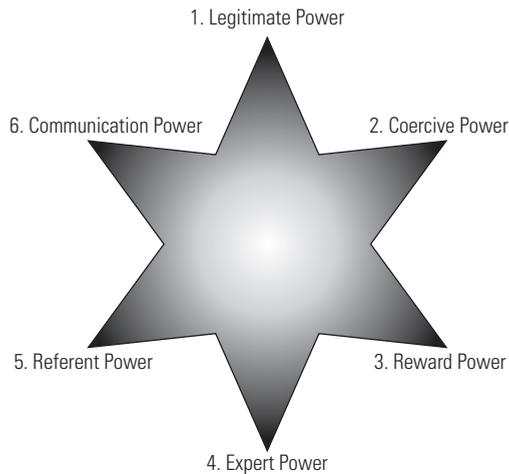


Figure 7.1: Leadership Power to Influence

Table 7.1: The Six Areas of Leadership Power to Influence

Legitimate Power	Legitimate power is automatically conferred on the project manager with the appointment to the position, and this gives the project manager the right to issue instructions and use company resources.
Coercive Power	Coercive power is a power that is based on fear. A project leader using coercive power can make life very difficult for the team members if they do not follow as the leader demands. Team members working under a coercive leader are unlikely to be committed, and more likely to resist the leader.
Reward Power	Reward power is the opposite of coercive power. Reward power is the project leader's ability to encourage the team to perform based on the distribution of rewards that the team members view as valuable.
Expert Power	Expert power is based on the project leader's project-specific skills, knowledge and ability to solve problems. The project leader's project-related competency earns respect from the team members.
Referent Power	Referent power is based on the project leader's desirable personal and interpersonal traits. The project leader's natural charisma, powers of persuasion, rapport and humor encourage the team members to follow.
Communication Power	Communication power is based on the project manager's ability to control the project's lines of communication.

2. Matrix Organization Structure

In the traditional functional organization structure the project manager's position gave the project manager '*position authority*' to make decisions, place orders, issue instructions and acquire resources (from within the department) to achieve the project's objectives. This approach worked well for projects within a functional department, but as companies changed to managing multi-disciplined projects through a matrix organization structure, so the project manager's position authority diminished.

The project manager's position within the matrix structure enables the project manager to coordinate the project work between departments and between contractors and suppliers. But, at the same time, the matrix structure removes the formal line authority the project manager had over the resources in a functional department. This is because, within the matrix structure, the project manager has to borrow resources from the functional managers. This means the project manager does not have access to the resources as a matter of right and might have to negotiate with the functional managers for the use of their resources.

Other aspects of the project environment have also changed. The project manager now has to address the needs and expectations of a wider range of stakeholders (including environmentalists) and, as the workforce is better educated, this has increased their competency and their greater social expectations. The workforce prefers interesting and challenging tasks, and wants a say in managing its work environment. The days when the project manager could command and control the workforce are a thing of the past.

To address these changes in the new project environment, project managers are having to change their leadership style; they need to adopt more of a negotiation style of leadership with the functional managers, and a more participative and collaborative style of leadership with the project team members.

In the past it was felt that the project manager's main limitation was not having sufficient authority to issue orders and instructions, but now it is felt that even if the project manager is deemed to have sufficient authority, that '*ordering*' the project participants around is more likely to create resentment and conflict. The latest thinking is that even if project managers have sufficient formal authority, they will also need other forms of influence to be successful in the long run. This chapter will discuss a range of techniques project managers can use to gain power to influence and guide the project participants and stakeholders.

3. Responsibility–Authority Gap

The first challenge the project manager has to face, particularly in a matrix organization structure, is being assigned the responsibility to manage a project, but not being given sufficient formal authority and company resources – this is called the responsibility–authority gap.

The PMBOK defines **Responsibility** as: *The work that a project team member is expected to perform in order to complete the project's activities.*

The PMBOK defines **Authority** as: *The right to apply project resources, make decisions and sign approvals.*

Responsibility can be defined as feeling obliged to perform the assigned work, while authority can be defined as the power to carry out the work. The responsibility–authority gap occurs when the project manager is given responsibility to carry out a job but does not have sufficient formal authority to issue instructions to acquire the resources to make the work happen (see Figure 7.2).

This mismatch between responsibility and authority might be partly historical. Traditionally projects were run within the functional departments but, as companies started to use a temporary matrix organization structure for continuity, the resources still remained with the functional departments.

The working culture of the company might also be instrumental in causing the responsibility–authority gap. If a company is not used to running projects then the project will be seen as a temporary event, and when it is finished the company will revert back to the normal functional organization structure.



Figure 7.2: Responsibility–Authority Gap – shows a larger circle of assigned responsibility and a smaller circle of formal authority, the difference in the size of the circles being the responsibility–authority gap

4. Power to Influence

The key words of this chapter are not ‘responsibility’ and ‘authority’, but ‘power’ and ‘influence’, particularly ways for the project leader to gain the power to influence team members to follow.

Power may be defined as: *The ability to influence the decisions and actions of others to help you accomplish the project’s scope of work.*

In the project environment one would assume that all the team members and contractors are there to carry out the work – it is their job – it is what they are being paid to do. The power in this context is the ability to influence how they carry out the work.

The Oxford dictionary defines **Influence** as: *The effect a person has on another.*

In the project context, the main consideration is the project manager’s power to influence the team members, functional managers and other stakeholders associated with the project to help achieve the project’s goals.

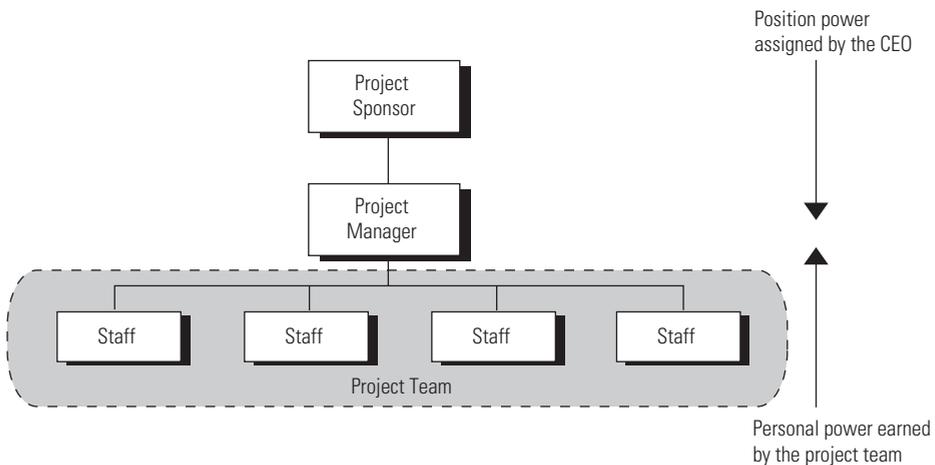


Figure 7.3: Delegation of Power – shows that position power is assigned down from senior management, and personal power is earned up from the project team

Accountability: Figure 7.3 shows that project managers are accountable to the project sponsors who appointed them. But, in an informal sense, they are also accountable to the team members from whom they have to earn trust and respect to live up to the team members' expectations and lead the team effectively.

Finite Power: Some managers see power as a finite quantity, and if they were to give any power to a subordinate through delegation and empowerment, they would reduce or diminish their own amount of power. These types of project managers, therefore, resist giving away any power.

Synergy Power: The opposite to finite power is synergy power, where, by delegating responsibility and empowerment to experts within the team, the project managers actually create more power for themselves through the team's ability to perform the work more quickly, more accurately and by making better decisions. In this situation, success lies not in the power the project managers keep but in the power they delegate to the people who could have the greatest impact on the project.

Leadership Power: Leadership power, in the project context, is the use of power to influence the actions of the project team members and other project stakeholders to achieve their needs and expectations, and also accomplish the project's goals and objectives (refer to Figure 7.4). A project manager without power is a contradiction in terms, because he or she needs the power to be a leader to get things done.

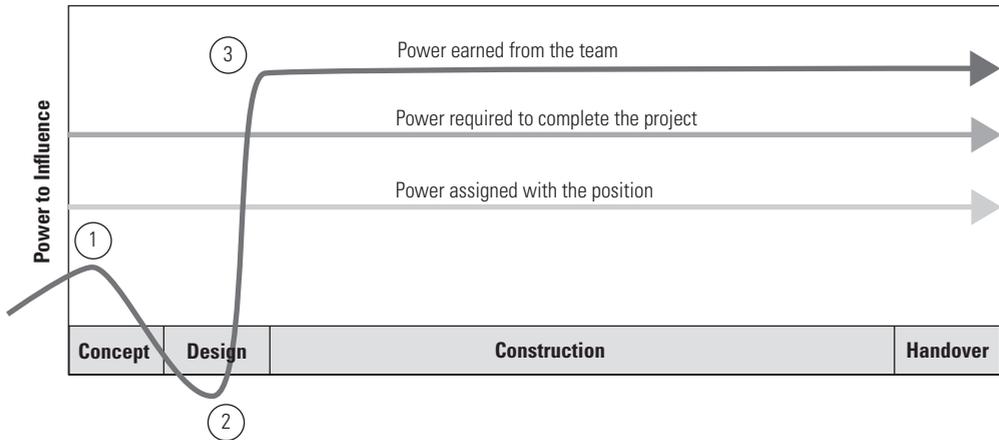


Figure 7.4: Power Lifecycle – shows how the power earned by the project leader increases or decreases during the team development phases. The team development curve, which is superimposed on the project lifecycle, shows how the performance of the team changes as it passes through the team development phases. Assuming the team is formed in the concept phase, the leader's power to influence will vary. In the concept phase (1), the performance of the team is positive to start with if an autocratic leader takes control, but during the storming phase (2), the team's performance reduces until the norming and performing phase (3), when the performance of the team increases to a maximum as the team members work effectively together.

5. Power and Influence vs. Project Lifecycle

The project lifecycle can be used to show how power, influence and authority can be used in the different phases (see Figure 7.5).

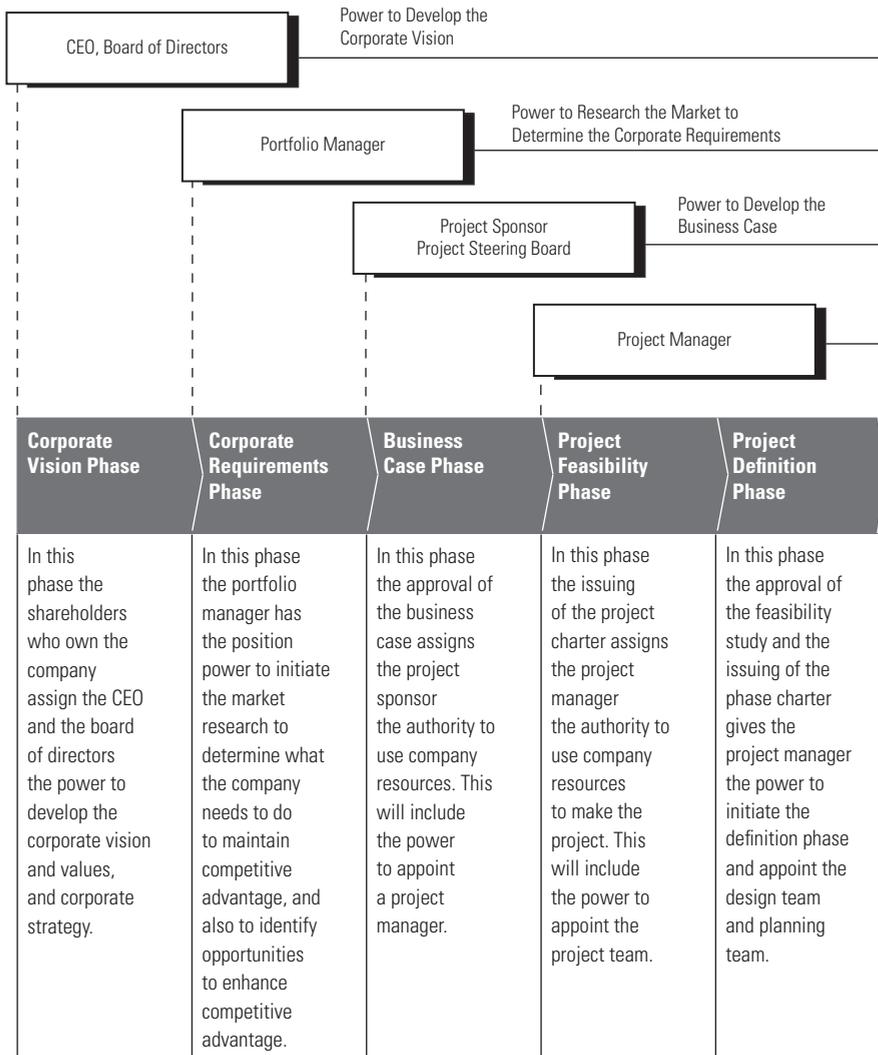
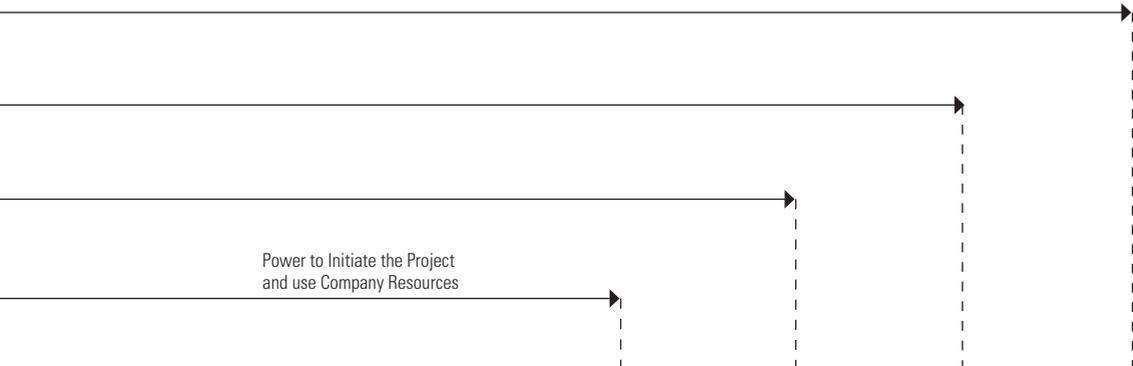


Figure 7.5: Power vs. Project Lifecycle



Power to Initiate the Project and use Company Resources

Project Construction / Execution Phase	Project Commissioning and Handover Phase	Operation Start-up Phase	Project Upgrade Phase	Project Disposal Phase
<p>In this phase the approval of the project definition and the issuing of the phase charter gives the project manager the power to appoint the execution contractor.</p>	<p>In this phase the approval of the execution phase and the issuing of the phase charter gives the project manager the power to appoint the commissioning and handover to the team.</p>	<p>In this phase the handover of the project and the issuing of the phase charter gives the operations manager the authority to initiate the implementation of the project into its operating environment.</p>	<p>In this phase the approval of the upgrade proposal (business case) gives the project sponsor the authority to initiate the upgrade project.</p>	<p>In this phase the issuing of the phase charter gives the project manager the authority to dispose of the project and return the site to its original condition.</p>

6. Formal Authority

The PMBOK defines **Authority** as: *The right to apply project resources, make decisions and sign approvals.*

'Formal authority', also called 'legitimate authority' and 'position power', automatically confers on the project manager the right to make decisions, issue instructions and use company resources to carry out the project. This legal right is documented in the project charter and conferred on the project manager by the project sponsor. The project sponsor, in turn, has the business case approved by the board of directors which represents the shareholders who own the company. For example, with position power the project manager has the right to instruct the team members to perform a task and to expect they will do it as instructed.

Being appointed to the position of project manager suggests that project managers have the ability to manage the project and have the support and confidence of the senior managers who appointed them. While position power can be exerted over subordinates, this type of power is very limited in its acceptance and often does little to influence people's behavior, particularly the functional managers (who might be on the same organizational level) who own the resources the project managers need.

The use of formal authority has changed. Gone are the days of command and control, and a better educated workforce is not afraid to question its project leaders' instructions.

In the ideal world, authority is commensurate with responsibility – this means that project managers should have sufficient power to issue instructions to get the work done. In the real world this is rarely the case; with the matrix organization structure, today's project managers need to rely on other ways to gain power to influence the project team members and other stakeholders. One of them is to control the budget (see next section). The exception is when the project managers are working through a pure project organization structure and then everyone on the project reports directly to them.

Budget Authority: If the project manager controls the purse strings this will confer some financial power over the departments and people who are instructed to carry out the project work. This is particularly powerful if the functional departments are run as cost centres. Budget authority is certainly powerful when dealing with outside suppliers and contractors who depend on payments from the project manager for their existence.

If budget authority is not automatically assigned to the project manager's position, the wording of the project charter should be used to confirm how the budgets will be assigned and managed.

This is the opportunity for project managers to align the project's budget with their position. Even if the project charter is a document without formal authority, it still gives project managers the perception of budget authority.

Budget authority can be applied as both a carrot and a stick. The carrot could be an incentive bonus and the promise of future business, while the stick could be the threat of withholding payment for poor work and no future work.

Budget authority also gives project managers the power to negotiate for the best rates internally with the functional managers, and externally with the contractors and suppliers. This further enhances their position power with their stakeholders.

With budget power project managers have leverage to negotiate a win-win situation with the functional departments for their resources (labor, machinery and equipment); this could mean a better rate for the project managers and full resource utilization for the functional managers.

7. Coercive Power

Coercive power is usually presented as a misuse of position power which is derived from the project manager's ability to punish or take something away from the team members, contractors and suppliers. Coercive power uses fear, the avoidance of punishment and threats to influence people's behavior. This might be seen as:

- Power not to reward.
- Power to threaten demotion.
- Power to withhold overtime.
- Power to limit salary increases.
- Power to transfer people to another job.

It is important to appreciate that if a project manager threatens sanctions against a team member the threat must be carried out because, if that team member calls the manager's bluff and the project manager backs down, all power in future transactions will have been undermined, and credibility with the project team members will be lost.

The ironic consequence of coercive power is that if this approach is used the project manager might lose credibility anyway!!! The team will recognize that coercive power was used, see this as a weakness in leadership and question the effectiveness of the project manager as being the right person to lead the team. So the use of coercive power, in this instance, would seem not to be the best way to gain power to influence.

8. Reward Power

Reward power is the opposite of coercive power; it is the ability to provide positive reinforcement for the desired performance. The rewards could be a salary increase, an incentive bonus, share options, a job promotion, an interesting assignment and time off work. To be effective, the reward must properly correspond to the team members' values and expectations. However, as monetary rewards are not always available for the project manager to offer, the project manager needs to consider other potentially satisfying rewards, especially those related to challenging work and personal recognition (see Herzberg's motivation and hygiene factors in Chapter 19 on *Motivation*). Herzberg's research found that people respond very positively to:

- Feeling a sense of achievement.
- Recognition of their ability.
- Being assigned interesting work.
- Being delegated responsibility to complete the work.
- Being promoted – recognition of the above.

Project managers can gain reward power to influence by providing rewards intrinsic to the project itself. These rewards include:

- Creating challenging tasks.
- Shaping future work assignments.
- Assigning responsibility.
- Praising good performance.
- Allowing individuals to correct poor performance themselves.

These are all low-cost rewards (to the project), yet are powerful rewards and are available to project managers on most projects.

9. Expert Power

Project managers with technical skills, product knowledge, work experience and competency in the field of the project are able to gain expert power. They are often appointed on the basis of their technical expertise in the field of the project for the very reason that they understand how to make the product and can help directly with day-to-day problems.

Team members respect project managers who know how to do the job; if any of the team members hits a problem, they know who to turn to for help. This is not only efficient for the project, but also a comfort for the team member.

The project manager can also gain expert power by compiling technical information on the project. This might be a bookshelf of technical resource material within the project manager's office, or a technical library within the Project Management Office (PMO). Besides technical manuals and technical periodicals, a technical library should also include closeout reports and data from previous projects. This could be the first place the estimators look when compiling a bid package.

Competence Power: Technical competence enhances the *'halo effect'* – if someone is good at one thing, then people assume they are good at other things. This is why film stars become politicians, and some people might ask a professional person, such as a doctor, how to fix their car! Although they would probably not ask a car mechanic for advice on a heart condition!

A good leader influences by example and by providing a role model for the team members to follow. A good leader is someone people will follow willingly because they perceive that the leader can provide them with a means of achieving their own desires, needs and expectations, together with the team's needs and the project's objectives.

Expert knowledge and technical ability are effective if perceived as valuable and shared appropriately with team members and project participants; however, it will erode trust and create resentment if the information is hoarded.

10. Charisma Power

One of the most compelling ways for project managers to gain power is through their vibrant personality and exciting behavior. Charismatic project managers compel people to listen and follow them – their magnetic personality draws people towards them. They project themselves as natural leaders who have a clear vision of where to go and a clear direction of how to get there. They exude a definite sense of purpose, and give the team members confidence that they know what to do, how to do it and will easily achieve the project's objectives.

Charismatic project managers have an infectious sense of humor, have empathy with team members' needs, are enthusiastic about the work and display a self-confidence that they can perform the project.

Charisma gives project managers the personal power to influence the project team, influence the functional managers and influence other stakeholders. In the case of the functional managers, charismatic project managers would use their approachable manner to negotiate for the use of the functional departments' resources – they would push for the best people but always be prepared to wheel and deal and cut corners, as they strive for an agreeable win-win arrangement.

Persuasion Power: Project managers use persuasion power, reasoned argument, evidence and logic to influence team members' decisions, functional managers' decisions and other stakeholders' decisions. Charismatic project managers will bamboozle team members with facts and figures to support their strategy; they are forceful but not confrontational, always prepared to negotiate, always searching for a bargain, always prepared to horse-trade, but always striving for a win-win situation.

The power of persuasion is an important part of the project manager's leadership style to obtain cooperation, because persuasion is, in general, a practical necessity in all group interaction.

But, a word of warning about charismatic project managers – ideally they should be competent in all areas of managing projects. Charismatic project managers will certainly gain initial appeal but, as problems arise on the project, if they are not able to assist technically, then their charismatic power will be undermined. Therefore, for project managers to be effective long term, they also need to be technically competent, have good product knowledge and be able to set up and manage a planning and control system. Otherwise, technical problems will go unresolved, and planning will end in chaos – all this will undermine the respect and confidence from the project team and, therefore, undermine the project manager's power to influence.

Bona fide charisma is something project managers either have or don't have. If not (and many project managers are not charismatic) then they need to consider other, more systems-based means of gaining power to influence.

11. Communication Power

Projects are run by good communication, therefore, project managers who control the lines of communication can gain communication power. As the amount of information required to manage a project increases, so the means of communication needs to change from ad hoc word of mouth to a more formalized, fully integrated information and control system. It is the project manager's prerogative to run the communication system through the Project Management Office (PMO).

As project managers are at the center of the information and control system, they are in an ideal position to capture, process, file and disseminate (document control) useful information. In this situation the project managers derive power from having access to and control of the project's information.

Reporting Power: The person who takes the minutes at meetings, compiles the progress reports, writes monthly reports or organizes closeout reports will gain reporting power. It is the project manager's prerogative to manage the writing, editing and circulation of these documents.

If information and knowledge of what is happening on the project is power, then controlling how it is gathered, processed and disseminated must also be a form of power. And, including the CEO, senior managers and the client (project sponsor) in the circulation will add power by association.

Appearance Power: As a book is judged by its cover, so a person is judged by appearance. In the context of this chapter, dressing appropriately can enhance appearance power. The way a person looks and dresses will influence how people filter and interpret what that person says and stands for. For example, if the project manager makes a presentation to the client dressed in a suit, this is likely to be more powerfully received than if the project manager has just come off site and is still in a boiler suit, hard hat and steel-capped boots.

Speech Power: People are not only judged by their appearance, but also by the way they speak and, it is not only what they say, but how eloquently they say it. Speaking skills are a key project leadership skill. The project manager's ability to communicate will determine, to a large extent, how seriously team members take on ideas and instructions, and whether they will be inclined to follow the project manager's lead.

One of the ways project managers can gain speech power is to use the project management vocabulary – when entering the field of project management, it is important to use the language of project management.

Body Language: The nonverbal side of communication has a much greater impact on the communication process than most people realize. This includes body posture, hand movements, facial expressions and eye contact; all these come together to reinforce feelings and help to communicate the right message.

However, communicating by telephone and email means body language is removed but, once people have physically met, then they remember each other and respond accordingly.

Presentation Power: Public speaking is one of most people's top hates, but if this hurdle can be overcome and they use dynamic presentations with supporting visual aids, this will create a powerful impact. A powerful presentation gives the perception of someone who knows what he is talking about.

Networking Power: The phrase, '*It is not what you know but who you know that opens the doors of opportunity*,' can be applied to project managers. In their case, it is their ability to connect with a network of useful contacts and make alliances with important people that will give them networking power (see Chapter 11 on *Working with Stakeholders*).

Mentor Power: The ultimate useful contact is a mentor, particularly a senior person within the company, the client or stakeholder. A mentor is not only an experienced and knowledgeable person to turn to for guidance but also, by association, will enhance perceived communication power. For example, if the project manager sends a document to the functional managers requesting assistance, and the circulation includes the project manager's mentor then, by association, it is almost as if the document has come from the mentor directly. This means the functional managers are more likely to support the request and, consequently, the project manager will have gained mentor power (see Chapter 17 on *Coaching and Mentoring*).

12. Leadership Power

Earning trust and respect from the project team is the ultimate requirement for achieving leadership power. Trust and respect cannot be assigned to a project manager, they have to be earned or given by the project team members and other stakeholders.

Leadership power is the ability to get things done through people, and particularly the project team. Therefore, the project manager gains leadership power by using a range of management skills.

This chapter has outlined a range of position and personal ways to gain power to influence the project team and other stakeholders. The feedback suggests that project managers gain less power if they rely totally on position authority, budgetary authority and coercion power because there could be a backlash against these particular sorts of power if they are stringently enforced. Personal power derived from charisma, technical competence and information are far more acceptable.

EXERCISES:

1. Have you ever been delegated responsibility to carry out a task, but not been given sufficient authority to issue instructions? Discuss how you gained power to influence the project participants.
2. Discuss the different types of power you use to carry out your projects.
3. Discuss the different types of power your boss uses to manage projects.

Resistance to Change

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter you should be able to:

- Identify why people resist change.
- Identify what a leader can do to engage people with change.
- Examine ideas about how change happens.

Projects, by definition, are designed to introduce some kind of change; perhaps a new product or service, a new operating environment or new facilities. There is much emphasis these days on ‘*soft projects*’ or projects that introduce change within an organization, group or society. These types of projects can be difficult for people who have problems adapting to changes; they can exhibit behaviors that indicate a resistance to change.

Resistance to Change can be defined as: *The action taken by individuals and teams when they perceive that a change that is occurring is a threat to them.*

1. What is Resistance to Change?

It is important to note that resistance to change is the result of a perceived threat. People's perception of a threat can be enough to shape their behaviors, though there might not be a real threat at all. People usually interpret events and situations from their own point of view and this perspective might not align with the intentions and understanding of others.

Resistance can take many forms, including active or passive, overt or covert, individual or organized, aggressive or timid.

2. Why is There Resistance to Change?

Even though many changes are intended to bring benefits, moving from a known, familiar position to an unknown, unfamiliar position can introduce feelings of uncertainty, distrust and confusion. In a new situation, we have to learn new things and often need to relearn some things that we already take for granted. This means that many changes require us to change ourselves by changing our behaviors and thinking processes, so that we can adapt to doing things differently. Reasons for resistance to change by the project team members can include:

- The fear of losing something they value.
- They don't properly understand the change and its implications.
- They don't think that the change makes sense.
- They find it difficult to respond to the level or pace of the change.

The nature of project work signifies change of many kinds. Change can specifically affect those who are affected by the project: the users, operators, clients and other stakeholders. Project managers need to be very aware of how changes introduced by the project can affect behaviors and attitudes to project work. For example, the closure of a local health center might result in major opposition from local residents because of the loss of their facility. Suggestions that better, newer facilities are available ten miles away might be insufficient compensation.

Also, it is possible that members of the project team could be affected by change. This could be caused by changed working practices or new environments.

3. What is the Rationale for Resisting the Change?

People usually have their own rationale for resistance because it is based upon their own perceptions and beliefs about the purpose and outcomes of the change. Therefore, they are able to justify their actions to themselves. Some people can become reliant on a habit; they do not see the need to change and can view any suggestion of change with distaste. The needs of the individual (see the section about Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs in Chapter 19 on *Motivation*) are already being satisfied in the current situation. The new situation might not satisfy those needs properly or to the same level. If people are comfortable with the status quo, the leader might need to introduce a threat to the current situation that alters or removes the current provision of needs, making the current situation uncomfortable and providing a reason for people no longer to want to stay where they are.

There could be heavy personal investment in the current position that will be lost in moving to a new position. Such investment can be financial but, more often, it involves time and energy that provides a social and organizational status that has created a personal identity and establishes some control over their environment. Leaders must consider how their new position will retain or improve the status and explain how their investment will not be lost.

'I do not want to change because, even if I am not that happy where I am, I still may not be particularly interested in moving forward with the change.' Some reasons why this might be the case are presented in Table 8.1.

Leaders of change need to carefully consider the motivators, values and beliefs of those stakeholders who might resist the change. This information can then be used to construct a change vision and plan that will best meet their needs.

Table 8.1: Reasons Why People Do Not Want to Change

'I Do Not Want to Change Because'	Behind the Situation	Leadership Action
<i>'The destination looks worse than where I am now.'</i>	<i>'Although I may not like the place I am in now, the result of the change looks significantly worse for me than my current position. I feel it is like jumping out of the frying pan and into the fire.'</i>	To encourage people to voluntarily move, the destination must be better than where they are now. This can be achieved by either making the existing position worse or by communicating an attractive vision of the desired change.
<i>'There is nothing to attract me there.'</i>	<i>'All the benefits of the change seem to be for other people or I do not see the 'vision' as attractive, then I will not feel that the destination is worth the effort.'</i>	The 'vision' should be clear, understandable and inclusive so that people feel involved and can welcome the change.
<i>'I do not know how to start.'</i>	<i>'Though I can relate to the vision, I do not know what are the first steps or how to make the journey.'</i>	Sufficient planning and preparation needs to consider how each person can contribute and what steps are needed to start the journey.
<i>'The journey there looks painful.'</i>	<i>'I like the vision and know the steps needed, but I think the journey seems difficult and problematic. I anticipate much pain in the transition.'</i>	The journey to the destination must not appear so uncomfortable that people refuse to travel. The leader must manage people's perception of the journey by effectively designing and communicating the transition.
<i>'The destination or journey is bad or wrong.'</i>	<i>'The destination or journey compromises my personal values and I am not prepared to compromise.'</i>	The leader must be aware of established organizational, social and personal values, treating them with sensitivity.
<i>'I do not trust those who are asking me to change.'</i>	<i>'My experience is that the leader is not trustworthy so I do not believe the vision or plan for getting there.'</i>	The leader must have integrity and give people good reason to trust him/her.
<i>'I am able to ignore the change.'</i>	<i>'I don't feel I have to make the journey because the negative consequences of my non-compliance are negligible.'</i>	The leader ensures that all players receive good reasons to move from their current position and to work towards the destination.
<i>'I have the power to obstruct the change.'</i>	When faced with change, senior staff can work actively to prevent or stall it. This can be for what they consider to be justifiable reasons and they may not realize their personal resistance. Their actions could be to block decisions or to remove resources or other support.	High-level support for the change at a top level in the organization should be sought so that such resistance can be managed appropriately.

4. What Can the Leader do About Resistance to Change?

When resistance to change occurs, a well-organized leader will recognize it early and respond appropriately in a timely fashion. A poor leader will be surprised when the change mysteriously fails.

4.1 Recognizing Resistance to Change

Leaders should recognize any early signs of resistance to change so that any effects can be managed before they get out of hand. These are some signs of resistance that leaders should keep on their radar.

A good leader will have an ear in the office grapevine and should monitor any discomfort or dissent. It is not necessary to act immediately because there will always be some initial expression of discomfort to any change (see Figure 8.1, *The Change Transition Process*). Leaders should respond to gossip and rumor by providing valid information and show they are listening to concerns and taking them seriously. More focused action should be taken when there are any attempts to organize resistance.

Some people resist by refusing to support the change; for example, they may appear to agree with the change and then not take their part in the process. One approach the project leader can take is to set formal actions, in public if necessary, to ensure that the changes are completed.

Taking specific and deliberate action to resist the change provides more active resistance. If this resistance is openly expressed, then the leader has the opportunity to address it. However, if the resistance is expressed covertly, then it is more difficult to identify who are the active resisters. The leader might need to identify the source of the resistance before the real issues can be addressed.

4.2 What Can Leaders Focus On to Promote Change?

In order to help and support people through change, leaders need to work with people through a number of important concepts and issues. The leader needs to ask important questions to establish clarity and obtain information about how people are relating to the proposed change.

Beliefs: Beliefs drive thought and behavior; if you can understand a person's beliefs, you can help them through the change process. What beliefs do they have about themselves and other people? How strong are their beliefs? What are the beliefs that they have that led them to oppose the change? What beliefs do they have that could reinforce the change?

Values: Values guide and shape behavior, indicating what is right and wrong, good and bad, important and unimportant. Identifying the values that people hold can suggest what they will not do as much as what they will do. Are any of their values being compromised by proposed change actions? Compromising certain values can trigger stress which can introduce resistance to change. To assist the change process, the leader should try to appeal to supportive values.

Goals: Goals are established to help satisfy our values and needs. Resistance to change can be managed by identifying people's goals and how they are affected by change. For example, what are their career goals? Will they be affected by the proposed change?

Perception: Perception is reality for some people, even if it is not really true. Leaders should attempt to understand how the change is perceived – what do they think will happen? What do they think about stakeholders involved in the change? Do they think the stakeholders are competent and fair? What help or assistance do they think will be available? Will others gain an unfair advantage?

Negative Influence: What are those people resisting change likely to do to oppose the change? What power or authority do they have? What kind of power is it – position, expertise, social, etc.? How might they use their power? What could be the impact of that power? How widespread could the impact be? How can leaders influence their use of power?

Triggers: Triggers are the actions or events that cause a person to take specific action. What are the events that would cause a person to take action against the change? What could the leader do to diffuse the situation beforehand? Who are the people that might influence a person to take opposing action and who might help to diffuse a difficult situation?

5. Ideas About How Change Happens

A number of ideas and models are available that help us to plan and scope a change process. Here we will investigate three of the most helpful models appropriate to leadership in projects.

5.1 Elisabeth Kubler Ross: The Change Transition Process

Elisabeth Kubler Ross, a Swiss American psychiatrist (1926–2004), provided the basis for a change model that has been adopted by management and leadership practitioners. The original purpose of the development was to assist transition through bereavement [Kubler Ross (1969) *On Death and Dying* – www.elisabethkublerross.com.]

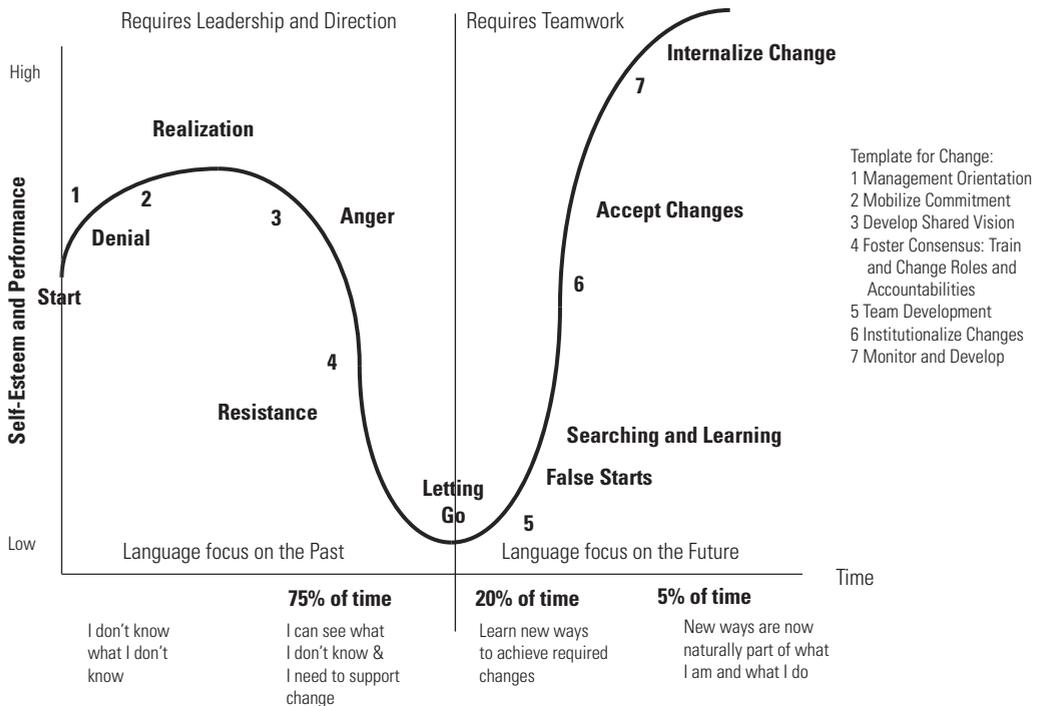
The Kubler Ross model has been developed into the *Change Transition Process* (Beer, Eisenstat and Spec, 1990) which suggests that people experience variation in moods and feelings that affects their behavior and ability to cope during a period of change.

Figure 8.1 shows the Change Transition Process presented as a graph showing how self-esteem and performance can change during a period of change. In the left-hand part of the graph, we are made aware of a change and we initially cope with the change situation. Self-esteem and performance rise through a process of denial until we achieve full **realization** of the implications of the change. At this point, self-esteem and performance reduce due to a feeling of **anger** about the change which translates into **resistance** to the change.

During this phase of the transition, our perspective, focus, thoughts and language are about the past. How has the change affected our life and how will those things we are used to become different? At some point we realize that we cannot continue responding to the change in this way and there is a realization that we need to behave differently in order to move forward.

During this first half of the transition, the leadership role is paramount. The leader needs to provide support, helping to develop a shared vision and to foster consensus about the change. As the self-esteem and performance decrease, appropriate training can be provided and, possibly, changing roles and accountabilities can help people through this difficult part of the transition (Doughty, 1999).

It can take a long time to journey to the point where we can *let go* of the past, realizing that the change is inevitable, and start to focus on the future. We start looking for ways to deal with the change, *learning* new approaches and *searching* for ways to rebuild our lives. Our self-esteem and performance begin to improve, possibly after some attempts at inappropriate approaches, until we are able to *accept* and *internalize* the change.



Adapted from Doughty (1999), Beer, Eisenstat & Spec (1990)

Figure 8.1: The Change Transition Process

In this second half of the transition, the focus is on the team and the individual and how they are able to adapt to the change. Team or personal *development* should continue, with support, until the change is eventually *internalized* (or institutionalized) and new behaviors are naturally exhibited. People should be *monitored* and *developed* continually to ensure that the change has actually been accepted.

5.2 Double-Loop Learning

Learning is a change process. Normally we learn through a straightforward process whereby we observe something and recognize that it represents something new or different. We then try to fit it into our existing '*view of the world*'. This means that our new learning needs to be assimilated or aligned with what we already know, referred to as our existing '*schema*' or '*paradigm*'. Our knowledge and understanding are built by a series of such learning incidents – we have constructed our current perception via this process over the period of our lives.

Significant difficulty arises when our new learning does not properly fit with our existing paradigm. We experience something that does not connect with our view of the world. There have been many experiences of this throughout history. Once upon a time, people believed that the world was flat or that the Sun revolved around the Earth. At some point, someone made an observation that challenged the flat Earth theory and it was realized that the world was like a ball. Of course, this caused much upheaval and confusion as all those assumptions about flatness had to be converted to roundness!

It is much the same when we discover something that challenges our existing beliefs. We have seen something with our own eyes, or have trusted evidence that something is correct and verifiable. However, all our existing knowledge says it is impossible or, at least, very unlikely. This kind of change can be very uncomfortable, as people in history found when they had to come to terms with the fact that the Earth orbits the Sun.

When we experience such a challenge to our paradigm, our learning is compounded because we have to change our view of the world in order to accommodate our recent observation. Sometimes this is referred to as '*double-loop learning*' because we have to extend our learning process in order to modify or reprogram our paradigm. In this way, learning can often incorporate unlearning; that is, we need to work to forget something old at the same time as we remember something new. Double-loop learning is based upon the work of Argyris and Schön (1978).

6. Everett Rogers – Diffusion of Innovations

Rogers developed his work to investigate why certain farmers were not purchasing and using the latest developments in agricultural machinery and chemicals during the mid 20th century in America. He identified that, during a period of innovation, people generally took one of a number of specific perspectives.

How innovations diffuse into a community can be considered an example of a process of change. Innovations represent new ideas that can be accepted or rejected, depending upon the individual's point-of-view. Some people are prepared to quickly accept an innovation or change and others are not. The process of diffusion, developed by Rogers (1962), is important because it explains how leaders can create an environment to assist change to propagate through a community.

6.1 Diffusion Roles

There are a number of roles necessary to move an innovation from idea to adoption by sufficient members of a community (see Figure 8.2). These roles assist the progression of the innovation or change within the population. It is important to note that each person can have a different role in different situations.

Innovators: About 2% of the population are innovators. They are usually curious about ideas for their own sake and are able to cope well with novelty and change. Innovators look to others to develop and realize their ideas because they often lose interest in the idea once it has reached some maturity and they need to move on to the next idea.

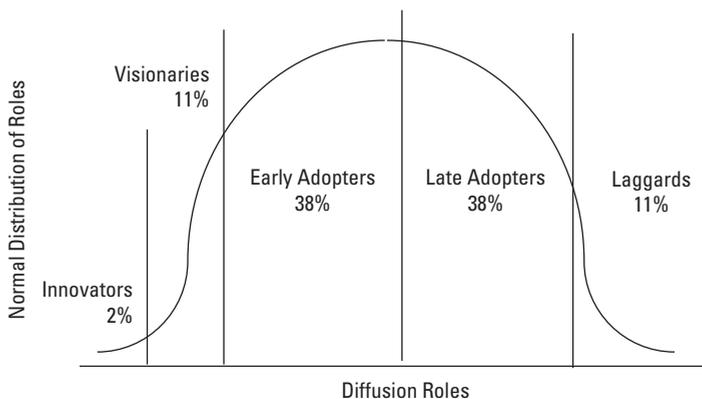


Figure 8.2: Diffusion of Innovations – Everett Rogers

Visionaries: About 11% of the population are visionaries and have an entrepreneurial spirit. They take ideas and shape them into something that can be of use to others. Generally, visionaries are risk takers who are interested in revolutionary change by developing novel ideas to fit their own purposes. The visionary links ideas with those who are likely to use them and so needs to connect to networks of innovators and early adopters. An idea might take six months before it reaches the visionary who might take another six months before their development of the idea is ready.

Early Adopters: These represent about 38% of the population. Early adopters are looking for greater efficiency and effectiveness but need to reduce risks through 'social validation' of ideas provided by visionaries. Visionaries effectively prove the worth of an idea and 'package' it to be accessible to the early adopter, who can only cope with evolutionary change. Good innovations diffuse into a community through a network of early adopters who pass them to each other. This network of early adopters effectively proves the worth of the innovation through its application and promotes it as acceptable to the wider community. In the computer industry, an example of an early adopter would be those people who 'beta test' a new product or service. An idea might be over 12 months old before it reaches the early adopter and can need further development of another 12 to 18 months before it can move to the next group – late adopters.

Late Adopters: About 38% of the population are late adopters. They do not welcome disruption and require any change to be painless. Usually, their interests are elsewhere and they are driven to adopt an innovation through fear of social isolation for not keeping up with others. An idea can be three years old or more before the late adopter considers it worthy of investigation.

Laggards: About 11% of the population are laggards. This is the remaining portion of the community who would not overtly adopt the innovation at any price. The only way the idea would be taken by a laggard is if it is subsumed in another product. For example, a laggard might refuse to use a computer but will be unaware that a computer is controlling the engine management in their motor car. Laggards have another interesting role in the diffusion of innovations. Through refusing to adopt the innovation, they are often the vanguards of the next movement of change. For example, those laggards that Rogers was trying to understand through his research into the adoption of new agricultural products became the innovators of the environmental movement in the 1960s. They had observed that farms using the new chemicals had a bad effect on local wildlife and thought this was not a good thing.

7. Conclusions

In this chapter, we have briefly considered how a leader can approach a situation involving change. The change might involve an individual where the leader needs to address personal issues, or it could regard group issues, such as working conditions or processes. Generally, there can be initial resistance to change and the leader needs to be prepared for such eventuality by clearly stating the change vision and approach. If followers cannot quickly come to terms with the change, the leader must take more focused action to assist progression of change actions. Significantly, change takes time and stamina.

EXERCISES:

1. Reflect on any significant changes you have experienced during your projects.
 - a. How did these changes make you feel? Were you apprehensive or confident?
 - b. Do you think your needs, as someone involved in the change process, were being addressed and satisfied? On reflection, what do you think were your needs? If they were not met sufficiently, what do you think could have been done?
 - c. Early in the change process, were you clear about the outcomes of the intended change? What do you know now about the outcomes? Could this have helped if you had known about the outcomes earlier?
2. Imagine you are leading a merger of two companies. What do you think would be the main issues for people that would encourage them to resist inevitable changes? How do you think they would react? What behaviors do you think would be observed?
3. From your consideration of the merger example, what is the first thing you would do to address the issues you have suggested might occur? How would you assist people through the changes?

Key Points:

1. Projects involve change, and resistance to change is inherent in project work.
2. There are many good reasons why people resist change and these reasons are always important to them.
3. Resistance to change invokes negative perspectives which can be managed, influenced and overcome. This can be part of a significant learning process that can introduce additional change for individuals.
4. Sometimes those resisting change can actually have a better perspective, suggesting that the intended change can be wrong. They can be the instigators of the next phase of change.

References:

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Emotional Intelligence

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter you should be able to:

- Recognize that emotions can affect our behavior and actions, becoming significant drivers of performance and achievement.
- Identify the Emotional Intelligence domains and competencies appropriate to leadership and team working.

Emotional Intelligence can be defined as: *The development of social skills and intelligence regarding the emotions, especially in the ability to monitor one's own or others' emotions.*

Emotional Intelligence (EI) has been brought into the popular and management arenas through the work and writing of Daniel Goleman. He asserts that when working in teams or closely with other people, our emotions play a significant part in shaping our behaviors and the quality of our relationships. This adds a new dimension to the skills that are necessary for successful collaboration; skills that are not usually taught in schools or colleges. It is these skills that relate to how we deal with people at a personal level.

Emotional Intelligence allows the identification of appropriate emotions and how they can identify and support appropriate action. Also, particular intelligence 'domains' can contribute to

effective leadership styles (see Chapter 6 on *Leadership Theories and Styles*). The concepts behind Emotional Intelligence are based upon many years of research, conducted internationally with a wide range of contributions across many walks of life.

For those who are new to ideas of Emotional Intelligence, this chapter will provide an introduction to its ideas and application for leaders. For those with experience of Emotional Intelligence, this chapter should be used as a development opportunity to broaden perspectives of Emotional Intelligence and to consider how leadership style is affected by emotional competence.

The research indicates that, though high-ranking '*star performers*' need good cognitive and intellectual skills to attain their position, when compared to their peers '*about 85% of the difference in their profiles was attributable to emotional intelligence factors rather than to purely cognitive abilities like technical expertise.*' (Goleman *et al.*, 2002, p. 250).

1. Emotional Intelligence Domains

Goleman *et al.* (2002, p. 39) offer four dimensions or domains of Emotional Intelligence (reduced from his original five) that are supported by eighteen competencies. The four domains are grouped into two overarching capabilities: personal and social.

For each of the overarching capabilities, the EI domains are:

- Personal: Self-Awareness and Self-Management.
- Social: Social Awareness and Relationship Management.

The capabilities, domains and emotional competencies are shown in Table 9.1. Goleman notes that the competencies are not *'innate talents, but learned abilities, each of which has a unique contribution to making leaders more resonant, and therefore more effective.'* (Goleman *et al.*, 2002, p. 38).

It is clear that it would be an exceptional leader who had all of these competencies. Goleman suggests that effective leaders exhibit strengths in about six of these competencies.

2. The Four Emotional Intelligence Domains

Self-Awareness: Is having a developed understanding of how people respond emotionally to events and situations. Usually, self-aware people are realistic and honest with themselves and others about their emotions. Self-aware leaders usually know their own values, goals and intentions; they know what feels right and live up to their principles. Importantly, self-aware people take time for reflection, rather than acting instinctively or impulsively.

Self-Management: Is a significant challenge for some and develops from Self-Awareness. If we do not know what or how we are feeling, how can we effectively manage those emotions? If the emotions are positive, like enthusiasm and joy, this is not normally a problem. However, a leader cannot afford uncontrolled responses to negative emotions like anger, anxiety, panic and frustration. Such negative emotions swamp the brain and prevent proper attention to the task at hand, effectively hijacking us from our purpose. Goleman considers this a primal action because it is nature's way of making sure we respond quickly to any perceived threat. Effective leaders have an ongoing 'inner conversation' that monitors their feelings, prevents emotional hijacking and frees them from being a prisoner of their own feelings. Leaders who are adept at Self-Management are usually upbeat, optimistic and enthusiastic.

Social Awareness: Is another term for empathy or the ability to read another's body language and facial expressions, and to hear their voice and consequently be in tune with their emotions in the moment. When we are able to synchronize with another's feelings in this way, we achieve a 'resonance' that encourages us to be '*on the same wavelength*'. For an effective leader, this can work in the other direction. Resonance can flow from a leader who can express feelings convincingly with conviction and authenticity because the feelings are rooted in deeply held values. We must be careful because this can work for both positive and negative emotions, so an effective leader will communicate positive emotions to inspire and motivate others.

Relationship Management: Is the collation of the other competencies where the leader is able to manage other people's emotions. If a leader is not congruent; that is, they are acting disingenuously, manipulatively or their actions do not align with their personal values or beliefs, the emotional radar of followers will sense this falseness and they will instinctively distrust the leader. The first step for an effective leader in managing relationships is authenticity, where the leader is genuinely acting as a result of their own feelings. Goleman *et al.* (2002, p. 51) suggest relationship management is '*friendliness with a purpose: moving people in the right direction*'.

Table 9.1: Emotional Intelligence Domains and Associated Competencies – adapted from Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2002) Primal Leadership

Personal Competence How do we manage ourselves?	Social Competence How do we manage relationships?
<p>Self-Awareness: <i>Emotional self-awareness:</i> Reading our own emotions and recognizing their impact; using instinct to guide directions <i>Accurate self-assessment:</i> Knowing our own strength and limits <i>Self-confidence:</i> A sound sense of our own self-worth and capabilities</p>	<p>Social Awareness: <i>Empathy:</i> Sensing others' emotions, understanding their perspective and taking an active interest in their concerns <i>Organizational awareness:</i> Reading the current decision networks and politics at the organizational level <i>Service:</i> Recognizing and meeting follower, client or customer needs</p>
<p>Self-Management: <i>Emotional self-control:</i> Keeping disruptive emotions and impulses under control <i>Transparency:</i> Displaying honesty and integrity, trustworthiness <i>Adaptability:</i> Flexibility in adapting to changing situations or overcoming obstacles <i>Achievement:</i> The drive to improve performance to meet inner standards of excellence <i>Initiative:</i> Readiness to act and seize opportunities <i>Optimism:</i> Seeing the positive aspects of events</p>	<p>Relationship Management: <i>Inspirational leadership:</i> Guiding and motivating with a compelling vision <i>Influence:</i> Wielding a range of tactics for persuasion <i>Developing others:</i> Bolstering others' abilities through feedback and guidance <i>Change catalyst:</i> Initiating, managing and leading in a new direction <i>Conflict management:</i> Resolving disagreements <i>Building bonds:</i> Cultivating and maintaining a web of relationships <i>Teamwork and Collaboration:</i> Cooperation and team-building</p>

2.1 Emotional Intelligence Leadership Competencies

SELF-AWARENESS:

Emotional self-awareness: Leaders recognize how their feelings affect them and their job performance. They have a clear guiding vision supported by strong values and are authentic, able to speak about their own emotions and articulate their vision. Often, they can see the best course of action through a complex situation.

Accurate self-assessment: Leaders know their strengths and limitations and see the humorous side of their own behavior. They welcome constructive criticism and work to develop themselves, knowing when to ask for assistance.

Self-confidence: Leaders exhibit self-assurance and welcome difficult tasks. They know their strengths and abilities.

SELF-MANAGEMENT:

Self-control: Leaders stay calm and clear-headed under high stress or in a crisis because they can manage their emotions and impulses, possibly channeling them in a positive manner.

Transparency: Leaders openly admit mistakes or faults, representing an authentic openness to others and demonstrating integrity through living up to their values.

Adaptability: Leaders can juggle multiple demands and are comfortable with ambiguities in new challenges. They can be flexible in their approach and thinking.

Achievement: Leaders have high personal standards that drive them to seek performance improvements for themselves and their followers. They are pragmatic, set measurable and challenging goals, aware of associated risks, and are continually learning and teaching better ways.

Initiative: Leaders seize or create opportunities, not hesitating to remove blockages or bend the rules when necessary to create better possibilities for the future.

Optimism: Leaders see opportunities rather than threats in a setback. They have a positive outlook and expect the best of people.

SOCIAL AWARENESS:

Empathy: Leaders are able to sense a range of emotional signals from others. They listen attentively and can perceive another's point of view. They get along with people from different cultures or backgrounds.

Organizational awareness: Leaders are aware of social networks and power relationships. They understand the political forces, guiding values and unspoken rules that operate in organizations and projects.

Service: Leaders value relationships with clients or customers and carefully monitor customers' satisfaction to ensure their needs are being fulfilled.

RELATIONSHIP MANAGEMENT:

Inspiration: Leaders have a compelling vision that creates a sense of common purpose that makes work exciting and inspires others to follow.

Influence: Leaders are persuasive and engaging, finding the right way to address the listeners to create buy-in from the key people and a network of support for an initiative.

Developing others: Leaders show a genuine interest and understand the goals, strengths and weaknesses of those they are helping. They can give timely and constructive feedback and are natural mentors and coaches.

Change catalyst: Leaders recognize the need for change, and are strong advocates of change even in the face of strong opposition. They challenge the status quo and find practical ways to overcome barriers to change.

Conflict management: Leaders are able to understand different perspectives in a conflict situation and find a common ideal that everyone can agree with. They bring conflict to the surface and acknowledge the feelings and views of all sides, redirecting the energy towards the shared ideal.

Teamwork and collaboration: Leaders establish a helpful, supportive, cooperative, respectful and friendly atmosphere in a team. They engage others in an enthusiastic commitment to the team purpose and create close working relationships.

Adapted from Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2002) *Primal Leadership*.

3. Leaders Need Emotional Intelligence (EI)

With the Emotional Intelligence (EI) competencies clearly established and explained, we are better able to assess and measure ourselves as ready for a leadership role. We can identify our strengths and opportunities for improvement and identify what kind of situations might provide the right environment for our learning and development of required leadership skills.

Though emotional competencies are not specifically learnt or taught, effective leaders exhibit significant abilities in these areas. Leadership abilities are often tacitly learnt over time and through many experiences. Evidence suggests that people naturally tend to develop EI competencies over time; competencies that get stronger as their career progresses. However, the leader needs to ensure the right competencies are acquired at the right time, so a plan for development is crucial.

Indeed, because of the nature of emotional development, the learning process has demands that extend beyond those provided by traditional training programs. Leadership learning requires an ongoing, sustained self-development activity more akin to a mentoring or coaching style.

Richard Boyatzis (in Goleman *et al.*, 2002, p.111) suggests a five-stage discovery process for this type of learning:

- The first discovery: What kind of leader do I want to become? What will be my ideal self?
- The second discovery: What kind of leader am I now? What are my strengths and where do I want to develop?
- The third discovery: What is my learning agenda? How can I build on my strengths and develop my weaker competencies?
- The fourth discovery: How can I experiment with and practice new behaviors, thoughts and feelings? How can I develop these into real competence?
- The fifth discovery: Who can help me to identify my strengths and development needs? How can I develop supportive and trusting relationships?

4. Perception of Emotional Competence

Based upon research referenced by Goleman *et al.* (2002, p. 95) more senior executives and leaders appeared to give a high rating to their own emotional intelligence abilities. When those around them were asked about their view of the leader's EI abilities, the score was much lower. The reason for this is that senior executives are less likely to seek or be provided with honest feedback about their leadership style. *'Those at the highest levels had the least accurate view of how they acted with others'* (Goleman *et al.*, 2002, p. 95).

So, to effectively develop leadership capabilities, our own perception might not be sufficient to give us an accurate picture of our strengths and development needs. We need to find a trusted adviser who can support our learning in an honest and positive manner. The learning process is not a short-term activity. It requires a sustained effort with a continued motivation to change.

EXERCISES:

1. Examine the four EI domains described in Section 2 above. Select one of the domains that you believe will be most helpful for your own development during the next 12 months. Explain why you think developing this domain will help you.
2. In the EI domain you have chosen in Exercise 1, select the EI competence that you think will be the most helpful to you during the next 12 months. Explain why you think this is important and what benefits you think it will provide.
3. Look at Richard Boyatzis's five-stage development process in Section 3. Develop an action plan based upon this five-stage process for your selected EI competence development in Exercise 2.

Key Points:

1. Our emotions play a significant part in shaping our behaviors and the quality of our relationships.
2. Emotional Intelligence involves personal and social awareness, as well as self and relations management.
3. Emotional development involves experimentation and practice.

Reference:

Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R. and McKee, A. (2002) *Primal Leadership*.

Leadership vs. Management

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter you should be able to:

- Outline the project manager's portfolio of skills.
- Distinguish between leadership skills and management skills.
- List the benefits of both leadership skills and management skills and appreciate when each is more important than the other.

Leaders and managers are frequently portrayed as different types of people, often at opposite ends of a skills continuum. A leader is portrayed as someone who inspires the team members to achieve, while a manager is portrayed as someone who is more concerned with planning and controlling the team members.

In reality, an effective manager of projects actually needs both project leadership skills and project management skills. This chapter will indicate that, although leadership and management might be different skills, they are also links in a chain. This might sound like a contradiction, but in practice the two skills are complementary because without project leadership you will have a directionless and unmotivated team, and without a project management system you will have planning chaos.

The term management is usually associated with words such as organizing, planning, monitoring and controlling. The term leadership brings to mind ideas of motivation, influencing and working with people. This distinction illuminates the essential difference between a person that might

be labeled a manager and someone that would be called a leader. It suggests the predominant style of the manager as being task focused, and that of the leader as people focused. As this is not a sufficient distinction, the differences between the two styles will be further investigated.

In Chapter 1 we developed a breakdown of the project manager’s portfolio of skills, as shown below in Figure 10.1.

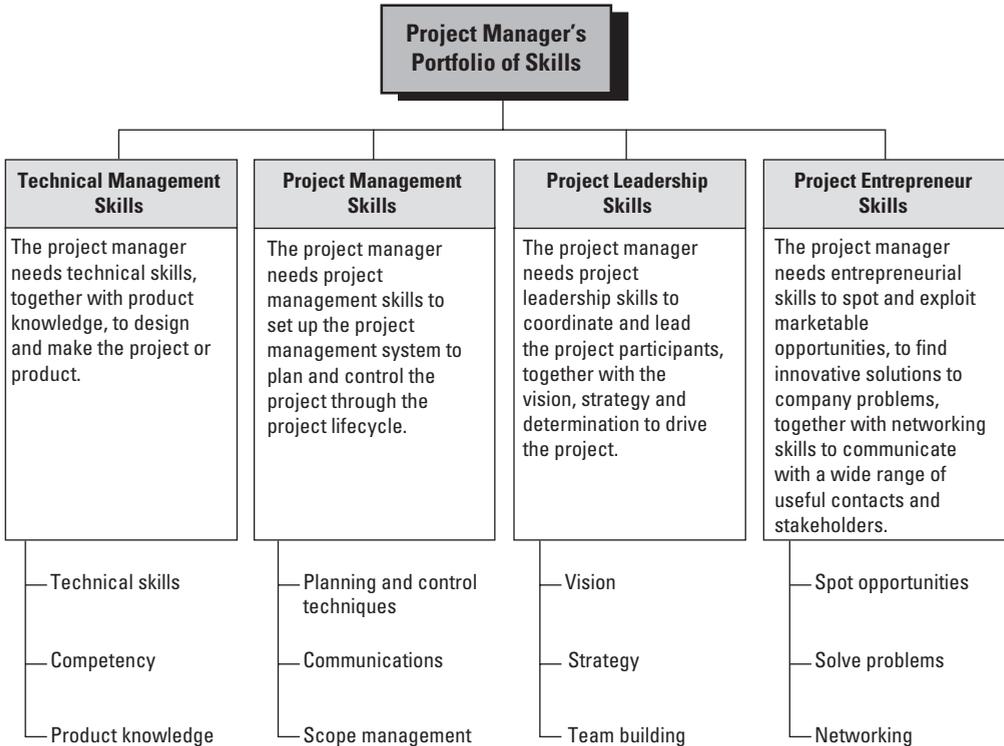


Figure 10.1: Project Manager’s Portfolio of Skills (developed from Table 1.2)

Instead of asking the question, ‘Should the project manager be a leader or manager?’; the question should be, ‘What portfolio of skills does the project manager need?’ The answer to this question should be, ‘The project manager must have a portfolio of skills which includes both leadership and management, together with technical skills and entrepreneurial skills.’

The technical skills relate to the competencies and product knowledge required to make the project, product or service. The project leadership skills refer to leading and inspiring the team. The project management skills refer to the project management system required to plan and control all the information, and the entrepreneurial skills refer to the project manager’s ability to spot opportunities and solve problems.

1. Leadership vs. Management

There are many lists of leadership skills vs. management skills available in the literature, notably those developed by John Kotter and Warren Bennis. Tables 10.1, 10.2 and 10.3 present three different aspects of this topic.

Table 10.1: Project Managers vs. Project Leaders

Project Managers	Project Leaders
Project managers focus on systems	Project leaders focus on people
Project managers are appointed by their superiors	Project leaders are chosen by their team members
Project managers administer	Project leaders innovate
Project managers focus on conforming and maintaining	Project leaders focus on challenging and developing
Project managers have a short-term perspective	Project leaders have a long-term perspective
Project managers like consistency and accept the status quo	Project leaders are flexible and challenge the status quo
Project managers are risk averse	Project leaders are risk opportunists
Project managers focus on planning, budgeting and the bottom line	Project leaders create a vision of the future with an eye on the horizon
Project managers develop communication systems	Project leaders develop interpersonal lines of communication
Project managers focus on organization structures	Project leaders focus on people
Project managers focus on the problem-solving processes	Project leaders aim to inspire and motivate
Project managers focus on targets and milestones	Project leaders focus on creating change
Project managers want to control their project	Project leaders are passionate about their project
Project managers focus internally on the project	Project leaders focus externally on the client, the competition, the market and new technology

The first point identifies one of the key differences between managers and leaders; namely, project managers focus on systems and project leaders focus on people. However, both skills are required to manage a project successfully because, as projects grow in size and complexity, so the volume of information grows exponentially. This is when the project needs a fully integrated planning and control system to monitor the project's performance, otherwise the project will become chaotic with too many people not knowing what to do.

Meanwhile, the project leader is encouraging the team members to participate and collaborate in the planning process, helping the team members identify who wants to do what and with whom. The project leader might also delegate, empower and encourage the team members to take control of the project and plan their own build method and scheduling to meet project milestones. This way the team members will be inspired and motivated to perform to meet the challenge and, with success will come a sense of achievement and recognition for a job well done.

2. Dealing with People

This section will consider the different approaches that project leaders and project managers have towards the project team.

Table 10.2: Project Managers vs. Project Leaders—the project team

Project Managers	Project Leaders
Project managers have subordinates	Project leaders have followers
Project managers rely on their position for formal authority and power	Project leaders rely on their personal charisma and on the team's trust and respect for their power
Project managers drive their team	Project leaders coach their team
Project managers inspire fear	Project leaders inspire enthusiasm
Project managers say 'I'	Project leaders say 'we' (the project team)
Project managers assign tasks	Project leaders set the pace
Project managers are autocratic	Project leaders are democratic
Project managers clock everyone in and out to check they are on time (Theory X)	Project leaders trust the team members to be on time (Theory Y)
Project managers blame someone for the breakdown	Project leaders fix the breakdown
Project managers know how it is done	Project leaders show how it is done
Project managers make work a drudgery	Project leaders make work fun
Project managers say 'go'	Project leaders say 'let's go'
Project managers say the world needs leaders	Project leaders say nobody wants a boss

One of the key points on the second list (Table 10.2) compares the way leaders and managers gain power to issue instructions to use company resources and influence the team members.

Project managers take the formal approach and rely on their appointed position to gain power to influence. The project manager would normally be appointed by a senior person and given responsibility and authority to carry out the project. This would be documented in the project charter. Position power would typically give the project manager budget power, reward power and coercive power to influence the team members.

Although a certain amount of formal power will be associated with the project manager's position, there is the possibility it might be less than required to manage the project – this is called the responsibility–authority gap (see Chapter 7 on *Power to Influence*). The only effective and acceptable way to bridge this gap is through personal power – enter the project leader.

Project leaders use their personal powers of charisma, persuasion, rapport and networking to influence the team members. Project leaders are able to engage the team members at the personal level and encourage them, empower them and inspire them to participate in the project.

Table 10.3 presents another view of the important differences between management and leadership styles.

Table 10.3: Differences between Management and Leadership Styles

Managers	Leaders
<p>Managers have subordinates By definition, managers have subordinates, which means their power and authority comes from their position in the organizational hierarchy.</p>	<p>Leaders have followers Leaders cannot rely on formal authoritarian control, because following is a voluntary activity. Leaders have to appeal to people, who must want to follow enough to perhaps enter situations that they would not normally consider risking. Telling people what to do does not inspire them to follow.</p>
<p>Authoritarian, transactional style Management style is transactional; managers tell the subordinates what to do, and the subordinates do as they are told because they will receive some reward (e.g. salary, promotion) for doing so.</p>	<p>Charismatic, transformational style Leaders inspire people to work with them and create an environment where people can develop and grow, and this is aligned with the needs of the project and the organization. People can see how their own efforts benefit them and are motivated by the leader to participate.</p>
<p>Work focus Managers are paid to get things done to sufficient quality, within constraints of time and money. Thus, they pass on this work focus to their subordinates.</p>	<p>People focus Leaders build upon the needs of others. This does not mean that leaders do not pay attention to tasks; in fact they are often very achievement-focused. What they do realize, however, is the importance of enthusing others to work towards their vision.</p>
<p>Risk averse Managers like predictability and conformity, which makes them avoid risks and conflict where possible. In terms of people, they generally like to run a 'happy ship'</p>	<p>Seek risk Leaders are not blind thrill seekers. When pursuing their vision, leaders consider it natural to encounter problems and hurdles that must be overcome along the way. They must be comfortable with risk and will see routes that others avoid as potential advantageous opportunities and will happily break rules in order to get things done.</p>
<p>Works to objectives Because managers prefer to work with certainty, they can expect work to be planned to a detailed level in order to meet objectives set by the organization or client.</p>	<p>Works with vision The vision might suggest some subordinate objectives, but it is the leader's vision that provides the direction for action.</p>

Leadership and management are two distinctive and complementary systems of action. The real challenge is to combine strong leadership and strong management and use one to reinforce and balance the other.

3. Entrepreneurship Skills

While discussing project leadership and project management skills, entrepreneurship skills should also be considered. Entrepreneurship skills are not usually associated with the project environment, but this oversight is changing. Part of the reason is that some of the skills associated with project leadership are perhaps more appropriately associated with project entrepreneurship.

Firstly, it can be argued that without entrepreneurial skills there would be no new projects! It is the entrepreneurs' creative and innovative skills that enable them to spot opportunities, develop networks of useful contacts and take calculated risks, and these are the prerequisites for creating new ventures.

But the need for project entrepreneurial skills does not end there. During the implementation of the project there will be many problems and obstacles preventing the project manager from achieving the project's objectives. This is where the project manager's entrepreneurial skills of negotiation, cutting corners and getting better deals can be used to solve the problems.

If the project is to make a commercial product, the project manager will need entrepreneurial skills to monitor competitors' products and pricing strategies, and to incorporate new technology. It would, therefore, help the project manager to have a portfolio of management skills for the company to maintain its competitive advantage.

EXERCISES:

1. Identify your top five project leadership skills and your top five project management skills and discuss why they are important on your projects.
2. Consider the tables of opposites presented in this chapter and relate them to your preferred style – are you more of a leader or a manager?
3. Discuss how you have used entrepreneurial skills on your projects to solve problems and take advantage of opportunities.

Working with Stakeholders

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter you should be able to:

- Understand the stakeholders' lifecycle.
- Understand how to identify stakeholders and interested parties.
- Understand how to develop a network of useful contacts.

Project Stakeholder Management is a new knowledge area that includes the processes and activities that enable the project leader to ensure that the needs and expectations of the project stakeholders and interested parties are being addressed.

The PMBOK 5ed (2012) has separated stakeholder management from communication management. The main difference is that communication is about the mechanics of supplying information (content, timing, medium, etc.), whereas stakeholder management is about engaging with the stakeholders and involving them in the decision-making process and activities.

Projects are not performed in a vacuum – they are performed within a company, within an industry and within a market. They involve a wide range of people who have a wide range of needs and expectations. These people are called stakeholders and interested parties. It is, therefore, essential that the project leader understands the characteristics and features of working with stakeholders to be able to identify and determine the stakeholders' needs and expectations (requirements).

This chapter will explain how the project management systems approach can be used to develop a stakeholders' analysis from the project manager's perspective. A stakeholders' analysis is usually approached by subdividing the stakeholders into a number of categories or types and then analyzing their needs and expectations. This chapter will take the stakeholders' analysis a step further and show how there could be different stakeholders in each phase of the project lifecycle, and further, how the stakeholders can be subdivided into the different organizational levels.

It will also explain how each stakeholder brings different skills and expertise, different standards, different priorities and different agendas (needs and expectations) to the project. The vast range and complexity of the stakeholder relationships are what distinguish project management from other management systems.

The project leader's challenge is to use a structured approach to identify, influence and manage the key stakeholders within each phase. This will enable the project manager to encourage the stakeholders and the company to converge on an optimal set of requirements that aligns with their individual needs and expectations.

1. Who is a Project Stakeholder?

The PMBOK 5ed (2012) defines a **Stakeholder** as: *An individual, group, or organization who may affect, be affected by, or perceive itself to be affected by a decision, activity, or outcome of a project.*

Projects usually have a wide range of stakeholders with different and sometimes competing interests who can have significant influence over the eventual success or failure of the project. This chapter outlines a set of techniques that harness the positive influences and minimize the effect of the negative influences.

The APM BoK 6ed (2012) defines **Stakeholder Management** as: *The systematic identification, analysis, planning and implementation of actions designed to engage with stakeholders.*

Working with stakeholders comprises four main steps:

1. Identify Stakeholders

This includes a number of methods: research, interviews, brainstorming, checklists and closeout lessons learned. This chapter will show how the stakeholders can be subdivided by project phase and type.

2. Assess their Interest and Influence

Stakeholders can be classified according to their potential impact on the project. This is usually shown in a matrix that estimates interest and influence on a simple scale (low/medium/high). Those stakeholders with an ability to directly affect the outputs or benefits are sometimes referred to as key stakeholders.

3. Develop Communication Plans

Lines of communication need to be established with the key stakeholders to address what information is required, when it is required and how it should be communicated.

4. Engage and Influence Stakeholders

The process includes communicating and working with stakeholders to meet their needs and expectations, addressing issues as they occur and fostering appropriate stakeholder engagement in project decisions and activities (PMBOK 5ed).

2. Stakeholders vs. Project Lifecycle

This section will show how the project lifecycle can be used to subdivide the stakeholders by project phase (see Figure 11.1). This is a logical approach because, by definition, each phase produces a different set of deliverables and therefore one would assume a different set of stakeholders. This means the key stakeholders associated directly with the work will probably be different with each phase.

Corporate Vision Phase	Corporate Requirements Phase	Business Case Phase	Project Feasibility Phase	Project Definition Phase
<p>Stakeholders in this phase are:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The CEO and senior executives who develop the long-term corporate vision and strategic direction, together with corporate values and ethics outlining how the company intends to do business. 2. Stakeholders also include the shareholders and the market(s) the company operates within. 	<p>Stakeholders in this phase are:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The portfolio manager, operations manager and the market research team who determine what actions the company needs to take to maintain competitive advantage. 2. Stakeholders also include the customers, competitors and regulatory authorities. 	<p>Stakeholders in this phase are:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The project sponsor and team who develop the business case. 2. Stakeholders also include the project steering board, focus groups and external people who could have an impact on, or be impacted by, the project. 	<p>Stakeholders in this phase are:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The project manager and project team who carry out the feasibility study. 2. Stakeholders also include the project steering board and the estimating department. 	<p>Stakeholders in this phase are:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The project design team and the planning team, together with external consultants and design-specific specialists. 2. Stakeholders also include the project steering board, and the model- and prototype-testing companies.
Vision Statement Values Statement	Statement of Requirements	Business Case	Feasibility Study Report	Project Design Project Plan

Figure 11.1: Stakeholders vs. Project Phases – shows how the stakeholders can be subdivided by project phase

The APM BoK 6ed (2012) defines **Requirements Management** as: *The process of capturing, assessing and justifying stakeholders’ wants and needs.*

Project Execution Phase	Project Commissioning Phase	Operation Start-Up Phase	Project Upgrade Phase	Project Disposal Phase
Stakeholders in this phase are: 1. The internal resources and contractors who execute the project, together with the suppliers and outsourcing companies. 2. Stakeholders also include the project steering board (scope changes) and local residents who might be impacted by the project.	Stakeholders in this phase are: 1. The project testing and commissioning team, and the regulatory authority. 2. Stakeholders also include the project hand over team, to contractually hand over the project.	Stakeholders in this phase are: 1. The project sponsor and operation managers who implement the project into the operating environment. 2. Stakeholders also include the users who will operate the project, and the customers who will buy products made by the project.	Stakeholders in this phase are: 1. The corporate team who analyze the market to determine the optimal time to upgrade the project to maintain competitive advantage.	Stakeholders in this phase are: 1. The project disposal team who decommission and dispose of the project and return the site to its original condition. 2. Stakeholders also include the local residents and environmentalists' lobby groups.
Certificate of Completion	Client Acceptance Certificate	Operations Acceptance Certificate	Project Upgrade Proposal	Disposal Closeout Report

The project lifecycle shows the relative position of the stakeholders within each phase, and how their needs and expectations within each phase are interlinked by a common thread to produce the phase deliverables. Ultimately, it shows how to implement corporate strategy and achieve the corporate long-term objectives. The stakeholders' analysis identifies the different stakeholders so that their needs and expectations can be influenced, aligned and managed.

3. Stakeholders and Interested Parties

This section will outline how stakeholders can typically be subdivided by type, but it will take the identification a step further and consider how the stakeholders can also be subdivided by organizational level. Figure 11.2 shows how people usually communicate with other people at their own organizational level.

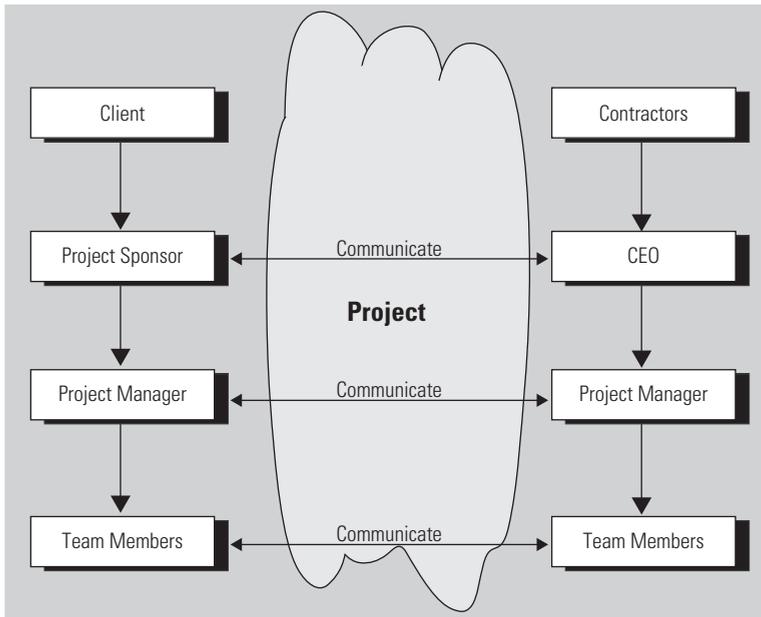


Figure 11.2: Stakeholders' Organizational Levels

The PMBOK 5ed (2012) defines **Identifying Stakeholders** as: *The process of identifying all relevant people or organizations impacted on by the project, analyzing and documenting relevant information regarding their interests, involvement, interdependencies, and potential impact on project success.*

Consider the list of project stakeholders from the project manager's perspective shown in Table 11.1.

Table 11.1: Project Stakeholders

Client Project Sponsor	The project manager reports to the project sponsor. The project manager needs to work closely with the project owner to ensure the project is satisfying the owner's requirements and business case.
Project Steering Board	The project manager needs to work with the members of the project steering board, who are a collection of eminent, experienced practitioners who are able to look at the big picture from the company and market perspective. With these mentoring skills they are able to help and guide the project manager to produce the deliverables.
Project Team	The project manager might employ project team members to carry out project office work. The project team members would then be responsible for project administration and producing the project's planning and control calculations. For the project team to work effectively, the project manager must ensure the individual member's needs and personal goals are being met and, collectively, the team's needs are being met. It is also the project manager's responsibility to set up an efficient Project Management Office (PMO) facility.
Functional Managers	<p>The project execution strategy might use internal resources that are generally supplied by the functional managers who 'own' the company's resources, machines and equipment.</p> <p>When the project uses internal resources, the project manager has to negotiate with the functional departments at the operational management level for the use of their resources.</p> <p>The project manager/functional manager interface is one of the weak links in the matrix-type organization structure, because the project manager is not in a position to order and demand the supply of resources but, rather, has to request and negotiate with the functional managers for the use of their resources.</p> <p>The quality of this relationship will obviously influence the success of the project. The project manager, therefore, needs to develop a negotiation strategy. Project managers often use a trade-off approach where they acknowledge that the functional managers are the technical experts responsible for the 'who and how' (resource and build method) and, in return, the functional managers acknowledge that the project manager controls the 'what and when' (scope of work and the scheduling) – and also the budget!</p>
Contractors	<p>The project execution strategy might use outside contractors to perform some or all of the project work. This enables the project to access a large pool of resources, and tap into a wealth of build-method knowledge and experience from previous projects. The contractor is, therefore, able to advise the project manager of potential problems developing and even to offer solutions.</p> <p>When a project uses external resources (contractors), the project manager will communicate with the contractor's project manager level, and the project's team members will communicate at the contractor's technical members' level.</p>
Suppliers	<p>The project execution strategy might engage suppliers, vendors and plant hire companies to supply materials and equipment for the project. Where possible, the project manager should tap into their wealth of experience and product knowledge from previous projects. The suppliers could well advise the project manager of potential problems developing and even offer solutions.</p> <p>When the project procures from external suppliers, the project manager will communicate with the suppliers' project manager level and the project's team members will communicate at the suppliers' technical members' level.</p>

(Continued)

Table 11.1 (Continued)

Consultants	The project execution strategy might engage outside consultants to provide expert advice on technical and professional matters. The client's company might be an expert in supplying a certain facility but not in the building of the facility. For example, one would not expect a telecommunications company to be expert at launching a satellite into orbit.
Regulators	The regulators are the government departments and other national and international statutory bodies that have the authority to impose their rules and regulations on the project. It is the project manager's responsibility to identify these rules and regulations and ensure the project complies with them.
Users	<p>The users are the people who will operate the project or facility on behalf of the owner of the facility (not to be confused with the customers who buy the product). For example, the project might be to build a power station, a mine or a manufacturing facility. The project manager should involve the users as early as possible in the design process so that they can discuss items of the project that impact on them personally, such as the ergonomics of the operators' seats and controls. This involvement will help to address any resistance to change and also gain the users' commitment to accept the new facility.</p> <p>The project manager will communicate with the users' operational management level and the project's team members will communicate with the operators themselves.</p>



Photo: Courtesy of Rio Tinto © Press Images – showing the users operating the Argyle diamond mine. Reproduced with permission of Rio Tinto

Customers	The customers are the people who receive and pay for the benefit of consuming the project (product, facility or service). For example, we are all customers for electricity (supplied by electrical companies), telephones and mobile phones (supplied by telecommunication companies), travel and accommodation (supplied by travel agents) and clothing (supplied by fashion retailers). To gain customer feedback during the design phase the project manager could organize a prototype for customer focus groups to discuss.
Lobby Groups	<p>Lobby groups are special interest groups that might have an impact on the project or be impacted upon by the project. It is the project manager's responsibility to identify these lobby groups and manage their concerns, because these are the very people who could derail the project. For example, as a form of protest to prevent a project from starting, the Green environment supporters have been known to take drastic action by chaining themselves to trees to prevent the contractors removing the trees and working on site.</p> <p>'Hey, we're building a retirement home here; the nuclear power station is down the road!'</p>

Table 11.1 (Continued)

Local Residents	<p>Local residents who live in close proximity to the project are stakeholders and, therefore, can be impacted upon by the project or have an impact on the project. For example, a power station upgrade might increase the local traffic, with an associated increase in traffic noise, dust and fumes.</p> <p>Those who are negatively impacted upon by a project might be naturally inclined to oppose the project if presented with the opportunity (during a planning submission). However, their opposition might be turned around to become supportive if the issues are discussed and they are appropriately compensated.</p> <p>The project manager's challenge is to arrange for those who gain to compensate those who lose. This is one of the project selection economic tests – do the aggregate gains of a project exceed the aggregate losses? If they do, then the people who gain are in a position to compensate the people who lose. For example, the company that builds a dam will gain from the hydroelectricity and water supply income and is, therefore, in a position to compensate the people who live downstream and have lost their fishing rights.</p>
Competitors	<p>Competitors and other companies that are vying for the same market as the project might oppose the project for competitive reasons. If they can dilute, devalue or delay the project this will give them competitive advantage.</p> <p>For example, the mobile phone and tablet computer market: Apple, Google, Samsung and Blackberry all have legal teams looking for potential infringements; court cases are often mentioned in the press.</p> <p>It is the project manager's challenge to anticipate the competitors' response to the project so that the project, in turn, can respond and realize benefits for the company.</p> <p>It is unlikely competitors would communicate with each other with respect to each other's projects, but competitors would probably be aware of each other and might have met socially at professional networking functions.</p>
Support Companies	<p>Project support companies are the organizations that provide goods and services to enable the project to be built. For example, this could include the suppliers of telephones, electricity, postal services and banking services. The project manager needs to work closely with these stakeholders to ensure the services are supplied as and when required.</p>

It is the project manager's responsibility to identify the key stakeholders and interested parties and determine their needs and expectations. It is then the project manager's challenge to manage a process of influencing and negotiating trade-offs and compromises, to enhance areas of support and negate areas of concern, to be able to move to an optimal alignment.

The project manager should ensure that the agreed stakeholders' needs and expectations align with the proposed business case, the corporate vision statement, the corporate values statement and, in particular, the company's acceptable level of risk.

4. Networking

It is said, *'It's not what you know – it's who you know that opens the doors of opportunity.'* In the project leader's case, it is having the ability to network with a broad range of contacts who can supply useful information, advice and resources to achieve the project's objectives.

There will be times during the project's lifecycle when the project manager will need professional support to sort out a problem, strategy advice to give direction, interpersonal advice to deal with conflict within the team, bargaining advice to negotiate a better deal with a contractor and, also, customer service advice on how to respond to a demanding client.

A network of contacts and a list of stakeholders are often thought of as being the same, and in many cases they are. But, if a distinction is required, then stakeholders tend to be associated with the project, and the network of useful contacts tends to be associated with the project manager and might have nothing to do with the project. This means the project manager interfaces with a new set of stakeholders with each project, but the network of useful contacts stays with the project manager from project to project.

Networking skills are possibly the most important entrepreneurial trait to help the project manager achieve the project's objectives. The project manager's ability to develop a network of useful contacts often far outweighs any portfolio of academic degrees and certificates of employment (the 'old-school-tie' who you know has always been acknowledged as being more important than what you know). Although what you know usually influences who you know in the first place!

Through a network of useful contacts, the project manager can use the back door to beg, borrow and befriend, to gain access to ideas, information and resources needed to complete the project. These contacts could offer ideas to solve a design problem; they could lend their equipment for free to solve manufacturing problems; or they could delay an invoice to help the project's cash flow.

Networking skills are particularly useful for project managers working in a matrix structure where they do not have formal line authority over the resources they need. By skillfully using their circle of useful contacts they might be able to cut corners, get a better deal on materials and get the job done quicker and cheaper than if they had to rely on the formal structure alone.

EXERCISES:

1. Discuss why there might be different stakeholders during each phase along the lifecycle of the project.
2. Discuss how your stakeholders' companies can be subdivided into different organizational levels and relate these levels back to your company.
3. You have been appointed as the project sponsor to manage the implementation of a new airport terminal. Discuss how you would conduct a stakeholder analysis to determine the stakeholders' needs and expectations.

Project Teams

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter you should be able to:

- Understand the importance of building relationships between team members.
- Understand why companies use project teams.
- Understand why some teams win, while other teams lose.

Although teams and team building have been used successfully in the sports and the military environments for some time, it is only recently that commercial companies have grasped the need and appreciated the benefits of using multi-disciplinary teams to gain competitive advantage. It is, therefore, essential that the project leader understands the characteristics and features of project teams to be able to lead the team effectively.

We are all members of one team or another; working in teams has become a modern-day phenomenon. This chapter will look into why people work in teams and discuss the benefits of working in teams, particularly focusing on the benefits to the project and the benefits to the individual.

The project leader's challenge is to identify the team leadership techniques that will encourage the project team to work together towards achieving the project's objectives.

The PMBOK defines a **Project Management Team** as: *The members of the project team who are directly involved in project management activities.*

The APM BoK defines **Teamwork** as: *When people work collaboratively towards a common goal as distinct from other ways that individuals can work within a group.*

A project team can be defined as a number of people who work closely together to achieve shared common goals. Through interaction and collaboration the team strives to enhance its creativity, innovation, problem solving, decision making, support and work performance.

From the definitions, a team implies a number of people working together to achieve results, while a group of people (in project management speak) implies a collection of individuals who, although they might be working on the same project, do not necessarily interact with each other (see Figure 12.1). This is often the case when the project manager coordinates the project with the people individually. Under such conditions, unity of project purpose is a myth.

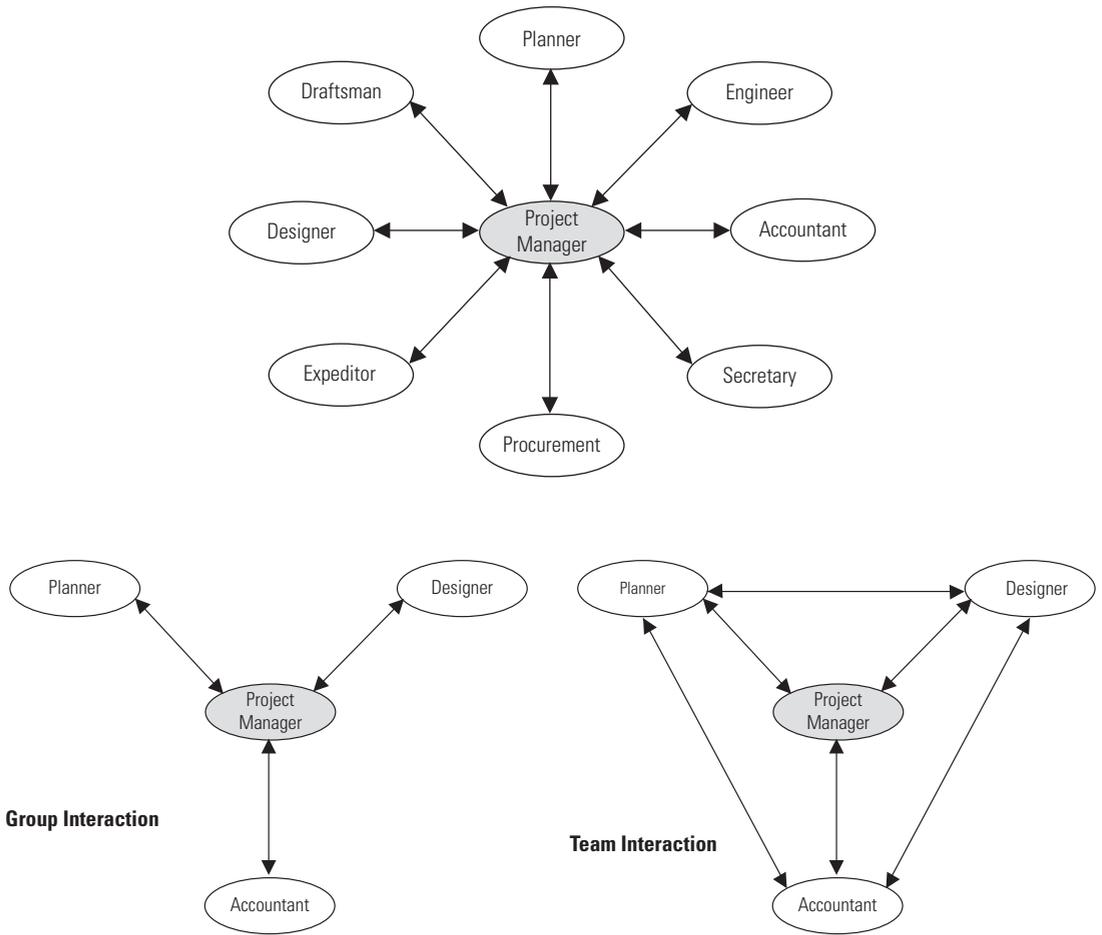


Figure 12.1: Project Team Arrangements

1. Project Teams vs. Project Lifecycle

The project lifecycle can be used to subdivide the project teams by project phase. This is a logical approach because, by definition, each phase produces a different set of deliverables and, therefore, requires a different team membership with a different set of skills. Consider the teams outlined in Figure 12.2.

Corporate Vision Phase	Corporate Requirements Phase	Business Case Phase	Project Feasibility Phase	Project Definition Phase
<p>Team members in this phase should be selected for their:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Visionary and critical thinking skills to enable them to produce a strategic direction for the company. 2. Ethical skills to enable them to define corporate values that will underpin how the company intends to do business. 	<p>Team members in this phase should be selected for their:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Market research skills to enable them to identify and determine what actions the company needs to take to maintain competitive advantage. 2. Entrepreneurial skills to enable them to spot opportunities to exploit. 	<p>Team members in this phase should be selected for their:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Problem-solving and networking skills to enable them to develop innovative solutions and business case proposals to address the needs and opportunities identified by the corporate requirements. 	<p>Team members in this phase should be selected for their:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Investigative and evaluation skills to enable them to confirm the business case is feasible within the defined constraints, is making the best use of company resources, and should give the investors a return on their investment. 	<p>Team members in this phase should be selected for their:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Creative, innovative and design skills to enable them to produce an efficient design to achieve the operational configuration requirements. 2. Project planning skills to enable them to produce a fully integrated project and project build method.

Figure 12.2: Project Teams vs. Project Lifecycle

Although Figure 12.2 implies there could be different team membership for each phase, in practice, the teams need to be interlinked for consistency and understanding and alignment with the company vision, requirements and business case.

Project Construction and Execution Phase	Project Commissioning and Handover Phase	Operation Start-up Phase	Project Upgrade Phase	Project Disposal Phase
<p>Team members in this phase should be selected for their:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Project-specific technical and construction skills to enable them to manufacture or implement the project. 2. Project production skills to develop an efficient project execution strategy. 	<p>Team members in this phase should be selected for their:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Quality inspection, testing and observation skills to enable them to confirm all the deliverables have been made to the required condition. 2. Contractual and documentation skills to hand over the project. 	<p>Team members in this phase should be selected for their:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Production and operation management skills to enable them to develop an efficient operational start-up implementation strategy. 	<p>Team members in this phase should be selected for their:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Market research skills to enable them to identify and determine an optimal project upgrade strategy to maintain competitive advantage. 	<p>Team members in this phase should be selected for their:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Technical and contractual skills to shut down the project and remove it from service. 2. Environmental skills to enable them to dispose of the project in an environmentally friendly manner and return the site to its original condition.

The project lifecycle shows the relative position of the teams within each phase, and how their scope of work and objectives within each phase are interlinked by a common thread to produce the phase deliverables and, ultimately, to implement corporate strategy and achieve the corporate long-term objectives. The project team analysis identifies the different teams so that their requirements can be influenced, aligned and managed.

2. Why Companies Use Project Teams

Project teams offer companies an efficient and effective way of managing multi-disciplined projects in a competitive environment. Consider the needs and benefits of working in project teams shown in Table 12.1.

Table 12.1: Why Companies Use Project Teams

Volume of Work	To complete the project on time the volume of work needs to be distributed and shared amongst a number of people. There is a direct relationship between the volume of work, the duration of the work and the number of people required in the team. Increasing the number of resources usually shortens the duration of the project.
Range of Complementary Skills	Teams are formed to bring together a set of complementary skills and talents so that the project will have all the available competencies required to complete the work. The scope of work frequently requires a range of complementary skills, which any one person is unlikely to have, whereas a team of experts could have all the required skills. For example, an orchestra will have a range of different musicians who come together to produce a mixture of sounds.
Creative Ideas	Brainstorming is a good example of how interactive teamwork can generate a flood of creative and innovative ideas.
Synergy	Team synergy is when the team can collectively generate more creative ideas than individuals can generate. This phenomenon occurs through the cross-fertilization of ideas, where an idea or suggestion from one person can stimulate spontaneous ideas and suggestions from the other team members. Synergy is often expressed mathematically as the output being greater than the input, where $2 + 2 = 5$.
Sounding Board	Team members can bounce ideas and suggestions off one another, and this helps to stop members going off at a tangent.
Problem Solving	Teams are able to apply their range of complementary skills with brainstorming and synergy to generate a number of possible solutions and alternatives.
Decision Making	Presented with a number of possible solutions, research has shown that project teams repeatedly make better decisions than the team members would make individually, even though they have access to the same information (see Appendix 1 – <i>Lost at Sea</i>). This ability has been attributed to the team collectively having a wider range of skills and experiences than any one individual and, therefore, the team is able to make better decisions.

Table 12.1 (Continued)

Commitment	The best decisions are collective decisions, because once a project team has made a collective decision, the team members will be committed by mutual peer pressure to support the agreed course of action.
Risk Takers	Project teams generally take riskier decisions than an individual would. This is due to the feeling of mutual support from the other team members. This needs to be related to the corporate level of risk.
Motivation	Project teams enhance motivation – the members do not want to let the side down. Teamwork is more stimulating, and generates more energy and endurance than when members work on their own.
Technical Support	Project teams support and help each other when a team member hits a problem. This type of support should reduce frustration and increase productivity.
Plan and Control	When people work in project teams it is easier for the project manager to plan and control the work. Teamwork enables the work of individual team members to be organized and controlled efficiently by other team members.
Conflict Resolution	Team discussions help to resolve interpersonal disputes and arguments between team members. Team norms and peer pressure encourage team members to adopt appropriate behavior.
Succession	Succession planning enables project teams to continue to perform when team members leave the team.
Communication	Tight-knit team structures enable efficient lines of communication. This means information, instructions and feedback quickly reach the right people.
Closeout Reports	Teams are able to analyze and scrutinize their past performances. This will help the team build on its strengths and support its weaknesses.
Job Satisfaction	Research suggests that people who work in teams are happier. There is increased job satisfaction compared to people who work on their own. The benefit to the company can be expressed as less sick leave, team members staying longer with the company and higher productivity.

Traditional functional organizations are structured so that each worker only does one specific job, but when working in multi-disciplined project teams there is greater flexibility as the members are working next to people with different skills. This means the work will be more challenging with a wider range of experiences, which enables all the team members to see the whole picture.

3. The Individual's Purpose for Team Membership

The previous section outlined the benefits of project teams from the company's perspective. This section will look at the benefits for the individual to participate in a project team and explains why individuals would want to give up the freedom of working on their own. Consider the points outlined in Table 12.2.

Table 12.2: The Individual's Purpose for Team Membership

Affiliation	Individuals' team membership is a means of satisfying their social and affiliation needs. People naturally want to belong to something, and being a member of a team gives them a feeling of social identification. See Maslow's security and safety needs in Chapter 19 on <i>Motivation</i> .
Ideas	Team membership enables the members to bounce ideas off the other team members. Constructive criticism and alternative suggestions will help to develop the ideas quicker than if the members were developing ideas on their own. This works well when the team members have built up a level of trust – no one wants to be ridiculed.
Support	Team membership is a means of gaining support to carry out an individual's particular goals. There is nothing more frustrating than getting stuck and having no one to turn to for help.
Camaraderie	People enjoy working in a team environment which is supportive, cooperative and friendly. They like the comforting feeling of mutual support, reciprocating behavior, loyalty and trust. This leads to a more satisfying and productive work environment.
Fun	Having fun at work is an essential ingredient for a productive workforce. The additional energy team membership provides means more excitement and enthusiasm in the workplace – winning teams are fun teams.
Status	Being a member of a team is a means of establishing one's status. Most people prefer to define themselves in terms of their relationship to others, as a member of a team or a company.
Self-esteem	Team membership is a means of establishing self-esteem. This refers to a person's ego, which makes them want to be important within their own working group. They achieve this through achievement, recognition, prestige and status. See Maslow's self-esteem needs in Chapter 19 on <i>Motivation</i> .
Share Risk	Generally, individuals prefer to share risk with other team members rather than shoulder the risk on their own. If an individual naturally tends to be risk averse, then team members might support the risk taking. 'Yes, that's a good idea, go for it.' or, 'I'm right behind you – shoulder to shoulder.' This means the risk is shared with other trusted team members, and they all either win or lose.

Table 12.2 (Continued)

Protection	Being a member of a team protects the individual from abuse and bullying. Team norms and peer pressure establish a climate of safety and trust, which makes for a healthy working environment.
Motivation	It can often be difficult to motivate oneself to perform, but team members have peer pressure to help motivate them so as not to let each other down.
Emotional Support	Everyone has the occasional bad day when emotions are feeling very delicate. This is when team members can support each other, providing emotional help and psychological stability for each other.
Interdependent	Team members are interdependent – they need each other to carry out the scope of work. Being a member of a team helps to reinforce an individual’s sense of belonging and recognition.
Achieve Goals	Working in teams enables individuals to achieve goals they would not be able to reach working on their own.
Teamwork	Teamwork should aim to bring individuals together in such a way that they increase their effectiveness without losing their individuality.
Success	Statistically, people are more successful working within a team or partnership than when working alone.
Cohesion	Team cohesion happens when its members possess bonds that link them to one another and to the team as a whole. In a highly cohesive team, members will strive to maintain positive relationships with other team members. The greater the cohesiveness, the greater the conformity of the member to the team’s norms and standards.
Social Skills	Working in a project team helps individuals develop their people skills. Individuals need social skills to interact and communicate appropriately with other team members.

The table outlines why many individuals prefer to work in project teams. It should be mentioned, however, that not everyone wants to work in a team – some people prefer to work on their own and be independent. And with emails, the Internet and video-conferencing, working on site or from a mobile office has become more feasible and more popular.

4. Team Leader's Ability

In the past, corporations were preoccupied with the ability of the individual (particularly the leadership qualities of the project manager); however, any attempt to list the qualities of a good project manager would identify management abilities which are mutually exclusive to any (normal) individual (see Table 12.3).

Table 12.3: Conflicting Demands on the Abilities of an Individual

Highly intelligent	But not too clever
Forceful	But also sensitive to people's feelings
Dynamic	But also patient
Fluent communicator	But also a good listener
Decisive	But also reflective
Expert	In a wide range of different fields.

And if a manager is found with the above attributes, a paragon of mutually compatible characteristics, what happens if the project manager:

- Has an accident and is away from the project for some time?
- Takes up a higher paid position with a competitor?
- Emigrates?
- Takes early retirement?

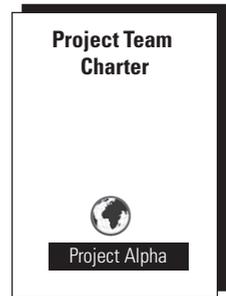
But, if no individual can combine all these qualities, a team of individuals certainly could for the reasons outlined in Table 12.4.

Table 12.4: Benefits of Having a Team

Selection	The team membership can be selected with the required complementary skills and the required range of abilities.
Shared Experience	A team can also build up a store of shared and collectively owned experiences, information and judgment which can be passed on to new team members through discussion and closeout reports.
Synergy	Team synergy generates more output than the sum of the individual inputs.
Support	The team members can offer each other a wide range of technical support.
Renewal	A team can renew and regenerate itself through new recruitment as individual team members leave. In fact, for the team to survive in the long term it must change to reflect the needs of the market and changing technology.

5. Team Charter

The team charter outlines the purpose of the project team and lays the ground rules for the project team's effective operation. The team charter can be a simple document outlining in a few words what is required, or it can be a much larger document defining precisely what is required and how it should be carried out. This section will present a project charter template and give a brief description of all the headings.



The APM BoK 5ed defines the **Team Charter** as: *A document that sets out the working relationships and agreed behaviours within a project team.*

Ownership: Although the team charter is owned by the project team, it is usually written in conjunction with the project manager. This involvement helps to ensure all parties have a constructive input into the team charter's development which will help to encourage buy-in, and also help to ensure the team membership is assigned sufficient authority and power to use company resources to get the job done.

The team charter is a mechanism to:

- Initiate the project team selection.
- Give the team an identity.
- Outline how the project team will be led and managed.
- Outline the project team's objectives.
- Outline how the project team's objectives are to be achieved.
- Outline team roles.
- Outline the team-building process.

The team charter should be established in the early stages of the formation of the project team. It should be sufficiently detailed to get the team started and should allow flexibility in operation while the team members are settling into their roles.

During the project, the team charter serves as a contract between the project team members and the stakeholders (client, sponsor, contractors and suppliers), to identify the extent of the team's operation and authority. The team can tighten and enhance the team charter once its existence and purpose have been accepted.

These key points can be expanded, as shown in Table 12.5.

Table 12.5: Team Charter

1. Team Name	Everything in project management has a name and number! Giving the team a name helps to confirm the team's existence as a separate identity and link the team with the project. The individuals then become members of the project team.
2. Team Motto	Companies usually have a logo and a catchphrase to help establish their brand. Project teams can also have a logo and a motto to establish their brand – this is usually associated with the project. This helps project teams to develop a personality and character of their own.
3. Team Objectives	<p>The purpose of the project team should be outlined. Why have the individuals been brought together? What are the team's objectives and how will the success of the project team be verified and measured?</p> <p>The team's objectives are obviously related to the project's objectives (outlined in the project charter), where the project manager's responsibility might be expressed as completing the project within time, cost and quality constraints, and the team members' responsibility might be expressed as completing the work packages within time, cost and quality constraints.</p> <p>The team members might also be assigned administration duties that are unrelated to any work package directly but are required for the functioning of the project work; these objectives might be harder to define.</p> <p>Where possible, it is important to define the objectives, as they act as an aid for problem solving and decision making.</p>
4. Team Leadership	All teams have a leader, and for project teams this would usually be the project manager, but there could be projects with more than one team and, therefore, there would be a team leader for each team. It is the team leader's role and responsibility to lead, inspire and motivate the team to perform by giving the team members direction, vision and empowerment.
5. Team Roles	This section outlines the team members' roles and duties which can be subdivided into functional roles and team roles. Functional roles refer to a person's technical skills, product knowledge, work experience and practical ability. Team roles refer to the way team members behave and inter-relate with other team members.
6. Responsibility and Authority	This section explains how responsibility and authority will be assigned and delegated to clarify who reports to whom. It is essential the team members know what they are responsible for and what formal authority they have to use company resources.
7. Team Ethics	As a project team develops it naturally establishes its own norms and standards of expected behavior. These need to be documented together with team members' ethics and governance.

Table 12.5 (Continued)

8. Conflict Resolution	All project teams experience conflict from time to time. It is, therefore, essential for the team charter to outline a process to deal with the conflict and to resolve issues. Without some clear mechanism to deal with interpersonal conflict, small conflicts could soon escalate to a civil war and break up the team.
9. Stakeholders	The project team members need to know who are their stakeholders and interested parties, both internally and externally, so that their needs and expectations can be established.
10. Resources	This section outlines what company resources and support the team members can use to help them to achieve their objectives.
11. Constraints	The team charter should identify the constraints (project, internal and external) that could impact on the team members and limit their ability to achieve the team's objectives.
12. Problem Solving	One of the main reasons for working in a close-knit project team is to solve problems and spot opportunities through collective interaction, innovation and brainstorming. This section should outline how the project team will solve problems.
13. Decision Making	The project manager should discuss and agree how decisions will be made on the project. This section should outline where the team will sit on the autocratic to democratic continuum.
14. Review	The project charter should be reviewed by the team members to keep it up to date and relevant.

The team charter establishes a common vision that helps to keep the team focused on its purpose and goals as well as the way it will operate. The team charter should be seen as a subset of the project charter.

The project team should take ownership and tailor the team charter to address the individual needs of the team members and the team as a whole. Disagreement or misunderstanding about the charter should be quickly addressed and resolved to the mutual satisfaction of all team members. An effective team charter enables the project team to proceed in an environment of change and uncertainty.

6. Why Teams Win

Why are some teams successful and win while other teams perform poorly and lose? Is it luck, good judgment or something to do with the composition, management and leadership of the team?

In the sports environment only one team can win (by definition). But in the project environment, if winning is quantified as achieving the project's goals (outlined in the project charter), then with an effective project manager all project teams could win. Some of the features of a successful team are outlined in Table 12.6.

Table 12.6: Why Teams Win

Skills	The team has a range of complementary skills which covers the scope of the project. If a skill is missing, the team will bring in an external contractor.
Leadership Style	The project manager has an appropriate leadership style for the team members, stakeholders and interested parties. The project manager is able to gain respect and trust from the team members.
Strong Leader	The project manager is a strong leader and is not challenged by any other team members.
Self-Fulfilling Prophecy	The project manager is a charismatic leader who expects the best from the team and unconsciously transmits this expectation. The team responds with pride and does whatever it takes to complete the project successfully.
Chairman	The project manager has chairman-type skills by presenting a patient but commanding figure who generates trust and who looks for input and consensus from team members. At meetings the project manager does not need to dominate the proceedings but should know how to focus the discussion, gather input from all the members and pull all the matters together. In practice, the project manager always works with, rather than against, the most talented contributors in the team.
Ideas	At least one member of the team generates innovative and entrepreneurial ideas as a means to solve problems and spot opportunities (See Belbin's roles – Plant and Resource Investigator in Chapter 14 on <i>Team Roles</i>). The inclusion in the team of a good ideas person is an essential contribution for a successful team, because without innovative ideas the team will not be able to solve its problems and the project could grind to a halt. And without entrepreneurial vision, the team's product will become obsolete and uncompetitive.
Mental Abilities	Successful teams have a spread of mental abilities – the members are not all highly intelligent experts (see the 'A' team in the next section and at the end of the chapter).

Table 12.6 (Continued)

Compensation	The project manager is able to identify imbalances in the team and is able to compensate accordingly.
Problem Solving	Team members have a sense of belonging and willingly contribute to the team's creativity and problem solving.
Decision Making	The team is able to make collective decisions which are supported by all the members. The decision-making process might involve negotiation, bargaining, 'horse trading' and democratic voting. But when a decision is made, by whichever method, all the team members will commit their support.
Common Objectives	The team has common objectives which are well understood by all the team members. This creates a shared sense of purpose, motivation and commitment – they are all pulling in the same direction.
Flexibility	Successful teams exhibit flexibility in that the members do not stay fixed in their position, team role or technical discipline. The members of a flexible team move around in the team to find the best match between people and jobs. When one team member is overloaded on the critical path, the others will help.
Cohesion	There is a strong sense of team cohesion – the members feel attracted to the team.
Rewards	The team flourishes when there is a clear correlation between results and rewards. Rewards should be aimed at the team rather than the individual, because individual rewards might please some members, but alienate other team members.
Complementarity	Effective teamwork stems from people complementing each other, rather than competing or merrily working alongside each other.
Less Conflict	Successful teams have a spread of personalities and team roles, which gives the team a balanced appearance. This helps to provide checks and balances which, in turn, reduce interpersonal conflict.
Balance	Successful teams are able to balance the task, the team and the individuals. See John Adair's Action Centred Leadership in Chapter 6 on <i>Leadership Theories and Styles</i> .

Belbin defined a successful team as: *'The essence of a [successful] team is that its members form a co-operative association through a division of labour that best reflects the contribution that each can make towards the common objectives.'*

7. Why Teams Fail

Although most of the reasons project teams fail are the opposite to the reasons why project teams win, there are some other interesting reasons which might come as a surprise (see Table 12.7). To recap, team failure within the project context is when a project fails to reach its objectives, as outlined in the project charter.

Table 12.7: Why Teams Fail

Mental Ability	Belbin found that the single factor evident in all poorly performing teams was low mental ability. This limited the team's ability to solve problems and spot opportunities which, in turn, meant the team was not able to achieve the project's objectives.
Problem Solving	Projects are a minefield of problems and compromises. If the team cannot solve problems this might mean the project has limited functionality, is delivered late and over budget.
Opportunities	If the team cannot spot entrepreneurial opportunities, this means the members are unable to improve the product and their productivity, and so are unable to take advantage of changes in the market and match their competitors.
Inflexible Resource Availability	Projects typically have fluctuating workloads caused by problems, late deliveries or a revised scope of work. The team's ability to adjust to these fluctuating workloads will determine the team's success. Lack of resources during the peak loads means the jobs will not be completed as planned, and over resourcing during the light loads means the team members will be unemployed, which will impact on the company's productivity.
Education and Training	New tasks might require technical support in the form of on-the-job training, coaching, research around the topic and short courses. If these facilities are not available, the team might fail due to lack of ability and expertise.
Unclear Purpose	Teams will fail to perform if they are unclear or uncertain of the purpose of the task or project. Since the project manager sets up the team and provides it with resources, it is also the project manager's responsibility to give the team clear direction and goals, otherwise the team members will be pulling in different directions.
Resistance to Change	If teams do not want to change with the times and prefer to favor the status quo because they want to continue with products and practices that worked well for them in the past, these teams will become increasingly out of date with obsolete products and will eventually lose clients, close down or be taken over.
Negative Selection	Selecting the wrong people will produce a team that does not perform. See the section on negative selection.
'A' Team	Selecting a team of technical experts can be counterproductive if they have difficulty making mutually acceptable decisions (see comments at the end of the chapter).
Over Confidence	Over confident teams that are ego driven might take unnecessary risks which finally catch up with them.

Table 12.7 (Continued)

Clever Leader	If team leaders impose their views upon their teams, this might discourage the members from participating in the project, resulting in a group of demotivated 'yes' men.
Frustration	If a gifted team member's contribution is not considered, the member will almost certainly become demotivated, frustrated and withdraw from the team. Such frustrations might be displayed as negative attitudes, grumbling, poor productivity and even disruptive behavior. And it might well be that the gifted member could have the ideas and opportunities the company needs to be competitive.
Interpersonal Conflict	Internal competition is a balancing act between healthy rivalry and interpersonal conflict. Healthy rivalry should stimulate competition and innovation, while interpersonal conflict will cut communications and cause the team to implode, leading to a significant drop in performance.
Meetings	The main reason for project meetings is to focus the collective skills of the team on the common problems of the project. If the meetings are poorly chaired they will end up as time-wasting, unproductive grumbling sessions.
Self-Fulfilling Prophecy	Project managers who believe their team members need close supervision because they cannot be trusted to act responsibly and are unproductive actually convey this skepticism unconsciously to the workforce. A workforce that knows it is considered unproductive might not then make the effort to try to be productive, and consequently its behavior would be taken as 'proof' that it is unproductive – a vicious circle. See 'Theory X' in Chapter 6 on <i>Leadership Theories and Styles</i> .
Pointless Project	If project managers believe their project is pointless, unconsciously they will fail to provide support and encouragement for those working on the project. These actions will also convey to the team the message that the project is a waste of time. The team members will pick up this message and, therefore, will fail to put in the extra effort, increasing the risk of failure.
Lack of Trust	If the team members do not trust or respect the project manager, and lack confidence in the project manager's ability, then true teamwork cannot exist and the team will be directionless.
Lack of Recognition	Lack of recognition and indifference is the number one reason employees voluntarily leave their jobs to pursue other outside employment. It is the project manager's responsibility to ensure all members' contributions are recognized and valued. Employees who are indifferent do not feel a sense of teamwork in their workplace, nor do they feel appreciated or valued by their team leader.
Project Management	As projects grow in size and complexity they increasingly rely on effective planning and control systems to process the information – without these the project will end in chaos.

Negative Selection: Companies that fail to produce teams that have an adequate proportion of managers with good mental ability would not do so due to any conscious search for such people, but rather as an unintended by-product of negative selection.

Negative selection refers to the recruitment process designed to filter out the type of people the company really needs. Consider the company that is looking for an inspirational project manager to increase productivity, but will not increase the current salary package offered. This low salary will unintentionally actually exclude the sort of project manager the company needs.

'A' Team: In contrast to teams with a lack of mental ability, research has found that a team of highly intelligent experts also performs below par. As a team, these highly intelligent experts are certainly not short of ideas, but they are also not short of critics. And, for every creative and innovative idea an individual generates, the other team members identify a number of reasons for not accepting the idea. The team, therefore, has great difficulty in making mutually acceptable decisions.

Their teamwork is characterized by abortive debate and destructive argument, where each member is trying to persuade the other team members to accept their proposal, meanwhile opposing any other proposals. This leads to an unmanageable team that has great difficulty in making any collective decisions, and so leads to poor results and mutual recrimination.

EXERCISES:

1. Discuss how your company uses project teams, and what the benefits are to your company.
2. Discuss why you personally like to work in project teams.
3. Team decision-making exercise – see Appendix 1, *Lost at Sea*.

Teams vs. Groups

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter you should be able to:

- Understand the difference between a team and a group.
- Understand how to develop a group into a performing team.
- Understand the kinds of tasks that are suitable for groups to tackle, and when we need a team.
- Understand the potential dangers of high cohesion between individuals in a group/team.

We often refer to teams and groups and frequently the words are used loosely and not always appropriately. There are many different representations of teams but it is not always clear what the difference is between a team and a group. In the project environment, a team implies a number of people working together to achieve a common goal, while a group of people implies a collection of individuals who, although they might be working on the same project, do not necessarily interact with each other. This is often the case when the project manager coordinates the people within the group individually. Under such conditions, unity of purpose is a myth (see Figure 13.1).

Developing a team can take much investment of time and energy, so we need to question if we need a team for every occasion. Perhaps a less-developed group is sufficient for our project?

Both teams and groups can be used as organization structures for effectively managing projects. This chapter will discuss when it is appropriate to use a team and when it is appropriate to use a group.

1. The Difference Between Groups and Teams

The terms project teams and project groups are often used interchangeably to describe a number of people who have complementary skills and who work to achieve a common goal but, in the project context, that is where the similarity ends. The important distinction between a team and a group is how the people are managed and how they interact together, because they might well be doing exactly the same type of work.

True teamwork implies participation and empowerment to give the team members sufficient authority and autonomy to make their own decisions on a day-to-day basis. This helps the team members to feel involved and motivated, and responsible and accountable for their work.

Group work (Figure 13.1) implies that the project manager is the key person with a number of followers. All communication passes through the project manager, and the project manager makes all the decisions – this restricts group problem solving and decision making and effectively kills creativity. Without the team member interaction, there is no cross-flow of information and, therefore, no team synergy.

This is one of the key problems with the matrix organization structure, where the project manager coordinates staff individually from different departments. The staff members only have a relationship with the project manager and, under such conditions, teamwork is impossible.

Katzenbach and Smith (1993) define a **Team** as: *A small number of people with complementary skills who are committed to a common purpose, performance goals, and approach for which they hold themselves mutually accountable.*

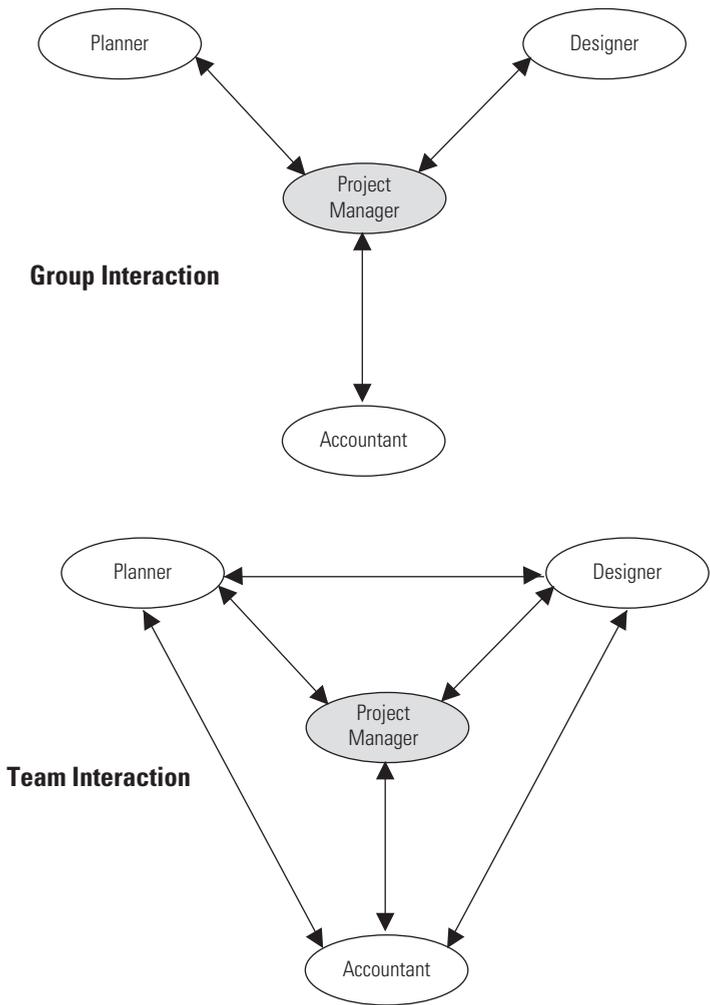


Figure 13.1: Project Team Structure – shows the link between the project manager and the other team members

Table 13.1 (Katzenbach and Smith, 1993) represents ten significant differences between the attributes of a team and a group.

Table 13.1: 10 Significant Differences between the Attributes of Teams and Groups (after Katzenbach and Smith, 1993)

Real Teams	Working Groups
Share leadership roles as they see fit	Have a strong and clearly focused leader
Take mutual, collective accountability	Take individual accountability
Create specific team objectives that they deliver themselves	Objectives imposed, mandated, granted and/or the same as the broader organizational mission
Deliver collective products/outcomes	Deliver individual products/outcomes
Encourage open-ended discussion and active problem-solving meetings	Run efficient meetings
Measure performance directly by assessing collective products/outcomes	Measure effectiveness indirectly by their influence on others
Discuss, decide and do real work	Discuss, decide and delegate
Have open and honest dialogue	Have polite discussions
Have fun working together and laugh a lot	Just work
Can't wait to be together.	Meet because they have to.

Additionally, Jennifer Henderson (2002) identifies a further 14 differences between teams and groups (see Table 13.2).

Table 13.2: A Further 14 Differences between Teams and Groups (after Henderson, 2002)

Teams	Groups
1. The composition of a team is planned and is set.	1. The composition of the group changes from meeting to meeting – often without forethought.
2. People are recruited, groomed and trained for specific jobs that match their interests and the needs of the team.	2. Members of groups are encouraged to take on jobs, positions or tasks even if they are unprepared or not skilled in that area – and everyone knows it!
3. Each job has a specific set of skills. People with those skills or the ability to acquire them are recruited for the job.	3. People move in and out of jobs based on their inability to say no when asked. Little or no training or support is given by the group to individuals accepting jobs.
4. Teams have rookies and understudies who learn from those who are accomplished. They are preparing for the day they will lead.	4. Leadership is often one person deep, with the group highly dependent on a small number of people.

Table 13.2 (Continued)

Teams	Groups
5. When people do not perform well, the team suffers. The team has ways of assisting people or has systems for building their people skills or moving them to another position.	5. When people either do not perform well or fail to perform at all, the group rarely acknowledges the failure or has the ability to do anything about it.
6. The planning by teams is called practice, run-throughs or rehearsals. No matter how talented any individual team member is, everyone plans.	6. Groups often resist planning and use planning as a corrective rather than a proactive or preventive strategy. Planning is mostly done by a few people.
7. Teams have rituals, routines and ceremonies that everyone learns and shares.	7. Groups rarely create routine operations.
8. Teams regularly review performance. Teams often prepare for the next piece of work based on the evaluation of the last piece of work.	8. Groups usually do not celebrate or debrief victories or defeats.
9. Teams know at most times how they are doing – if they are winning, scoring or moving toward their stated goals.	9. Groups rarely assess their progress in achieving their stated goals or objectives in order to chart and measure their work.
10. Teams often establish ' <i>Halls of Fame</i> '. Those who have performed well are held in high esteem.	10. Groups may or may not celebrate the accomplishments of past leadership.
11. Members of teams are easily recognizable. There are usually colors, logos, T-shirts and, most important, common slang, songs, language and history to link them to each other and the team.	11. Members of groups are often hard to identify. There is rarely anything linking them to the group.
12. Time is important to teams. Most events have specific starting and ending times. Teams are often judged by what they can accomplish within a certain time frame.	12. Groups are often inconsistent in what time things start and end, especially meetings.
13. Teams understand how important it is to consider the fans, the audience, everyone affected by the game. Teams know and respect the game's many stakeholders.	13. Groups sometimes operate without thinking about their constituency.
14. Teams build team spirit into their plans and ensure they affirm and celebrate the work they accomplish together.	14. Groups sometimes fail to develop a sense of team spirit. They assume everyone understands and works together.

It is clear from these differences that a group concentrates on delivering a task with emphasis on efficiency. Efficiency is not always the best focus because we might be working hard at doing the wrong thing. Usually, the focus needs to be about doing the right thing, or being effective. Effectiveness is measured by achievement of the task through expectations set from outside the group. Once the task is complete, there is no reason for a group to continue to be together; they are free to seek membership of another group to address another task. Indeed, such individuals can be members of many different groups simultaneously.

2. Moving from Being a Group to Being a Performing Team

The team performance curve (Katzenbach and Smith, 1993) illustrates how well any small group of people performs depending on its approach (see Figure 13.2).

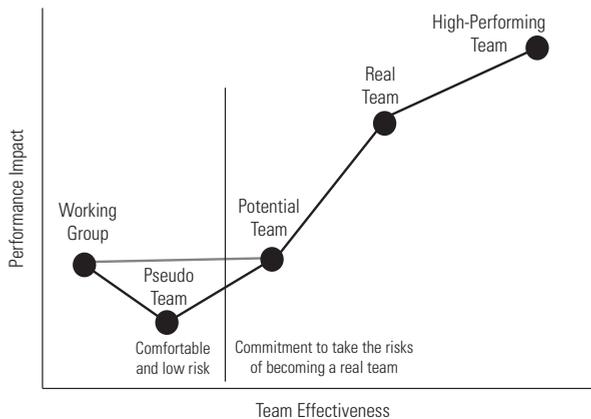


Figure 13.2: The Team Performance Curve – Adapted from Katzenbach and Smith (1993)

Working Groups: Working groups are usually created by an external mechanism for a specific purpose or task. Once the task is completed, the group can be disbanded. Indeed, there can be changes to the members of the group during the activity without significantly affecting the overall performance of the group.

The working group provides only the total of the *'individual bests'* in the group for their performance; there is no interaction and therefore no synergy. Group members work together to share good practice and information to help each individual perform within their area of interest or accountability.

There is no desire to extend beyond these limitations for the group to have a common purpose, a team approach or a feeling of responsibility towards other members of the group.

The working group provides a comfortable and low-risk environment where there is no need for an individual to take responsibility beyond their assigned accountability for delivery of the assigned task.

Pseudo Teams: If we require a team rather than a working group, we need to develop commitment to the team from all individuals and be prepared for the risk of conflict within the team (storming phase). As a team style emerges, the group will start to identify a common purpose and develop collective actions that the team considers are needed to achieve the collective goal. There is also mutual accountability established by the team and this helps to make the team more than the sum of its parts (synergy).

It is unfortunate that many groups call themselves teams, yet members are not prepared to take these risks or make personal commitments to the team. These groups are at best pseudo teams. Although there could be a significant need for collective performance or cooperation, members are not sufficiently focused on trying to achieve it. Also, there is no real interest in shaping a common purpose or set of performance goals.

The pseudo team is the weakest of all the groups in terms of performance, often because the energy used in interacting with each other reduces the individual performance of group members without providing the desired joint team benefit. Additionally, there can be significant distractions from outside the pseudo team that prevent the cohesion and purpose needed to become a real team.

We need to be aware of this, because pseudo teams often call themselves teams and expect to be treated as such. *'In pseudo-teams, the sum of the whole is less than the potential of the individual parts'* (Katzenbach and Smith, 1993).

Potential Teams: A potential team realizes there is a significant need to work as a real team and makes the commitment to really try to improve its performance. Typically, the potential team needs more clarity about its purpose and goals and more discipline in establishing a common approach. The potential team has not yet achieved collective accountability.

'Potential teams that take the risks to climb the curve inevitably confront obstacles. Some teams overcome them; others get stuck. The worst thing a stuck team can do, however, is to abandon the discipline of the team basics. Performance, not team building, can save potential teams or pseudo-teams, no matter how stuck' (Katzenbach and Smith, 1993).

Research suggests that potential teams are prevalent in organizations and, if a team approach is suitable, we can see some possible performance improvements, as shown in the Performance Curve (Figure 13.2). Indeed, the steepest performance gain comes between a potential team and a real team; but any movement up the slope is worth pursuing.

Real Teams: A real team is usually comprised of a number of people who have complementary skills and where each individual exhibits the same level of commitment to a common purpose and a shared and agreed working approach for which they are mutually accountable. Real teams also display characteristics that respond positively to adversity. Katzenbach and Smith (1993) suggest that real teams are a basic unit of performance.

High-Performing Teams: A high-performing team is a *'real'* team that *'has members who are also deeply committed to each other's personal growth and success'* (ibid.). Such commitment enables this team to *'Significantly outperform other teams and all reasonable expectations of its membership'* (ibid.).

3. Working Groups or Teams?

This section discusses whether we should use working groups or teams. In some situations, a working group might be more suitable than a team. For example, if our task has urgency that does not accommodate time for team development, i.e. a short-term activity, a project leader needs to assess the needs of the task and determine whether a working group would be sufficient or if there is a need for a team. As an example, consider a bidding activity; if we are doing a one-off bid in response to a customer request, then a dedicated group will likely be sufficient to achieve our one-off goal. However, if we are responding to a series of bids or tenders that require a high-quality fast response, we might require a performing team. The tender process can be a complex set of interdependent activities that require a 'well-oiled machine'. The team can bring in expertise to inform the content of the tender as required.

If there are signs that a group is not working like a team, it might be prudent to try to improve the performance as a working group, rather than trying to make it into a team. Possibly, potential improvement in performance as a team might not be worth the risk if the group is not ready to be a team. In Figure 13.2, the gap (indicated by the line between the working group and the potential team) represents a leap of faith in choosing to work as a team. Any group taking this step is beginning a process which will expose it to risk and conflict, but it has recognized that there is a benefit to the achievement of the task by becoming a team.

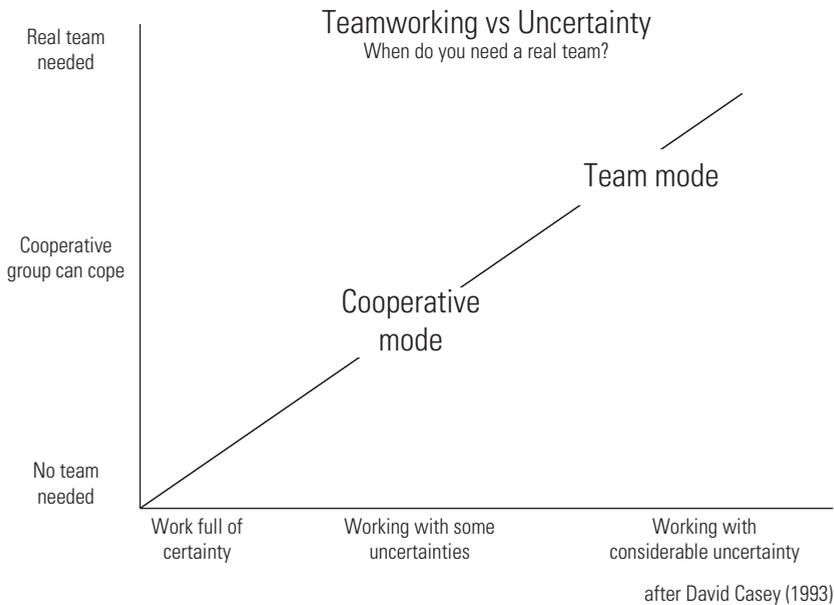


Figure 13.3: Teamworking vs. Uncertainty – shows a relationship between uncertainty and the level of teamwork

Uncertainty: Rigorously evaluating the working group/team options for a specific task can prevent an unsuitable approach. Casey (1993) suggests that the level of uncertainty embedded in a task is an indicator of the need for a group or a team (see Figure 13.3). The more uncertainty related to the task, the more there is a need for a team approach. As project work often involves working with uncertainty, there is a clear indication that projects demand the investment needed for developing a real team.

Potential teams need to work actively towards becoming a real team and their priority must be in developing a common purpose and approach. The following characteristics are observed in successful teams:

- a. A team should involve a small number of people (6–10) to provide a range of skills.
- b. A team should contain or develop complementary skills in terms of technical/functional expertise, problem solving and decision-making skills and interpersonal skills appropriate for the task.
- c. A team should be committed to a common purpose and performance goals that are documented, agreed and shared.
- d. Roles within the team should be clearly defined and provide all that is needed to ensure team success.
- e. Team members should take mutual responsibility. If it fails for one, it fails for everyone.

Overcoming obstacles or responding positively to failures can strengthen potential teams. Unfortunately, if teams meet an obstacle and become stuck or indifferent, performance will fail and might be accompanied by confusion, hostility and demoralization. At this point, teams will become pseudo teams.

Teams will not become real teams until they are mutually accountable. Real teams become high-performing teams when people are committed to the team's goals and each other. They practice teamwork and seem to have extra energy reflected in their care, support and concern for others. When faced with challenges these teams exceed or excel beyond expectations.

4. How Can we Achieve Significant Performance Results?

Katzenbach and Smith (1993, p. 105) provide a series of suggestions for how teams can develop their performance.

4.1 Themes and Identity

Teams often adopt a theme or mission that establishes and conveys meaning about their purpose and identity. It is important that the themes have richness in their meaning to the team. The theme might be the way the members communicate and use language within the team. See 'Team Charter' in Chapter 12 on *Project Teams*.

4.2 Enthusiasm and Energy Level

Teams both work and play hard and with enthusiasm; they put in extra time (without being asked) in order to achieve their goals and, to outsiders, the energy and enthusiasm within the team are easily recognized. However, such energy and enthusiasm cannot be mandated, they must evolve from within through the interactions of team members.

4.3 Event-Driven Histories

Teams develop stories about their successes and failures that begin to define how they perceive themselves and their performance. Events are generally unplanned and have a galvanizing effect, especially building on effective responses to failures as well as to successes. These stories help to propel team performance.

4.4 Personal Commitment

When there is strong commitment to one another's development and success, there is always enrichment of the team's aspirations and sense of purpose. This trait is most prevalent in a high-performing team and cannot be dictated from outside the team.

4.5 Performance Results

Effective teams need clearly established measures of performance that set expectations. These measures are the drivers for the team and indicate how their effectiveness can be assessed.

'Real teams almost always outperform similarly situated and challenged individuals acting as individuals. High-performance teams, in addition, outperform all reasonable expectations for the group, including those of the team members themselves. Without specific, tangible performance results, in fact, little else matters' (Katzenbach and Smith, 1993).

5. Dangers of High Group Cohesion: Groupthink

When a team establishes a high level of mutual commitment, there is a danger that this cohesion can become more important than the need to critically evaluate its decisions and resulting actions from a broader perspective. The notion is called ‘*groupthink*’ and is the subject of much research initially attributed to Irving Janis (*Victims of Groupthink*, 1972).

5.1 Causes of Groupthink

Janis examined how decisions had been made in the American political arena regarding the Bay of Pigs Invasion, the Cuban Missile Crisis and the Vietnam war. More recently we can identify the response to the situation in Iraq as a possible example of groupthink. Janis concluded there are three main causes of groupthink:

- Highly cohesive groups are much more likely to engage in groupthink. The closer the individuals, the less likely they are to raise questions to break the cohesion.
- The group isolates itself from outside experts and information. In order to make a well-informed decision, the group needs to consult appropriate experts or take an external viewpoint so that it experiences a perspective other than its own. This can feel uncomfortable and can be strongly resisted by the group members, not necessarily because of the challenge, but because they strongly believe there is no other perspective worth pursuing.
- Strong leadership can provoke groupthink, because the leader could promote his/her own solution.

These are things that a group can identify and be aware of, but the group often does not because of its closeness and cohesion. If it is subject to a directive leader, there are also effects due to power and control that can encourage the group to believe it is effective when, in fact, it is far from it. See ‘Situational Leadership’ in Chapter 6 on *Leadership Theories and Styles*.

5.2 Symptoms of Groupthink

To help us identify the existence of groupthink, Janis (1972) proposed eight symptoms that are indicative of groupthink:

- A feeling of the group’s invulnerability creates excessive optimism and encourages risk taking.
- Discounting warnings that might challenge assumptions.
- An unquestioned belief in the group’s morality, causing members to ignore the consequences of their actions.
- Stereotyped views of the ‘*enemy*’ and its leaders.

- Application of pressure to ensure conformance of members of the group who disagree.
- Shutting down of ideas that deviate from the apparent group consensus, without proper consideration.
- An illusion of unanimity with regards to going along with the group.
- Mindguards: these are self-appointed members who shield the group from dissenting opinions.

5.3 Classic Cases of Groupthink

Most research about groupthink examines two important US government decisions.

Bay of Pigs: Janis (1972) refers to the **Bay of Pigs** invasion where the United States trained a number of Cuban exiles to invade Cuba and spark a revolution against Fidel Castro's communist regime. It appears that the plan was flawed from the beginning but none of President Kennedy's top advisers spoke against the plan. On inspection, Kennedy's advisers fit the main profile of groupthink and had become a very cohesive group. They did not want to upset the president, so were afraid of speaking out against the plan. Also, the president's brother, Robert Kennedy, became the '*mindguard*', aware that the president had already made up his mind and telling dissenters that they were wasting their time. Military leaders (external experts) were not consulted to establish whether the plans were strategically sound. The invasion was a dismal failure and an embarrassment to Kennedy early in his term of office.

Challenger: On 22 January 1986, the **Challenger** space shuttle exploded shortly after liftoff. NASA scientists and engineers were keen to start the mission because there had been a number of delays due to cold weather. A component in the booster rocket called the '*o-ring*' had been identified by one engineer as a potential problem at low temperatures. After a number of conference calls to discuss the problem, the decision to launch was made. This group exhibited a number of the conditions for groupthink. It needed to get the shuttle launched as soon as possible and ignored any warnings that would compromise its goal. There was also an apparent feeling of invulnerability because, up to that point, NASA had an excellent safety record, but the group failed to acknowledge the telltale signs of '*o-ring*' failure and to fully examine the risks associated with the decision. The decision led to the tragic loss of the astronauts, a very expensive space vehicle, and the resulting loss of its reputation for a near perfect safety record.

Government and national organizations like NASA are under extremely high stress and are subject to authoritative leadership. It is potentially easy for them to slip into groupthink. After the Challenger disaster, NASA used sociologists to examine how the groups failed in preventing the disaster, and they concluded that individual fears were suppressed in order to meet the group objective.

5.4 Preventing Groupthink

Janis devised seven ways that a group might use to help prevent groupthink (1972, pp. 209–215):

- Leaders should allow each team member to be a ‘*critical evaluator*’. This allows each member to freely air objections and doubts.
- Leaders or project managers should not express an opinion when assigning a task to a group.
- The organization should set up several independent groups, working on the same problem.
- All effective alternatives should be objectively examined.
- Each team member should discuss the ideas with trusted people outside of the team.
- The group should invite outside experts into meetings. Group members should be allowed to discuss with and question the outside experts.
- At least one group member should be assigned the role of ‘*devil’s advocate*’. This should be a different person for each meeting.

Janis suggests that by following these guidelines, groupthink can be avoided. For example, after the Bay of Pigs fiasco, John F. Kennedy sought to avoid groupthink during the Cuban Missile Crisis. He invited outside experts to share their viewpoints with group members, who questioned them carefully. He also encouraged group members to discuss ideas and possible solutions with trusted people outside the group, and he even divided the group up into various subgroups, in order to partially break the group cohesion. JFK was deliberately absent from the meetings, so as to avoid pressing his own opinion. Ultimately, the Cuban Missile Crisis was resolved peacefully, thanks in part to these measures.

5.5 Abilene Paradox

Often confused with groupthink, the Abilene paradox represents a subtly different effect.

The Abilene paradox was recognized by Jerry B. Harvey when his family was contentedly playing dominoes on the porch one hot afternoon in Texas. One family member suggested they went to the nearby town, Abilene, for dinner.

Though they were happy where they were, the family agreed to go. The drive to Abilene was long and hot and the food at the restaurant was poor. When they returned home, members of the family admitted that, even at the time of the suggested trip, they would have preferred to stay at home but agreed because they thought everyone else wanted to go.

So, the Abilene paradox refers to a situation where a group acts in a manner that is actually the opposite of its preferences because no group member is willing to raise objections. Social

psychology suggests that human beings do not like acting contrary to the trend of the group and often there are social mores that prevent individuals from voicing their own views or feelings.

The Abilene paradox is often used to help explain bad business decisions, especially when made by committee. A suggestion to help overcome the paradox is to ask, at the point of making a group decision, *'Are we going to Abilene?'*, so that the group can determine if its decision is truly desired by the group's members. However, if the group is still in the Abilene frame of mind, it might be unlikely to overcome groupthink.

Both the Abilene paradox and the concept of groupthink attempt to explain the observed behavior of groups in social contexts. The main message provided by Abilene is that groups have just as many problems managing their disagreements as they do their agreements.

A number of means have been proposed to assist groups in avoiding these dysfunctional behaviors. The inclusion in the group of people with diverse backgrounds in the decision-making process appears to provide a consistently effective solution. Groups so comprised tend to be more effective in avoiding Abilene paradox situations, and tend to be able to make much better decisions overall.

EXERCISES:

1. Look at the Katzenbach and Smith table (Table 13.1) and compare it with that developed by Jennifer Henderson (Table 13.2). Can you find any similarities and clear differences between teams and groups and relate this to your projects?
2. Think of a group or team you have been involved with, possibly in the workplace, in a sports team or as a member of a club. For each of your experiences, do you think it was a team or a group? What is the reason for your choice? You can also think about a favorite or famous sporting team – do you think it is really a team, or is it a group? How can you justify your choice?
3. Consider the examples of groupthink explained in this chapter and discuss how they can relate to situations you have experienced on your projects.

Key Points:

1. There is a purpose for both groups and teams in project organizations. For a short-term task, a group will probably be sufficient, especially if they are experienced in the field. High performance in the longer term needs the investment of a team.
2. Real teams need heavy investment by the individuals and the organization in order to reap the synergistic benefits that teams offer.
3. Groups and teams need to check that their decisions, methods and goals are in tune with external perspectives to avoid becoming self-justifying.

References:

- Casey, D.** (1993) *Managing Learning in Organizations (Managing Work & Organizations)*, Open University Press.
- Henderson, J.** (2002) Groups vs. Teams: A Call and Response Exercise, in *Grassroots Fundraising Journal*, July/Aug. 2002.
- Janis, I. L.** (1972) *Victims of Groupthink: A psychological study of foreign-policy decisions and fiascoes*, Oxford, UK, Houghton Mifflin.
- Katzenbach, J. R. and Smith, D. K.** (1993) *The Wisdom of Teams: Creating the High-Performance Organization*, McKinsey & Company.

Team Roles

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter you should be able to:

- Examine the roles that individuals can exhibit when in a team.
- Investigate how these roles coexist and interrelate in teams.
- Consider how team roles relate to project leadership.

In the previous chapter on *Teams vs. Groups*, we recognized that teams need to operate in a different way to groups and, to be effective, members of a team adopt specific behaviors in order for the team to perform.

A number of researchers have studied how members of teams interact as they participate in team activities. They propose that team members adopt a specific style within a team (the *team role*) that contributes to the team's effectiveness. This style is distinct from the role undertaken in carrying out the technical work of the team, or the *functional role*. To differentiate:

Functional Role: The functional role refers to the job the team has been hired to do and members have been selected for their product knowledge, technical skill, work experience and practical ability in a particular area. Usually, their functional role is representative of the part of the organization they work within. This could be, for example, design, legal, accounts, sales or even subfunctions of engineering, such as mechanical or electrical.

Team Role: In a team, members also fulfill a team role which is their tendency to behave in a particular way, to contribute to the team's effectiveness through their interrelationships with other team members. Team members generally exhibit a preferred style that is likely to be shaped by their personalities and the context that they find themselves within. This context will be influenced by the other team members and their interactions with each other, rather than their technical skills and product knowledge.

1. Summary of Team Roles

The team role characteristics can be regarded as particular strengths within a team, but people who possess them to a high degree are also likely to have predictable shortcomings. In a sense it is the price paid for the strength, and so they can be seen as allowable weaknesses (see Table 14.1). However, they are allowable only if the team cooperates carefully together to support team members through any exhibition of these weaknesses.

Different team role models use different terms for different roles, but there are common themes that are present in each of the models. Essentially, there are five types of team roles that can be adopted by team members. Each role contributes an important dynamic that supports an effective team. These theories suggest that a successful and performing team needs someone who exhibits one of each of these roles.

Controlling/Organizing: This team role is directive and has a need to set the agenda and make autocratic decisions. It is important that a team includes this role to give direction and focus for tasks, but other team members must be aware that this can become a dominating style if left unchecked. Also, there can be conflicts and disagreements if there is more than one of this type in a team.

Challenging/Assessing: This role is important to balance a dominating controlling type. The person exhibiting this role adopts a supportively critical style by asking questions and challenging decisions. In other contexts, this type could be referred to as a *Devil's Advocate*. Too many members exhibiting this style can cause stagnation because there is too much challenge and the team cannot agree about how to proceed and take action.

Creative/Exploring: This role is important in the prevention of groupthink (see Chapter 13 on *Teams vs. Groups*) that brings team self-justification. An exploring type will bring new ideas into the team through a creative approach or through seeking further information from inside and outside the team and its environment. Again, too many members adopting a creative approach can introduce too many options and stifle action.

Contributor/Developer: A team member adopting this role is one who moves the task forward, organizes and completes the work. Once the task is identified and agreed, these members are important to progress and complete the work.

Communicator/Collaborator: These team members are important because they act as both the glue that keeps the team together and the lubrication that deals with conflict and disagreement at source, before disagreement gets out of hand. Too many of this type encourages the team to focus on self-maintenance and not getting the work done.

2. Belbin's Team Roles

One of the more popular team role models was developed by Dr R. Meredith Belbin in his work at Henley Business College. Belbin determined that there are nine specific roles or behavior types within a team which, when combined, enable the team to perform. His team roles can be determined using a Self-Perception Inventory test questionnaire. The questionnaire is completed by each team member from his or her own point of view (their own self-perception) within the context of the specific team and environment (see www.belbin.com).

When using a team role model we must be aware that there can be a tendency to 'pigeonhole' people into particular characteristics. Once someone is identified as a Shaper or a Completer Finisher, they can be stuck with that label for life!

Here are Belbin's team roles with their associated strengths and allowable weaknesses (Table 14.1). They are grouped together to indicate whether the role is best focused on action, thinking /problem solving, or people/feelings.

Table 14.1: Belbin's Team Roles – showing team roles with identified strengths and allowable weaknesses for each type. Adapted from Belbin, R. Meredith (1993) *Team Roles at Work*. Oxford, UK: Butterworth Heinemann

Overall	Belbin Roles	Strengths	Allowable Weaknesses
Thinking / problem solving	Implementer	Disciplined, reliable, conservative and efficient. Practical organizer, good at turning decisions and strategies into manageable tasks/practical actions. Systematic and methodical worker. Well organized and predictable. Takes basic ideas and makes them work in practice.	Can feel uncomfortable in unstable and quickly changing environments. Somewhat inflexible, slow to respond to new possibilities.
	Shaper	Dynamic, outgoing, challenges, pressurizes, seeks ways around obstacles. Outgoing and emotional, highly strung, quick to respond to a challenge. Good at making things happen and is driven by results. Lots of energy and action, challenging others to move forwards.	Can be prone to provocation and short-lived bursts of temper. Dislikes vagueness and muddled thinking.
	Completer/ Finisher	Painstaking, conscientious, anxious. Searches out errors and omissions. Attention to detail, makes sure nothing is overlooked. Maintains a sense of urgency, good at time keeping. A capacity for fulfilling their promises and working to the highest standards. Reliably sees things through to the end, ironing out the wrinkles and ensuring everything works well.	Can be over-anxious and appear fussy. Can lose sight of the overall objective. Reluctant to delegate. A tendency to worry about small things, a reluctance to 'let go' and trust others.

Table 14.1 (Continued)

Overall	Belbin Roles	Strengths	Allowable Weaknesses
People / feelings	Plant	Highly creative, imaginative and unorthodox. Full of original ideas and can adopt a radical minded approach. Solves difficult problems with original and creative ideas.	Can appear to be 'up in the clouds' and inclined to disregard practical details and protocol. Weak in communicating with and managing ordinary people.
	Monitor/Evaluator	Sober, strategic and discerning. Sees the big picture and all options. Judges accurately. A critical and analytical thinker. Good at assimilating and interpreting lots of complex data and analyzing problems. Thinks carefully and accurately about things.	Can appear to be over critical and a little detached from the team. Lacks drive and ability to inspire others.
	Specialist	Single-minded, self-starting, dedicated. Brings a high level of technical knowledge to the team. Can combine creativity and pragmatism. Has expert knowledge/skills in key areas and will solve many problems here.	Tendency to focus on technical solutions rather than take a holistic view. Contributes only on a narrow front. Can be disinterested in all other areas.
Doing / acting	Coordinator	Mature, confident and trusting. A good chairman. Clarifies goals, promotes decision making. Calm, confident and self-controlled. A capacity for involving everyone and ensuring the team meets its objectives. Respected leader who helps everyone focus on their task.	May not be the most clever or creative person in the team. Can be seen as excessively controlling.
	Team Worker	Social, mild, perceptive, accommodating. The 'social oil' of the team. Concerned with people's welfare and good at promoting team spirit. Averts friction. Cares for individuals and the team. Good listener and works to resolve social problems.	Does not like personal confrontation and can be indecisive in moments of crisis.
	Resource Investigator	Extrovert, enthusiastic, communicative. Explores opportunities. Develops contacts. Good at exploring anything new. Enjoys new and challenging situations. Relaxed and easygoing. Explores new ideas and possibilities with energy and with others. Good networker.	Can lose interest once the initial fascination of a new project has passed. Can be too optimistic.

The Belbin team role profile is established through a Self-Perception Questionnaire; that is, it is a person's own belief about themselves that identifies the characteristics. This can lead to misleading results, so it is better to get external people to help with the identification of the individual team characteristics.

Also, team role characteristics are relevant in specific team situations. For example, someone who in their day job might exhibit strong Specialist and Completer/Finisher characteristics as a Quality Inspector in an engineering company, might in their spare time run a social club that requires Coordinator and Shaper styles.

Team role characteristics can also change over time. One person might exhibit creative or explorative traits at the start of a task and then become a contributor/developer as the team proceeds with the task. Therefore, we need to be careful about any assumptions that we make about our own and other people's team role characteristics at any point in time.

3. Avoiding Confusion Between Similar Types

Sometimes, the similarity of the roles can cause confusion about the roles. Also, as each team member can exhibit more than one team role, it can appear that the roles overlap. This apparent similarity of some of the roles can cause confusion when determining which is a team member's preferred role. The following are the roles where confusion most usually occurs:

3.1 Plant or Resource Investigator?

These two roles tend to be confused because both are seen as 'creative'. In practice, the distinction between the two is important. Plants are more creative when left alone and kept free from interference, whereas Resource Investigators seek and need the stimulus of others. So, these two team roles thrive under very different conditions. Plants need a sympathetic and appreciative leader, a liberal atmosphere and an unstructured or loosely structured environment. Resource Investigators operate well under pressure and when coping with a sudden or unexpected crisis.

3.2 Plant or Monitor Evaluator?

These are both 'thinking' roles, but they think in quite different ways. Plants operate through inspiration and creative intuition and like to form an intellectual overview. Monitor Evaluators are better at diagnosing problems, assessing situations, choosing best options and planning ahead.

3.3 Resource Investigator or Coordinator?

Though both of these team roles are good at liaising, they operate in different ways. Resource Investigators seek 'adventure' and thrive on the discovery of new contacts. Coordinators prefer the process of pulling together the resources and making sure they work in harmony with the goals of the organization.

3.4 Coordinator or Shaper?

These two team roles are both strong leadership roles but they tend to adopt different styles. Coordinators are skilled at getting the best out of other team members and using their talents to the full. Shapers set the scene and expect to be followed, and they drive those who work for them to the limit.

3.5 Team Worker or Coordinator?

Both these team roles look for and create harmony and consensus, but Team Workers attempt to avoid friction and build one-to-one relationships. Coordinators are better at handling groups

and projecting the sense of a common purpose. Team Workers are often skilled at working for very difficult people, whereas Coordinators excel at managing difficult people.

3.6 Implementer or Completer Finisher?

These two team roles are regarded as action-type roles but their approaches are different. Implementers are effective at building up systems and organizations and taking the practical steps to make things happen. Completer Finishers, however, are more concerned with the thoroughness and rigor of any action undertaken, seeing the method as less important than achieving the end result. Completer Finishers are self-motivated and don't usually need additional incentives to spur them on.

3.7 Completer Finisher or Specialist?

Both of these team roles aim to achieve the highest quality standards in their work, but Completer Finishers see this in general terms. For Specialists, it is their professionalism that is important and this generates its own standards against which everything else is measured and assessed. Specialists become ill at ease when subject to close supervision from non-professionals or 'outsiders'. Completer Finishers, however, are ready to accept a wider range of bosses and they carry out all their responsibilities with the same level of urgency and thoroughness.

4. Belbin's Team Styles in a Leadership Context

We can consider each team role in terms of its relationship with other roles in a leadership context. The leader/peer/follower relationships (shown in Table 14.2) can inform the design of team hierarchy and structure.

Table 14.2: Belbin's Team Styles in a Leadership Context

As Leader:	As Peer:	As Follower:
Completer Finisher		
Works well with reliable and well-organized Implementers. Works least well with Resource Investigators.	Respected by most Implementers. Clashes with Resource Investigators.	Works well with Resource Investigators, Plants and Shapers. Performs least well with other Completer Finishers.
Implementer		
Inclined to formal relationships. Works well with compliant Team Workers. Works least well with Plants and Resource Investigators.	Works well with Coordinators, Monitor Evaluators, Resource Investigators, Completers and Specialists. Can get into dispute with other Implementers and Plants.	Works well with Plants, Shapers and Completer Finishers. Performs least well with other Implementers.
Monitor Evaluator		
Works well with Implementers efficient in both devising methods and procedures and in supervision. Works least well with Monitor Evaluators. Sometimes Plants need to be avoided because this can lead to inaction due to excessive deliberation.	Works well with Coordinators and Implementers. Works least well with Completer Finishers and other Monitor Evaluators.	Works well with Plants, Shapers and Completer Finishers. Performs least well with other Monitor Evaluators.
Specialist		
Works well with Implementers and Team Workers. Works least well with Plants.	Works well with Implementers and Team Workers. Works least well with Plants.	Works well with Team Workers and Coordinators. Performs least well with Resource Investigators and Shapers.

(continued)

Table 14.2 (Continued)

As Leader:	As Peer:	As Follower:
Coordinator		
<p>Coordinators tend to make good supervisors. Works well with Plants.</p> <p>Works least well with Shapers unless the Shaper has good secondary Plant or Resource Investigator roles.</p>	<p>Works well with Team Workers and Implementers and generally with other team roles.</p> <p>Seldom works well with Shapers.</p>	<p>Effective at upwardly managing Shapers and Plants.</p> <p>Performs least well with Team Workers.</p>
Team Worker		
<p>Works well with Specialists.</p> <p>Works least well with Shapers.</p>	<p>Works particularly well with other Team Workers and Plants.</p> <p>Has difficulty with Shapers.</p>	<p>Works well with Shapers and Plants.</p> <p>Performs least well with other Team Workers.</p>
Resource Investigator		
<p>Works well with Completer Finishers.</p> <p>Possible unstable relationship with Shapers.</p>	<p>Works particularly well with Coordinators, Monitor Evaluators, Resource Investigators, Completer Finishers and Specialists.</p> <p>Has difficulty with Implementers and Plants.</p>	<p>Works well with Shapers, Plants, Completer Finishers.</p> <p>Performs least well with Implementers as this can lead to bureaucracy.</p>
Shaper		
<p>Works well with Team Workers, Implementers and, possibly, Completer Finishers.</p> <p>Works less well with Coordinators and Monitor Evaluators.</p>	<p>Works particularly well with Resource Investigators.</p> <p>Has difficulty with Plants.</p>	<p>Works well with Coordinators, Monitor Evaluators.</p> <p>Shapers will challenge the establishment and Implementer leaders dislike such disturbance.</p>
Plant		
<p>Works very well with Implementers and Monitor Evaluators.</p> <p>Works less well with Shapers and Resource Investigators.</p>	<p>Works particularly well with Coordinators, Resource Investigators and Team Workers.</p> <p>Has difficulty with Monitor Evaluators and other Plants, but this interaction can lead to valuable outcomes. Possible clashes with Implementers.</p>	<p>Works well with Coordinators, and a supportive Team Worker.</p> <p>Works least well with Shapers and Implementers. As these are the most likely types to run organizations, Plants tend to look elsewhere.</p>

Adapted from Belbin, R.M. (1993) *Team Roles at Work*, Oxford, UK: Butterworth-Heinemann.

5. Combining Primary and Secondary Styles

It is not necessary to have nine people in a team, but ideally in every team each role should be present. In a smaller team each of the team roles can be represented because, typically, team members may each be strong in more than one role, and so play more than one part.

The potential to perform in more than one role can be identified from the Self-Perception Inventory Questionnaire. (If we have awarded high scores to more than one characteristic, we can expect that, in the team situation that we had in mind when we completed the questionnaire, we will likely be able to adopt one or more of these team roles.)

Table 14.3: Belbin's Team Roles as an Example of the Summary Roles

Overall	Belbin Role	Summary Role
Leading	Coordinator	Controlling/Organizing
	Shaper	
Doing	Implementer	Contributor/Developer
	Completer Finisher	
Thinking	Specialist	Challenging/Assessing
	Monitor Evaluator	
	Plant	
Socializing	Resource Investigator	Communicator/Collaborator
	Team Worker	

For example, a primary role of Coordinator and secondary role of Monitor Evaluator provides a balance of people and task focus and can provide a purposeful leader with the strengths of both team roles. However, the open-minded Coordinator role can be compromised by tendencies to evaluate team contributions before they have been given sufficient consideration by the team.

By considering an individual's secondary or even tertiary team roles, it is possible for small teams of three or four people to exhibit all the Belbin styles necessary to be a performing team. The team can be populated with the right mix and balance of styles for effective team working (see Table 14.3).

6. Team Roles Surfacing at Different Stages of a Project

When addressing a specific problem, different team roles can take the lead at different times or stages during the resolution of the problem.

6.1 Problem Conception and Identification

The problem might be first identified by the Plant, Resource Investigator or Specialist.

The Monitor Evaluator or Shaper might then influence the idea to make it more practical.

6.2 Solution Design

The Plant, Resource Investigator or Specialist might then help to refine the problem and determine some possible solutions.

Again, the Monitor Evaluator or Shaper might help determine which is the best approach to solving the problem.

The Coordinator might be the arbitrator of these discussions and the Team Worker can help to dissipate any heat that might arise.

The Implementer and Completer Finisher might assist the decision-making processes to ensure the chosen methods are practical and achievable.

6.3 Realization / Implementation of the Solution

As the team works to resolve the solution, the Coordinator and Team Worker will help to keep the team on purpose.

The Implementer and Completer Finisher will be working hard to complete the solution as designed. The Specialist and the Shaper will be making sure the solution is keeping to the design.

If there are any difficulties or the solution cannot proceed as designed, the Plant, Resource Investigator and/or Specialist will return to review the design and offer alternatives. The Monitor Evaluator and/or Shaper will help the decision-making process about whether the alternative is appropriate, assisted by the Implementer and Completer Finisher.

6.4 Resolution of the Problem

The Implementer and especially the Completer Finisher will make sure the solution is complete to the design. The Shaper, Specialist and Monitor Evaluator will check that the solution is complete and correct.

The Plant, Resource Investigator and Specialist will review the working processes and suggest improvements and lessons learnt. The Resource Investigator will communicate these improvements to other teams.

The Coordinator and Team Worker will help 'lubricate' the team processes in order to complete the task.

6.5 Applicability of Belbin's Model

Belbin's original research, at Henley Business School was based upon a highly selective sample of established UK executives. These executives were being developed by their employers for senior management, and the tasks they undertook, as part of the research, were business simulations or games. For these reasons, there can be criticism about the general applicability of Belbin's findings.

7. How to Use Team Role Models

It is not always possible to choose the members of a team; usually, they are provided from a pool of resources, dependent on who is available at the time. With reference to what has been said so far in this book, this generates a dilemma between the perception that a team has been selected and the reality of the situation. However, team role models can assist in either eventuality.

If there is the opportunity to select team members, the model can be used as part of the selection process, ensuring that there is some representation of each of the characteristics among the team members.

If it is not possible to directly select team members, an understanding of the composition of the team role characteristics in the team can help to identify potential gaps in the overall profile. Of course, team members' secondary or tertiary styles can be taken into account if they are represented by sufficient 'scores' from the questionnaire.

Teams work best when there is a balance of primary roles and when team members know their roles, work to their strengths and actively manage weaknesses.

To achieve the best balance in the team, there should be:

- One Coordinator or Shaper (not both) for leader.
- A Plant to stimulate ideas.
- A Monitor Evaluator to maintain honesty and clarity.
- One or more each of: Implementer, Team Worker, Resource Investigator or Completer Finisher to make things happen.

The benefits of having a well-constructed team include:

- Fewer clashes between individuals competing for the same team role.
- More mutual appreciation and recognition between team members.
- A greater contribution to the whole team from each team member.
- Avoidance of mistakes when one team member undertakes an activity that demands multiple team roles.

EXERCISES:

1. Examine Belbin's team roles and select which role you consider is most applicable to your own style when working on a project. This might be your primary role.
2. If you have difficulty selecting only one style, you may have a dual preferred role. Think about how a secondary role might interrelate with your primary role. What can you identify from the information about these roles that can inform your own style?
3. Think about other members of your team. What roles do you think they adopt when working on a project? Can you identify any roles that are not represented in your team or any roles that might conflict? Does this explain any difficulties that you have observed the team exhibits?

Key Points:

1. In a team, each team member has two types of roles: the functional role and the team role.
2. Belbin identifies nine team roles, each with their own strengths valuable to a team and allowable weaknesses that the team must support. The team roles rise to the occasion at different stages of a project.
3. Interrelationships between team roles must be understood by team members to promote harmony and prevent possible friction.
4. The team roles indicate how well balanced the team is. The team roles might be helpful in designing a team, but are more likely to be useful as an aid to understanding existing team composition.

Further Reading:

Belbin, R. M. (1993) *Team Roles at Work*. Oxford, UK: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Team Development Phases

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter you should be able to:

- Understand how team development can be subdivided into a number of phases.
- Understand how the changes in the development phases can be quantified by looking at the individual's attitude, the team's attitude and the project manager's leadership.
- Understand how the team's performance changes as the team progresses through the development phases.

Team development is a dynamic process where the relationships between the team members pass through a number of phases as they get to know each other. It is important for project managers, as team leaders, to be aware of these development phases so they can guide the team members through the stages. This will increase their effectiveness and protect them from interpersonal conflict which always threatens to implode a team.

Most of us have watched one of those reality television programs where a number of 'ordinary people' come together to compete in some way, usually in an alien environment. Whether it is *Survivor*, *Big Brother*, *Iron Age Man* or *The Apprentice*, the typical format is to bring a number of individuals together who have never met before and present them with a number of demanding tasks, and at the end of each program the 'weakest link' is voted off.

If you had been looking at the bigger picture you might have noticed a common thread running through all these programs; as the team members get to know each other and interact, they pass through a number of distinct team development phases (see Table 15.1). The purpose of this chapter is to outline the team dynamics within these phases. The classic model for team development, developed by Bruce Tuckman, is the forming, storming, norming and performing model.

Table 15.1: Team Development Phases – shows the six phases of team development

Forming	The team members come together to form a team. The individuals are getting to know each other and finding out where they fit within the team.
Storming	As the team members begin to work together they start to express their opinions and perceptions about how the team should work together and how the project should be made. If these opinions are different, it will certainly lead to a healthy debate, but could also lead to arguments and interpersonal conflict.
Norming	There is consolidation within the team and acceptance of differences and an agreement to work together as a team. The team establishes order and cohesion. The team develops a team charter to clarify team roles, norms and values.
Performing	The team members are now working effectively together as a team. There is cooperation and role flexibility between the team members and effective problem solving and decision making. The team members are now totally focused on the project.
Maturing	As the team matures it begins to lose its competitive edge. The team members are more interested in maintaining the status quo than actively looking for new ideas and growing the business.
Declining	Eventually the lack of investment catches up with the team's ability to perform efficiently and attract business. The cash cow eventually dries up.

1. Team Focus

As the team develops, the focus naturally changes from the individual to the team and to the task. This can be clearly shown as a stacked histogram (see Figure 15.1).

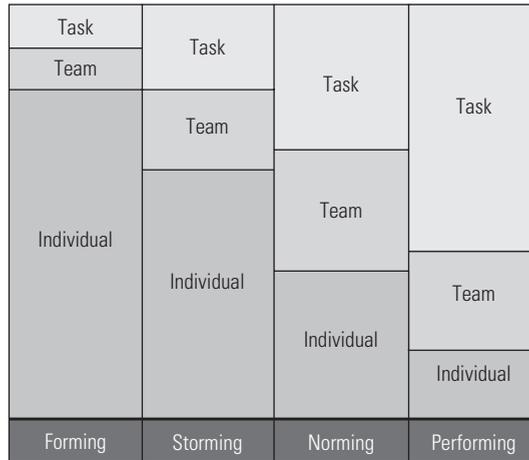


Figure 15.1: Team Focus – shows a stacked histogram of the relative focus of the individual, the team and the task

Forming: When a team forms, the individuals will be mostly focusing on themselves, what is expected from them and how they fit into the team. There will be less focus on the team and less focus on the task.

Storming: As the team members begin to work together they start to express their opinions and perceptions about how the team should work together and how the project should be made. This means the focus on the task and the team will increase and there will be less focus on the individual than in the forming phase.

Norming: The team tries to establish order by focusing discussion on all three areas equally.

Performing: All the team members are now working well together. The main focus is now on the task which, after all, is the main purpose of forming the team in the first place. There is still an important focus on team maintenance, but less focus on the individual.

2. Team Performance

Teams are formed to carry out a project, to produce a product or service. This section uses a line graph to show the relative performance of the team over the development phases (Figure 15.2).

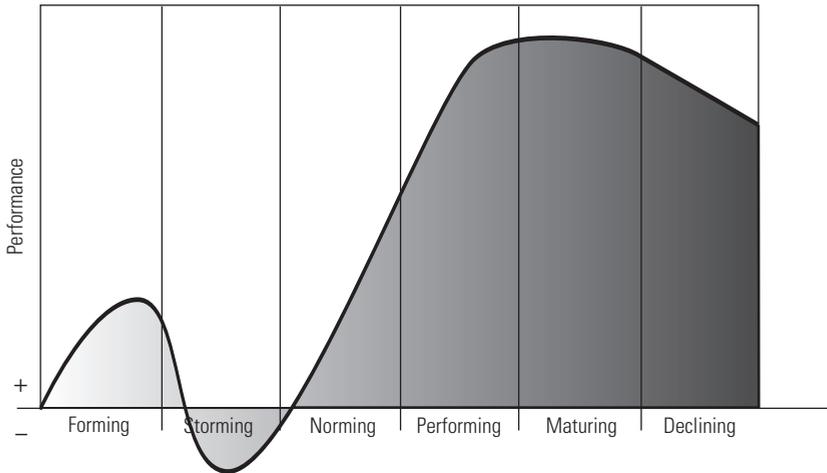


Figure 15.2: Team Performance – shows a line graph of the relative performance over the development phases

Forming: Initially the team might achieve moderate performance if it has a strong leader to give it direction. But the performance is unlikely to be more than moderate because the team members do not know the other members' abilities and how they could work together as a team.

Storming: The performance falls off in the storming phase if the disagreements and arguments lead to interpersonal conflicts, breakdown in communications, poor problem solving and little cooperation.

Norming: The performance starts to increase as the team charter establishes rules and norms, and the team members want to work together.

Performing: The team members are now working well together, totally task focused, and the performance continues to increase.

Maturing: The team begins to lose its performance edge as the team members are more interested in maintaining the status quo.

Declining: The lack of investment and resistance to change finally catches up with the team and its performance declines. The company is just one step away from closing or being taken over.

3. Forming Phase

When strangers come together to perform a task, predictable patterns of behavior are likely to occur. The forming phase, as the name suggests, is when the team members first come together to form a team or when a new member joins the team. When the individuals first meet as a unit they will not be operating as a team but, rather, as a group of individuals coordinated by the project manager (see the differences between teams and groups in Chapter 12 on *Project Teams*). This is a situation all of us will have experienced a number of times; think back to when you first joined a sports team, a committee or a new project.

When a number of individuals who have never met before or never worked together before come together to form a team, there will be a cautious sense of anticipation, eagerness, enthusiasm and willingness to work together. Like a hesitant swimmer, the team members will cautiously test the water before proceeding any further. When strangers first meet they are reluctant to show their true feelings or express their true thoughts because they are unsure of the response. They will be concentrating on getting acquainted, breaking the ice and starting to build relationships within the team.

3.1 Individual Considerations (Forming Phase)

During the forming phase the individuals' thoughts and discussions might include what's outlined in Table 15.2.

Table 15.2: Individual Considerations (Forming Phase)

Purpose of the Individual	Why have we been brought together? What goals and objectives do we have to achieve? The team members are probably unclear of the objectives with respect to the individuals' roles in the team, the purpose of the team and the objectives of the task and how to carry them out.
Expectations	Members' concerns tend to be <i>focused on</i> ; 'What is expected of me? What is acceptable? Will I fit in? Who will help me? Who do I report to? Who reports to me?'—questions, questions, questions.
Personal Identity	The individuals tend to want to establish their personal identity within the team and make an impression; 'Hello I'm John, I have a degree in engineering and I've worked on a number of large projects.'

3.2 Team Considerations (Forming Phase)

During the forming phase the team's thoughts and discussions might include what's outlined in Table 15.3.

Table 15.3: Team Considerations (Forming Phase)

Title of the Team	The team members are unsure of their identity and what they are going to call the team.
Composition of the Team	The team members will want to discuss who should be in the team and what skills are required.
Life Span of the Team	The team members will discuss how long the team will be together. In the context of a project the duration of the project should be known, but how long the individual members will be needed might be unclear.
Personal Feeling	The feelings and concerns of the individuals are not dealt with by the other team members. There is little recognition of each other's abilities or achievements. Everyone is more interested in themselves.
Poor Listeners	Team members at this stage are poor listeners, particularly to other people's problems; all they want to do is talk about themselves.
Friendship	Members test each other for friendship and common ground. They naturally want to make friends with people with similar thoughts and aspirations, and with people they feel comfortable with and trust.
Values	When team members meet for the first time they generally all display values of democracy, fair treatment and honesty. They frequently develop such group norms as, <i>'Let everyone have a fair share of the air time . . . Let's not play manipulative games . . . Let's be open and level with one another.'</i>

3.3 Task Considerations (Forming Phase)

During the forming phase the task considerations might include what's outlined in Table 15.4.

Table 15.4: Task Considerations (Forming Phase)

Purpose of the Task	The team members are unclear about the purpose of the task, the objectives and how to achieve them.
No Planning	There is generally a low involvement in planning, coordinating and forward proactive thinking. Short-term myopic vision prevails; <i>'What do I need to do today?'</i> , rather than planning for the next week or next month.

Table 15.4 (Continued)

Behavior	When people from different departments are seconded to the Project Management Office (PMO) they form a temporary project team. Because the team is new, there are often no systems or customs to indicate proper behavior while working together on the project. Each person brings their own set of customs, beliefs and perceptions to the project and this might lead to an incoherent team culture at the outset.
Performance	Although the team's enthusiasm, expectations and motivation might be high, their performance is likely to be moderate because they do not know each other's worth, they do not know how to work together and they do not know the task.

3.4 Leadership Considerations (Forming Phase)

In the project context the project manager will be appointed by the project sponsor to the project. However, for project managers to be effective they must gain the respect and trust of the team members.

When teams form there is a mixture of enthusiasm and anticipation, coupled with uncertainty about the project and the other team members. As these forces come together there will be a group of people crying out for leadership and direction. It is the project manager's responsibility to step in and stabilize the situation and give the team direction and guidance (Table 15.5).

Table 15.5: Leadership Considerations (Forming Phase)

Select Team	The project manager's first job is to select the project team. If the project is to be managed within a matrix organization structure, this will mean negotiating with the functional managers for personnel.
Leadership Role	Uncertainty is high during this stage and members usually accept whatever power or authority is offered by either formal or informal leaders. The project manager should err on the autocratic side, issuing instructions just to get the job done.
Launch Meeting	The project manager should make the start of the team's formation an important event; hold an off-site get together so everyone (team members, stakeholders and interested parties) can get acquainted; invite the project sponsor to ' <i>kick things off</i> ' to acknowledge that the team and the project are important to the company. Teams can fail because of a poorly managed beginning, so it is important to start off on the right foot.
Get Acquainted	The project manager should encourage new team members to get acquainted with one another and encourage them to engage in informal, social discussion and interaction, both work-wise (technical skills and experience) and socially (interests and hobbies).
Vision	The project manager should outline the vision for the project (the objectives outlined in the project charter), and the vision for the company, together with establishing the importance and urgency of the team's activities, and discuss any concerns.

(Continued)

Table 15.5 (Continued)

Strategy	The project manager must give the team direction and explain how it can achieve the project's objectives (outlined in the project plan, build method and execution strategy), and discuss potential problems and how to solve them. During the forming stage the team members would probably prefer to be led rather than empowered to make their own decisions – this will come later.
Problem Solving	During the forming phase the team members are likely to be focused on their interpersonal issues. Therefore, to make things happen, the project manager needs to generate ideas, solve problems and make project decisions.
Leadership	At the outset the project manager should consider making most of the decisions just to make things happen; trying to please everyone is unlikely to be successful. However, if a firm leadership style is adopted (and everyone knows what to do), the project manager will get the team moving in the right direction. And, assuming the team initially accepts a dictatorial leadership style, the team can be successful.
Guidance	As a team forms there is often a high sense of confusion because the background to the project might be unclear, and there is apprehension with regard to the performance expected from both the individuals and the team. The team members are looking for help and guidance from the project manager and the 'knowledgeable' members, especially members with prior experience of the task.
Team Building	Team-building events can be very effective during the forming stage. This might coincide with the initial phase of the project lifecycle but, if time is scarce, team building will have to be included within normal work interactions.
Project Culture	If projects are rare in an organization, then individuals might not be accustomed to working in temporary teams with 'strangers'. In this case, the project manager should take a softly, softly approach to ease the new members into a project culture and project working environment.
Performance	During the forming stage, the work output is generally low as members are focused on defining the goals and tasks, how to approach the work and what skills are needed. The length of this stage will depend on how clearly the task is defined. Teams with simple tasks will move through orientation quickly, but teams with complex goals and tasks might spend much longer in this stage.
Orientation	The project manager should develop an orientation program to introduce new team member(s) to the project team and project management systems.

Newly formed teams can be successful if there is a dominant leader who knows what to do and stands up to lead the team. In the *Iron Age Man* television series this would be someone who knows how to establish the basic needs of the team (food, water, heat, shelter and safety), and issue instructions to the other people who are usually quite content to follow.

These types of television programs show that initially a democratic approach does not always work, as there is typically much aimless time wasting and irrelevant discussion. A weak

democratic leadership (trying to please everyone) might not get the important jobs done to satisfy their basic needs – this leads to conflict. This situation relates to Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs (see Chapter 19 on *Motivation*).

In the project management environment it is unlikely that a group of people would be thrown together and told to get on with it. It is more likely that a project manager would be appointed to run the project and the project team. Whether the project manager is appointed before or after the team has been selected is another issue.

The forming stage is important because it serves to clarify the team’s purpose and the project’s objectives. Teams that pay attention to building team relationships as well as focusing on the task tend to do better than those that skip over team building. Teams, after all, are made up of people who must work together cooperatively for a successful outcome.

4. Storming Phase

As the team members begin to work together, get to know each other, get to know the job and understand their working environment, they become more confident about their role in the team and about the objectives of the project. This gives the team members the confidence to start airing their views, opinions and perceptions about the project's objectives, how to carry out the task (build method) and how best to work together. If these opinions are different to the other team members' opinions this will certainly lead to a healthy debate, but it could equally lead to acrimonious arguments and interpersonal conflict.

If these differences cannot be resolved quickly and effectively, this will probably lead to a breakdown in communication and a fall off in productivity. Hence this phase is called the storming phase.

4.1 Individual Considerations (Storming Phase)

During the storming phase the individuals' thoughts and discussions might include what's outlined in Table 15.6.

Table 15.6: Individual Considerations (Storming Phase)

Personal Feelings	Personal feelings are raised and openly discussed. Members become more assertive as they try to clarify their roles and to clarify what is expected of them.
Opinions	Team members express their personal opinions about how things should be done. They are less concerned about being rebuffed.
Personal Agendas	At this stage the team members start revealing their personal agendas.
Listening	Members spend more time listening to other team members than they did during the forming stage.

4.2 Team Considerations (Storming Phase)

During the storming phase the team's thoughts and discussions might include what's outlined in Table 15.7.

Table 15.7: Team Considerations (Storming Phase)

Wider Options	Wider and riskier issues are discussed and considered by the team members. This will certainly introduce vibrant debates, which in some cases could lead to interpersonal conflict.
Conflict	Conflict issues are discussed, confronted and not ignored. Emotions are high so disagreements could easily start a period of outright hostility and infighting. There is a feeling that it is better to risk splitting the team than to continue compromising the team work.
Pecking Order	Members will start jockeying for position, testing out one another's strengths and weaknesses to establish their relative pecking order within the team. Alliances are formed between individuals and subgroups might be formed. Competition between members could lead to conflicts as members try to impose their preferences and influence within the team's structure.
Coalitions	Coalitions, subgroups and cliques might form based on common interest. But, equally, subgroups and cliques might form based on disagreement with other subgroups.
Tensions	Tensions could emerge over the lack of performance, particularly when the work is going wrong. There might be plenty of finger pointing.

4.3 Task Considerations (Storming Phase)

Table 15.8: Task Considerations (Storming Phase)

Goals and Objectives	Team members discuss their individual perceptions of the project's goals and objectives. If there is a difference of opinion this could lead to conflict.
Build Method	Team members discuss their individual perceptions of the project build method and execution strategy and how the tasks should be carried out. If there is a difference of opinion this could lead to conflict.

Changes happen within the storming phase as the task requirements become clarified (see Table 15.8), and members begin to understand one another's interpersonal style and behavior.

4.4 Leadership Considerations (Storming Phase)

The savvy project manager will know from past experience that the storming phase could be imminent. Being forewarned, the project manager should be prepared and looking for the telltale signs of conflict (Table 15.9).

Table 15.9: Leadership Considerations (Storming Phase)

Leadership Role	During the storming phase the project manager should encourage the team members to air their views and opinions. It is better to discuss these matters immediately rather than bottle them up, only to explode later.
Discuss and Confront	The project manager should encourage the team members to question the other team members' roles and responsibilities, discuss how tasks are allocated and carried out, encourage team members to challenge the accepted way of doing things and not be afraid of some healthy debate.
Participation	The project manager should encourage FULL participation in discussions and meetings. This is a balance between drawing out the silent and controlling the talkative.
Team Building	The project manager should use team-building techniques to encourage the team members to work together, so the team can quickly pass through the storming phase.

If handled successfully, the storming phase leads to a new and more realistic setting of objectives, procedures and norms. This stage is particularly important for testing the norms of trust within the group.

Unless teams can successfully move beyond this stage, they might get bogged down in abortive debate and never achieve high performance (see Chapter 12 on *Project Teams*). However, success in the storming phase can establish a strong foundation for the team to work together.

The storming phase results from differences between initial expectations and the reality of the situation as perceived by the members. Members might have varying opinions of what the team has to achieve and how to accomplish it. Members are also beginning to confront the differences in their personalities and values, a condition that is present any time strangers meet. Members might feel anger or frustration with the task or with other members, or could even resent the presence of formal leadership.

Open discussions about relationships, conflicts and hidden agendas within the group should generate an atmosphere of mutual trust and confidence and so build an effective team.

5. Norming Phase

After the airing of views and opinions during the storming phase, there is now a willingness to work together as a team, and a desire to sort out the differences.

The team members agree that to work together effectively as a team there needs to be a team charter that outlines guidelines, procedures, rules and accepted norms of behavior (see Chapter 12 on *Project Teams*). There also needs to be mutual respect for one another's skills, abilities, opinions, points of view and contributions to the project. Without a basis of mutual respect, a team cannot function effectively.

Team members start to look for areas of agreement through negotiation and compromise, and by finding areas of commonality. Working norms are developed as a basis on which the team members can work together. They might agree to differ and accept each other's differences – hence this is called the norming phase.

5.1 Individual Considerations (Norming Phase)

During the norming phase the individuals' thoughts and discussions might include what's outlined in Table 15.10.

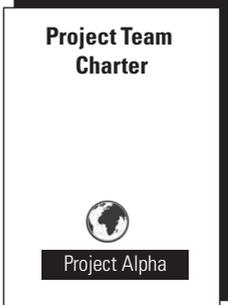
Table 15.10: Individual Considerations (Norming Phase)

Willingness	After the arguments and disagreements in the storming phase, there is a willingness from all the team members to want to work together to complete the project.
Conflict	The team members discuss how to confront and solve interpersonal conflict. Harmony is emphasized, which might discourage minority viewpoints if they are conflicting.
Trust	The team members discuss what degree of openness, trust and confidence is desirable.
Opinions	The team members discuss what opinions are acceptable and what opinions the individual members should keep to themselves.
Individuals' Needs	The team members discuss how they can meet the project's goals and the team's goals, while still satisfying individuals' needs.

5.2 Team Considerations (Norming Phase)

During the norming phase the team's thoughts and discussions might include what's outlined in Table 15.11.

Table 15.11: Team Considerations (Norming Phase)

<p>Purpose of the Team</p>	<p>The team members develop the team charter to confirm the purpose of the team. For example, the team might have been formed to complete a project and then be disbanded.</p>	 <p>The image shows a logo for a 'Project Team Charter'. It features the text 'Project Team Charter' at the top, a globe icon in the center, and 'Project Alpha' in a black box at the bottom, all enclosed in a rectangular frame.</p>
<p>Team Roles</p>	<p>The project manager tries to develop a consensus on the team roles based on the members' strengths and weaknesses; this helps to clarify who does what and why.</p>	
<p>Teamwork</p>	<p>The team members discuss how they can work together to improve the team's performance. For example, the team might look for complementary skills – Jill is quicker at typing than Jack, but Jack is better than Jill at programming. By Jack and Jill working together they perform the job quicker (synergy).</p>	
<p>Problem Solving</p>	<p>The team members discuss how they can solve problems together. For example, they set out the rules for brainstorming sessions to generate a flood of innovative ideas (see Burke, <i>Fundamentals of Project Management</i>).</p>	
<p>Decision Making</p>	<p>The team members discuss how they can make decisions together. For example, they might prefer the project manager to make some decisions, but prefer a democratic vote on other decisions (see decision-making continuum in Chapter 24 on <i>Decision Making</i>).</p>	
<p>Behavior</p>	<p>The team members discuss what type of individual behaviour is appropriate in the team and acceptable to all the members. This could also include how people dress and their general appearance.</p>	
<p>Cohesiveness</p>	<p>Norm acceptance varies with the team members. Conformity to norms is largely determined by the team's cohesiveness. Cohesiveness is defined as the degree to which members are attracted to each other and motivated to be part of the team. In a highly cohesive team, members will strive to maintain positive relationships with other team members. The greater the cohesiveness, the greater the conformity of members to norms.</p>	
<p>Concern</p>	<p>There is a little more concern for the other team members' feelings and desires which, in turn, are reciprocated.</p>	

5.3 Task Considerations (Norming Phase)

During the norming phase the task considerations might include what's outlined in Table 15.12.

Table 15.12: Task Considerations (Norming Phase)

Goals and Objectives	Procedures are established for quantifying and communicating the project's goals and objectives.
Scope Changes	Procedures are established for approving and communicating changes to the scope of work.
Plan and Control	Procedures are established to develop a project plan of work, and a system for monitoring performance and control.
Build Method	The team members discuss the build method and execution strategy and focus on obstacles that might prevent task completion.
Instructions	Procedures are established to issue instructions (job cards).
Communication	Procedures are established to communicate information within the team (documentation control).

Teams vary widely in the types of norms they develop; these norms or shared expectations determine the way the teams behave and the quality of the work they perform.

5.4 Leadership Considerations (Norming Phase)

After the rough and tumble of the storming phase there is a desire and willingness by all the team members to work together. The project manager needs to seize this opportunity and guide the team members through the norming process (Table 15.13).

Table 15.13: Leadership Considerations (Norming Phase)

Team Roles	The project manager needs to chair a team discussion to clarify all the team roles, including that of the project manager as leader.
Work Environment	The project manager should set up the Project Management Office (PMO) as a conducive working environment. This entails identifying and removing barriers which could prevent the members working together.
Norms	The project manager should encourage the team to discuss working arrangements, working procedures and values. Norms should be established as the collective will of the members, but the project manager needs to be careful not to be seen as dictating the norms.

(Continued)

Table 15.13 (Continued)

Cohesiveness	The project manager should encourage the team to be more cohesive. This can be achieved by agreeing on common goals, agreeing on the team size, using the competition to motivate the team to perform (common enemy), rewarding the team rather than any particular individual and physically bringing the team to work together in the same office.
Team Building	The project manager should consider running team-building training courses to help the team members understand the principles of teamwork.
Performance	Performance norms guide the level of output. If members are found not to be pulling their weight, peer pressure will be brought to bear as the lack of contribution could impact on the team's output.

The norming stage is symbolized by the team establishing the need for norms and practices in order for the team to work effectively together. Acceptable unwritten and written (team charter) rules and codes of conduct and behavior are developed and shared. Members' attitudes are characterized by decreasing animosity toward other members, feelings of cohesion, mutual respect, harmony, trust and a feeling of pleasure in accomplishing tasks. The work is characterized by slowly increasing production as skills develop. The group is developing into a team.

The real team building begins once the team members look for areas of agreement through negotiation and compromise, and find areas of commonality. The team then starts to form a sense of identity and cohesiveness, resulting in an increase in motivation and effectiveness.

Norms can be both positive and negative; positive norms should lead to increased output and productivity, but negative norms could lead to restricted work practices, bureaucracy and under performance. If a norm is violated it might be enforced by a reprimand, or in an extreme case, a member could be expelled from the team.

Team norms and standards help the team maintain its distinctiveness and competitive advantage. When teams feel secure they are tolerant of the occasional norm-breaking behavior, but when the team is challenged or under threat, the team comes down very strongly on someone who breaks the rules.

6. Performing Phase

As the working norms and ground rules become established, so the team members start to work together effectively as a team and its performance greatly increases. The key features of performing teams include collaboration, participation, mutual support, flexibility and a continuous search for ways to do things better. They are also ‘*well oiled*’ and run a ‘*slick operation*’, but are always striving for synergy and continuous improvements.

6.1 Individual Considerations (Performing Phase)

During the performing phase the individuals’ thoughts and discussions might include what’s outlined in Table 15.14.

Table 15.14: Individual Considerations (Performing Phase)

Individual	Each individual will consider better ways of supporting the team.
Personal Goals	Personal goals tend to become one and the same as team goals which, in turn, become one and the same as project goals.
Conflict	Interpersonal disagreements and conflicts are handled in a mature way, quickly and effectively.

6.2 Team Considerations (Performing Phase)

During the performing phase the team’s thoughts and discussions might include what’s outlined in Table 15.15.

Table 15.15: Team Considerations (Performing Phase)

Teamwork	<i>‘How can we work together better and improve the team’s performance?’</i> The team is constantly looking for ways to enhance team member interaction leading to synergy.
Problem Solving	<i>‘How can we identify problems quicker and solve problems smarter?’</i>
Responsibility	Team members are prepared to be responsible for their work and accountable for their actions.
Continuous Improvements	The team members are constantly looking for ways to improve the team’s performance.

6.3 Task Considerations (Performing Phase)

During the performing phase the task considerations might include what's outlined in Table 15.16.

Table 15.16: Task Considerations (Performing Phase)

Project's Goals and Objectives	The project's goals and objectives are now the main focus of the team. The project is, after all, the reason the team was established in the first place.
Role Flexibility	There is a high amount of role flexibility within the team, where the individuals will try and find the best match between their skills, the task and the workload.
Outsourcing	If a component can be made better and cheaper elsewhere, the project manager should consider outsourcing.
Proactivity	To get the job done the team focuses on becoming proactive and action orientated. The team members do not wait for things to happen; they take the initiative and make things happen, and are prepared to accept the associated risk.
Opportunities	The team responds quickly and positively to problems and opportunities.
Communication	The team members maintain effective communication even when they are working in different locations.
Entrepreneurism	The team is creative, innovative and entrepreneurial. The team is prepared to take calculated risks to explore ways of improving the project.
Task	The team considers how to make the product more efficiently.
Managing the Project	The team considers how to plan and control the project more effectively.
Quality Circles	The team forms quality circles with other stakeholders in the production line. This is another way to look for continuous improvements.

6.4 Leadership Considerations (Performing Phase)

As the team members move into the performing phase they are working well together. The project manager's job is becoming one of guiding and nudging more than leading, keeping the work environment conducive to achieving the project objectives, and keeping it challenging and fun (Table 15.17).

Table 15.17: Leadership Considerations (Performing Phase)

Leadership Role	As the team development moves into the performing phase the team will increasingly become self-directed. In this situation, the project manager should take a low-key approach and manage from a distance.
Empowerment	The project manager should empower the team through collaboration and participation to take more control on how it manages its work on a day-to-day basis.

Table 15.17 (Continued)

Networking	With the team 'firing on all cylinders', the project manager should focus on building the team's network of useful contacts and stakeholders who can help improve the team's performance.
Succession Planning	During the project key team members might leave, therefore, the project manager should have a succession plan.
Complacency	Beware of complacency; although the team is performing well, it might be one step away from taking its performance for granted and be unaware of the latest technology and competition. The project manager might have to consider injecting some new blood, new structures or new systems.
Team Building	Performing teams also benefit from the occasional team-building session, where the team takes time out to appraise its performance and establish goals for the future. This enables an overview of the team's work without getting bogged down with detail and helps maintain focus on a shared vision and confirm how the team members' recent actions align with the team's vision.
Team Maintenance	Building a team is ' <i>one side of the coin</i> ' – the other is to ensure it stays that way and does not become ineffective and fragmented. Systematic mechanisms for evaluating the team's performance are important, so that if the team starts to deviate it can be immediately brought to the team members' attention. These evaluations should consider the contributions of the individual members, monitor the team's performance as a whole and make sure there is good internal communication and review of progress.

The team members are now working effectively together as a team. There is cooperation between the team members, effective problem solving and continuous team improvement but, most importantly, the team is producing a great project.

7. Maturing and Declining Phases

If the team does not keep up to date with the latest products, services and systems, it runs the risk of becoming uncompetitive and obsolete. Most projects tend to be short and sharp, but some of the big infrastructure projects, such as building a power station or the Channel Tunnel, can go on for several years. These teams might go through a maturing and declining phase. The maturing and declining phases also apply to teams that manage one project after the other and have been together for some time.

As a team matures the members tend to be more interested in maintaining the status quo rather than expanding and considering the latest technology, market requirements and competition; *'We have always done it this way.'*

As the lack of investment in the team leads to a slow decline in its performance, this also has a similar impact on the project's performance.

EXERCISES:

1. Consider a project you are familiar with and discuss how and when a team charter was developed.
2. The project team passes through a number of development phases. Quantify these changes as an individual's attitude, the team's attitude and the project manager's leadership style.
3. Following on from question 1, discuss how the team's performance changes as it progresses through the development phases.
4. Performing teams are project focused and have flexible team roles. Discuss how this relates to teams you have worked in.

Reference:

Burke, R. (2009) *Fundamentals of Project Management: Tools and techniques*, UK.

Team-Building Techniques

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter you should be able to:

- Understand how team-building techniques can be used to accelerate the team-building process.
- Understand the four levels of team building.
- Understand that outdoor team-building activities can be used to develop interpersonal relationships and team roles.

Team-building techniques offer the project leader a dynamic process to improve the project team's performance. Bringing a number of people together to perform a task does not necessarily mean they will work together effectively as a team even if they have all the necessary complementary skills, a balance of personalities and share a common goal. To be successful a team also needs effective leadership (to give direction), and effective team building to enable them to work together as a team. It is, therefore, essential that the project leader understands the characteristics and features of project teams to be able to lead the team effectively.

1. What is Team Building?

The PMBOK defines **Team Building** as: *Activities designed to improve interpersonal relationships and increase team cohesiveness. It is also important to encourage information communication and activities because of their role in building trust and establishing good working relationships.'*

In the late 80s and 90s, 'team building' was recognized by many companies as an important factor in providing a quality service and achieving competitive advantage. Yet the term 'team building' can sometimes seem rather nebulous; people often know that they need team building, but are not quite sure what it is or how to achieve it.

Team building enables a group of diverse people to work together effectively as a unit to achieve the project's goals. People generally tend to see the project in terms of their own discipline and background; if this causes the team members to go in different directions, then the team's performance will be adversely impacted upon. The project manager's task is to encourage the individuals to see the big picture and to focus on achieving the overall project goals together. Obtaining this team spirit and commitment is what team building is all about.

Team building will occur naturally as people work together towards a common goal, but usually it is far too slow and too ad hoc a process to be of value for projects of short duration. The project manager needs to consider using team-building techniques to accelerate the team-building process as soon as the team is formed. In other words, the fully operational team does not just happen, it must be made to happen through effective team building. Figure 16.1 shows the team's performance against the project lifecycle.

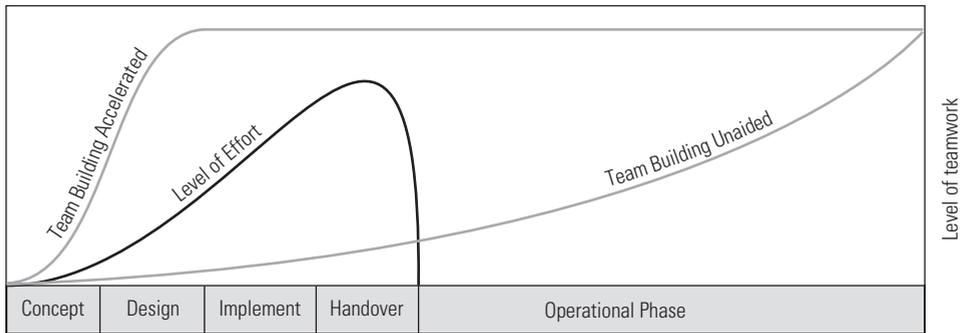


Figure 16.1: Team-Building Lifecycle – shows the team-building lifecycle superimposed on the project's lifecycle – note the need for accelerated team building

This chapter will present team building as four separate levels of development:

Level One: Interpersonal team building

Level Two: Team roles

Level Three: Shared vision

Level Four: Task focused

2. Level One: Interpersonal Team Building

The first level of team building focuses on the team members simply getting to know each other. This might sound like something people do naturally but, in practice under the pressure of work, team members might not have time to talk to each other and get to know each other.

It is the project manager's responsibility to encourage the team members to talk to each other, help them get to know each other's backgrounds, each other's work experiences, hobbies, interests, music and tastes. Because, it is through talking and listening that interpersonal bonds and trust are established.

It is recognized that if team members have a better understanding of each other's personalities and behavior, they will be better able to communicate with each other, which, in turn, means they will be able to work together more easily. It will also encourage each team member to recognize the other team members as part of the team; the first step towards team cohesion.

Once interpersonal respect and trust have been established between the team members, they will be more inclined to accept constructive criticism about their work from their colleagues, because now they can appreciate that the criticism is work focused and not personal. They will also be more inclined to ask for a favor to help them solve a problem or to achieve a task; this enables the team to produce a better product.

The first level of team building is, therefore, to set up a number of team-building situations where the team members can interact and get to know each other as people and not as a position in a project team. Team-building exercises at this level, therefore, do not need to be work orientated. In fact, it is better that they are not work orientated, because the focus should be on the interaction between the team members and not on the project.

Team-building tasks should be designed to require a team effort, be interesting, challenging, mildly risky, enjoyable and memorable. The risks should be more imaginary than actual; taking people out of their comfort zone is usually sufficient, and outdoor activities provide an excellent environment for this purpose. The tasks should be competitive to heighten the involvement, with trivial awards for the winner.

Team-building exercises help team members become more aware of each other, build friendship and trust, and an appreciation of how they are likely to react in different situations. The team-building event should produce a common shared experience, which can be referred to later in casual conversation and further helps to create a feeling of togetherness.

It is best if team-building sessions take place away from the work environment to remove work distractions – Outward Bound-type courses are ideal, but a social get-together after work should also be encouraged.

3. Level Two: Team Roles

The second level of team building focuses on the team roles each of the team members play within the team. A team role may be defined as the type of work a person is expected to perform on the project. See Chapter 14 on *Team Roles* for details of Belbin's nine team roles.

The first step is to use psychometric tests and interviews to determine each team member's personal team role profile. The Belbin model outlines nine team roles, which are expressed as preferred team roles and non-preferred team roles. Expressing the team roles this way helps to improve the relevance because there is usually a little bit of every team role in most people.

Adventure team-building exercises are designed to bring out the team members' leadership skills and team role skills. The teams are set a series of tasks that are designed to require multiple inputs and multiple interactions from all the team members for success.

While the team-building exercises are in progress, external observers monitor the interactions, behaviors and team roles played by each member. When the team-building exercises are over, the observers give the team members feedback on their observations. These feedback sessions discuss how the members performed and how the team roles they played matched their preferred and non-preferred team roles as outlined in the psychometric tests. This type of feedback helps team members to see themselves as others see them, which might be quite different to and in contrast with their personal perceptions.

The main value of team role definitions lies in the way that they enable team members to see how they fit into the project team (like cogs in a wheel, or pieces in a jigsaw puzzle).

Team building based on team role definitions puts a strong emphasis on clarifying the team roles and the team role expectations of each team member. To this effect, each member is invited to identify their preferred team role and identify what other people can do to enhance their personal effectiveness. This can be subdivided into three categories:

- Things a team member should do more of or better.
- Things a team member should do less of or stop doing.
- Things a team member should carry on doing.

The team members should then discuss their lists and start negotiating a trade-off, *'I will do this if you do that.'*

Belbin developed his task-orientated team roles after analyzing successful and unsuccessful teams, and concluded that there were five principles for building an effective team (Table 16.1).

Table 16.1: Belbin's Five Principles for Building an Effective Team

Roles	Each member contributes both a functional and a team role.
Balance	A team needs an optimal balance between functional and team roles depending on its task.
Strengths	Team effectiveness depends on how far team members identify and adjust to relative strengths within the team.
Personality	Some team members fit some roles better than others, depending on their personalities and mental abilities.
Technical Resources	A team can only deploy its technical resources to the best advantage when it has a suitable range and balance of team roles.

4. Level Three: Shared Vision

The third level of team building is to establish a shared and common vision. This is important because, although the team members might now know each other and know their individual team roles, they might have a different interpretation of the purpose of the project (corporate vision requirements, business case, project plan, build method and execution strategy), and consequently could be pulling in different directions.

The third level of team building is similar to the storming and norming phases (see Chapter 15 on *Team Development Phases*). It is the project manager's responsibility to encourage the team members to air their views, opinions and perceptions about the project's objectives, about how to carry out the task and how best to work together. If these opinions are different to the other team members' opinions then the members need to discuss, confront and negotiate so that they can converge on an optimal and shared vision.

It is important the team has a shared and common goal, otherwise they are simply a group of unfocused individuals wasting scarce resources because, if the team is to perform effectively, there can only be one direction, one project plan, one build method and one execution strategy.

5. Level Four: Task Focused

The fourth level of team building focuses on how the team members will carry out the project and explore ways to improve team performance (efficiency and productivity).

The team building starts with a discussion of the project, its purpose and how to achieve it (the project plan, build method and execution strategy). At this level the project manager assumes all the team members are totally focused on the project, they have shared goals and there are no interpersonal issues or hidden agendas – it is understood that all these issues have already been ironed out.

The team-building exercises focus on the team members' technical skills and competencies, and how they can best apply them individually and together as a team. The team-building exercises are not adventure based any more, but now totally focused on how to achieve the project. For example, a football analogy would be team practice sessions where the players practice different moves and team tactics that involve a number of players working closely together.

The team-building activities are, therefore, focused on enhancing technical skills and competencies that will help the team members individually, but also focused on teamwork which will enable the members to work together to reach their project goals. This could include skills training to improve the team members' ability to:

- Quantify the scope of work (WBS).
- Calculate time schedules (CPM/Gantt charts).
- Determine quality standards (QCP).
- Solve problems.
- Make decisions.

Some critics of team-building exercises consider team-building activities (levels one, two and three) to be a complete waste of time because they do not focus on the project. But these critics do see value in level four activities as these help their development individually, and their interactive ability at the team level, because now the focus is about improving performance.

6. Outdoor Team Building

For those who look for any excuse to get out of the Project Management Office (PMO), the outdoor environment provides a wide range of adventurous activities that can be used for management team building. And, if these are used in conjunction with management education, personal interaction with the team members, rest and relaxation, then you have the best of all worlds.

Outdoor management-team-building courses were developed initially as an extension of Outward Bound courses. The Outward Bound companies were quick to spot the opportunity and build on this untapped market. Management-team-building courses were particularly attractive because they could use the same outdoor facilities; they were ‘well-paying’ clients, and the delegates were happy to ‘rough it’ as part of the management development experience.

6.1 Why Management Team Building?

Looking at the military approach to teamwork, before they send a platoon into action the soldiers will have been through a number of shared experiences together. On the assault course they will have been cold, wet, hungry and exhausted together. While struggling to survive they will have formed a common bond with their fellow cadets that would have further reinforced the need for cooperation and teamwork.

Industry and commerce, on the other hand, seem to conduct their team building on the job, after the work or project has started. The question is, ‘*How well will the project team members work together?*’ And if the team goes through the typical development phases (forming, storming, norming and performing), will there be a cost to the company due to poor interaction, interpersonal conflict, poor problem solving, poor decision making and poor teamwork? Why would a company want to put itself at such a risk?

Team building will occur naturally as people work together, but it can take a long time compared to the duration of the project (see Figure 16.1). What companies need is a team-building process that can fast track the team-building process – one option is outdoor team building.

6.2 Why Outdoor Team Building?

The outdoor environment provides an ideal situation for level one and level two team building, where people can get to know each other and practice their team roles without the distractions of work.

The traditional management training model is to teach management theory and knowledge through lectures, reading, discussions, examples and assignments. Business schools use case

studies to add a further dimension to test conceptual thinking, problem solving and decision making but, unfortunately, all these training methods fail to create a real life dynamic situation; there is no live interaction and no real risk.

This is where outdoor management-team-building courses come to the rescue – by using outdoor pursuits as the training vehicle to set up real life, interactive problem-based learning. This way, a realistic, dynamic and unpredictable environment can be created where the management-team-building theory can be put into practice under varying levels of difficulty, and feedback to the members on their performance will be immediate. The team members learn how to work with people and make their mistakes on a training course rather than at work (making mistakes at work is obviously more expensive to the company).

There are many different outdoor environments that can be used for management team building (the sea, mountains, game parks) and many activities (golf, sailing and mountaineering). They all have their special features for setting up challenging situations for delegates to test and develop the following management skills:

- Interaction and teamwork skills.
- Competitive skills.
- Problem-solving skills.
- Decision-making skills.
- Communication skills.
- Leadership skills.
- Following skills.

6.3 Outdoor Action Learning

For an outdoor adventure to be used as an educational vehicle, it must be part of an integrated program of activities which presents frequent opportunities for reflection on experiences and situations occurring during the course. It is this view that distinguishes outdoor adventure from outdoor education. In education the physical event should be secondary to the primary activity, which is learning about team building, leadership, communication and problem solving.

During the team-building exercises the team members must accept responsibility and accountability for the instructions delegated to their fellow team members. This formative outdoor environment allows the team members to experiment with different approaches and assess the impact of these actions.

The most effective learning process is the carrying out of a task, followed by reflection, discussion, analysis and evaluation of how the team members carried out the task. People seldom learn

from experiences unless they assess them and assign their own meaning in terms of personal goals, aims, ambitions and expectations, and people often learn more from their mistakes rather than their successes.

Sailing courses offer 'learning-by-doing' with others who are also 'learning-by-doing'; this is the only sure way of knowing that the team members can work together effectively as a team.

6.4 Why Go Sailing?

This section will outline some of the benefits associated with sailing as the team-building training vehicle.

Sailing provides an ideal vehicle for problem-based outdoor management team building because, once the yacht leaves the dock, the crew members are essentially on their own and isolated; they cannot walk off the yacht when they have had enough! The sense of apparent danger heightens their awareness and their success or failure is dependent on their own devices.

One of the key features of team building is the interaction and the competition between teams, and both of these can be provided by the sailing environment. For example, sailing offers a number of situations where people can work together such as tacking, sail changes, anchoring and even man-over-board recovery. When tacking, there could be one person releasing the sheet, another person pulling in the sheet on the other side, another person on the winch and another person on the helm, the success of the tacking requiring all of them to work together as a team. Sailing also provides direct team competition through yachts racing against each other; there is nothing like a close race to heighten the team members' interaction, because failure will let the side down.

Learn-by-doing: The sailing environment enables the team members to develop team-building skills and techniques previously outlined in the lecture room. In this active environment, the management theories can be immediately tried and tested for effectiveness and appropriateness. On returning to the training base, discussion sessions can be held for the teams to review and evaluate the day's exercises. This gives the delegates the opportunity to draw out management principles from their experiences and relate these to their work environment.

EXERCISES:

The exercises are structured in line with the four levels of team building.

1. **Level One:** Outline how you would set up a level one team-building event to enable the team members to get to know each other.
2. **Level Two:** Outline how you would set up a level two team-building event to enable the team members to identify and develop their individual team roles.
3. **Level Three:** Outline how you would set up a level three team-building event to enable the team members to establish a shared and common team objective.
4. **Level Four:** Outline how you would set up a level four team-building event to enable the team members to improve the team's operating efficiency.

Coaching and Mentoring

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter you should be able to:

- Identify the key features of coaching and mentoring.
- Plan a simple coaching or mentoring session.
- Know what constitutes effective feedback.

Both coaching and mentoring are processes that enable team members to achieve their full potential. Though there are many similarities between the two approaches, there are also some important distinctions.

Coaching and mentoring share a facilitative approach, where the focus is on the needs of the person, assisting them through a process of lasting change. Specifically, the focus is usually on developing performance through attention to the person's needs, goals, desires and/or motivation, and progression towards achievement. There are some helpful processes that can help the coach or mentor to investigate a person's situation in an appropriate manner.

Coaching and mentoring styles have been shown to effectively support people through organizational change initiatives and some conflict situations by helping them to accept and adapt to changes whilst maintaining their personal values and goals. Also, coaching and mentoring can enhance morale, motivation and productivity as individuals feel valued. They provide a two-way relationship with both the organization and the team member gaining significant benefits.

Mentoring is usually provided by a more senior person, older and wiser, who provides advice based on experience. Mentors pass on their knowledge and experience, helping to create opportunities for the mentee. The mentoring style is in a form that allows passing on the mentor's experience, so it is informative, and it is operated in an asynchronous manner. The mentor and mentee meet one-to-one by mutual arrangement to discuss project issues and progress since the last meeting.

Coaching does not have to be performed by someone expert in the field of the development. Rather, the coach is skilled in developmental processes that assist the coachee to develop based on the coachee's own innate skills and experiences. Coaching can be on a one-to-one basis or it can address the needs of a team. The coach assists the coachees to find their own way through a way of behaving. Coaching can be considered 'a way of being' or thinking that involves certain behaviors aimed at developing a person's performance and wellbeing.

Coaching is not 'therapy' or 'counseling', although the basic theory, models and techniques are rooted in similar psychology. The key difference between coaching and therapy is that coaching does not seek to resolve the deeper psychological issues that are the underlying cause of problems.

1. Coaching Helps us Get Better at What we Already Do

A search of the literature or web resources on coaching will reveal a varied range of views and opinions on what coaching is about. Essentially, there are a number of forms of coaching available and each form has specific purposes:

Performance Coaching: Some people seek coaching to develop performance. Often this is performance enhancement rather than the rectification of substandard performance. Performance coaching is based upon models from sports psychology.

Skills Coaching: Skills coaching has features in common with one-to-one training. Skills coaches combine a personal development process with the ability to focus on the core skills an employee needs to perform in their role.

Sometimes training programs can be too inflexible or generic to deal with fast-moving workplace requirements. Team or one-to-one skills coaching can provide a flexible and adaptive approach to skills development. It is also possible to apply skills coaching in 'live' environments rather than taking people away from the job into a 'classroom' where it can be more difficult to simulate the real work environment.

Skills coaching is not an informal approach to 'on-the-job training'. It is delivered, based upon a development needs analysis, in a highly structured but flexible way that generates measurable learning and performance outcomes.

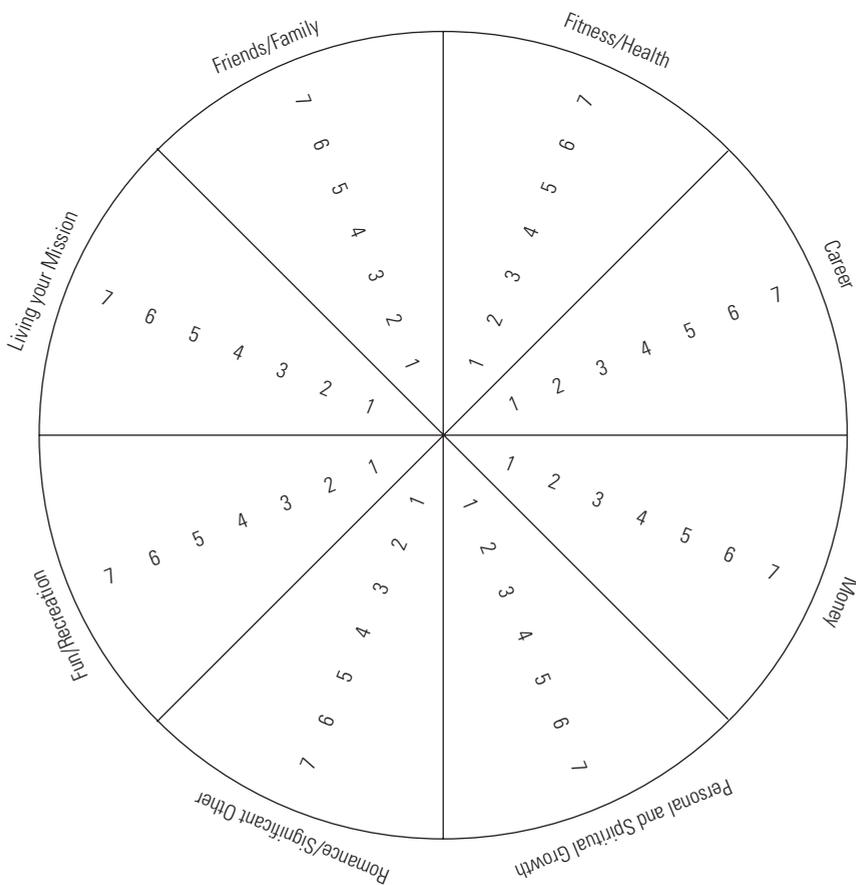
Personal Coaching: Personal or 'life coaching' provides a highly supportive process for those who wish to make some form of significant change happen within their lives. This type of coaching provides a supportive and motivating environment to explore what learners want in life and how they might achieve their aspirations and fulfill their needs. The coach's key role is to help learners to identify important goals and then assist them to maintain the motivation and commitment needed to achieve their goals.

2. Coaching Skills

There are a number of components to the coaching process that can be learned and applied. The person to be coached must be willing to adopt the process. This section focuses on skills appropriate for personal coaching and the nonspecialist skills required for performance and skills coaching.

2.1 Identify Goals

The coach will begin by trying to understand what the goal is that the learner is trying to achieve in the long term. Learners need to think about what success will look like and how they will know they have achieved it – how can that be measured? Is the goal positive, challenging and achievable?



The Life Balance Wheel

Figure 17.1: The Life Balance Wheel

The coaching session should set some objectives that clearly identify the outcomes of the session. What appears to be a straightforward objective to the coach might be significantly challenging to the learner. The objectives should be SMART (see Chapter 20 on *Delegation*) .

The goal might arise from a number of sources, sometimes work related and sometimes rooted in broader life experiences. The Life Balance Wheel (Figure 17.1) provides a focus for determining which areas the coach should address. The coach should ask the coachee to consider each of the following eight topics:

- Fitness/Health.
- Career.
- Money.
- Personal and Spiritual Growth.
- Romance/Significant Other.
- Fun/Recreation.
- Living your Mission.
- Friends/Family.

And rate them as a score out of eight (1=completely dissatisfied, 8=completely satisfied). The scores can be added to the figure to indicate the important areas for coaching attention. Only one area should be addressed at a time.

As the coach discusses the priority issue, further detail should emerge that allows more detailed focus that works towards the cause of potential problems. It must be noted that the coach is not working to problem solve but to help identify the focus of attention. The coach should be facilitating the learning process and helping the learner to keep on track.

The focus should be to identify facts and feelings about the learner's needs in the present – how are things now? Supportive evidence from the past might help to illuminate the issues and work towards the root causes. The coach should ask: What is really going on? Who is involved? What is the effect on others? What is the effect others are having on the learner? What is missing in the situation? What is holding the learner back?

2.2 Focus on the Learner

The coach should help learners to think through their issues and look for possibilities about the way they might be able to approach the issues themselves. Through discussion, the coach should encourage learners to make suggestions about how they could realize their goals and what might be the resulting consequences. The coach should let the learner think openly about the issues, helping to keep the conversation on purpose, leading towards the agreed outcomes.

Coaches should avoid relating their own life stories or experiences because this can inappropriately influence learners, who should be developing their own strategies. This is one of the significant differences between coaching and mentoring.

The coach should identify the preferred learning style of the learner. The coaching style should consider an appropriate balance of experience, observation, theorizing and experimentation to suit the learner. The learner should feel empowered and be confident to address and tackle the issues raised.

2.3 Identify Available Options

Once the issues are known, coaches can move the conversation towards looking at ways learners want to address them and start moving towards their resolution. Where can they go to from here and how might they get there? What other ways are there?

I have a number of colleagues whose methods I respect. When I am in a difficult situation, I often think what would they do? I picture in my mind how they would respond to the situation and I try to emulate their way. It usually works well and often gives me a better outcome than I had anticipated. Is there such a mentor that the learner might be able to relate to in such a way? My favorite guide that has never let me down is the phrase 'trust the process'.

Once the various options have been discussed, learners can make choices about their preferred approach. Coaches should not attempt to influence learners about which approach is most suitable, but rather ask probing questions about the consequences of taking particular actions. This can lead to specific actions being agreed upon that move learners towards their goals. For example, the coach can ask: What are you going to do? When are you going to do it? How will you ensure it happens? What could stop you taking this step?

2.4 Revisit the Objectives for the Session

The final stage of a coaching session is to review progress over the session and to ensure that the actions to be completed before the next session are identified and agreed. The coach should review the objectives for the session and openly state the progress that has been made, checking the objectives that have been achieved.

Both the learner and the coach should be clear about the actions each have agreed they will take before the next session. The date and time should be set for the next session; by then the actions taken should be completed and can be reviewed.

3. Mentoring

Mentoring is a different activity to coaching, though it applies many similar skills. The focus and content of mentoring sessions are about developing the mentee's workplace performance and competence.

Typically, the mentor will be two or three levels above the mentee in the project organizational hierarchy and will not be in the mentee's direct reporting line. This provides appropriate seniority and objectivity to the process. Meetings can be face-to-face or on the telephone. Additional communication might be through email or other written form.

The mentor should remain optimistic and encouraging, helping mentees to feel good about what they have achieved. On occasion, the mentor might be able to assist with suggestions about how to overcome blockages to completing work successfully. The mentor might be able to introduce the mentee to others who can help if the mentor cannot assist directly.

It might be suitable for the mentor to assist in work planning, marking progress and maintaining deadlines, suggesting appropriate targets and achievable milestones. By asking 'how is it going?', the mentor can provide powerful motivation to maintain progress and achievement, keeping the focus on the goals and vision.

Most importantly, mentors can provide feedback and advice on important issues such as attempts at new work undertaken by the mentee. Also, they can help the mentees get the most out of feedback and advice from other colleagues.

4. The Relationship

At the heart of a successful coaching process is the relationship between the coach or mentor and the learner. The relationship should be built on mutual trust, respect and good communications. Coaching and mentoring are Adult–Adult interactions; the coach/mentor should avoid allowing the relationship and communication to slip into Nurturing Parent–Child.

Importantly, the coach or mentor stands to gain as much out of the relationship as the learner. The coach/mentor will learn to develop as a coach/mentor by listening to and engaging with the responses and feedback of the learner.

5. Feedback

Giving feedback is not an end in itself, but the beginning of a new understanding between two or more people.

Feedback is an important part of communication. It provides opportunities to learn and identify how the participants are perceived by others. Both sides of feedback must be learned: how to both give and receive. Each side requires communication and learning skills that are part of a clear process that can maximize the effectiveness of feedback.

5.1 What are the Skills of Giving Feedback?

The following points provide a good checklist for providing good feedback:

1. Be clear about what you want to say in advance

It can be useful to write down the key points you feel need to be made and to think about how you could present them in different ways.

2. Start with the positive

When offering feedback it is best to start with the good news. You can really help the receivers if they hear first what you like about them or what they have done well. If the positive is registered first, any negative points are more likely to be listened to and acted upon.

Not being able to see anything positive might be a sign you are allowing some bias to color your observations. Work on understanding the reasons why someone chooses to behave as they do. If you cannot find anything positive, you should try harder.

For example:

'I really like the way you laid out your argument; it was clear and easy to follow.'

3. Avoid general comments

Statements such as *'You were brilliant'* or *'That was awful'* may be pleasant or dreadful to hear, but they do not give enough detail to be helpful sources of learning. The feedback should identify what the person actually did that led you to decide it was *'brilliant'* or *'awful'*.

For example:

'I really liked the way you kept calm and stayed 'adult' when our client got angry on the phone yesterday.'

'It makes me angry when you interrupt like that while I am talking to someone else.'

Making your feedback specific gives a greater opportunity for learning.

4. Select priority areas

The feedback should be prioritized to clearly indicate which are the most important issues. Strengths and opportunities for improvement should be prioritized separately. This provides a structured and accessible set of statements that the learner can work through to extract the most important learning. Care should be taken to exclude low-priority feedback that is not helpful or distracts attention from the important issues.

5. Focus on the behavior rather than the person

Not, *'You're a big mouth'* but, *'I think there were occasions in the meeting when we needed to hear what the client would say, you need to allow some silence and not feel you must fill it by talking.'* It is important to focus on what a person does that you like or dislike rather than comment on what you imagine he or she is.

6. Refer to behavior which can be changed

There is little point criticizing something that the learner has no control over; for example, client requirements or market forces; keep your feedback focused upon their behavior and actions which they can work to modify and develop.

For example:

'If you had questioned the client some more about that requirement, we might have been able to have it explained more clearly.'

7. Offer alternatives

If you do offer negative feedback then do not simply criticize, but suggest what the person could have done differently. Turn the negative into a positive suggestion.

For example:

'The fact that you remained seated when Maya came in seemed unwelcoming. I think if you had walked over and greeted her it would have helped to put her at ease.'

8. Be descriptive rather than evaluative

Tell the person what you saw or heard and the effect it had on you, rather than saying you thought something was good, bad, etc.

For example:

'Your tone of voice as you said that made me feel that you were really interested', is likely to be more useful than:

'That was good.'

9. Own the feedback

It is also important that we take responsibility for the feedback we offer. We can be tempted to offer what can be taken as some 'universally accepted opinion' about the person or their work, such as *'That is not the way to...'* or *'We don't do that around here!'* We are only entitled to give our own experience at a particular time.

It can be better to begin the feedback with *'I'* or *'in my opinion, based on these observations . . .'*, which makes the feedback personal and in the context that it was observed.

10. Leave the recipient with a choice

Skilled feedback offers people information about themselves in a way that leaves them with the choice about whether to act on it or not. This allows the learner to examine the consequences of a decision to change or not to change. The feedback should not be prescriptive or demanding of change because this may invite resistance. Good feedback does not involve telling somebody what he or she must be and how he or she must act to suit us.

11. Think what it says about you

Feedback is likely to say as much about the givers as the receivers. It communicates what the feedback givers' values are, and what they focus on in others. Therefore, we can learn much about ourselves if we listen to the feedback we give to others.

12. Give the feedback as soon as you can after the event

It is important to provide feedback to people about their work as soon as possible so that the associated thoughts and feelings are still fresh and they will better relate to the feedback messages.

One of the few exceptions to this would be when either of you might be emotionally charged (for example, angry) about the issue; the feedback will then be unlikely to be given or received constructively.

5.2 Receiving Feedback

Recipients of feedback can help themselves by encouraging the giver to use some of the skills noted above, but also by:

1. Listening to the feedback rather than immediately rejecting or arguing with it

When hearing something about ourselves that we dislike or prefer not to hear, we can be tempted to disregard or disagree with it. Even though some feedback might be uncomfortable to hear, we should note it and reflect upon it later in a broader context. We should try to understand the perspective of the person giving the feedback – can they see something that we cannot?

2. Be clear about what is being said

Avoid jumping to conclusions or becoming immediately defensive about the feedback. This can encourage people to hold back and not provide the breadth and depth of comment you might have enjoyed.

Make sure you properly understand the feedback before you respond to it. You could paraphrase or repeat the comment, to check that you have understood the person's intention and meaning.

3. Check it out with others rather than relying on one source

It can be foolish to rely on just one source of feedback because we might imagine that opinion is shared by everybody. We might find that the experience others have of us is different and we can obtain a more balanced view of ourselves that can keep the feedback in proportion.

4. Ask for the feedback you want but don't get

Feedback is generally framed by the giver and some of the critique you are expecting does not appear. You should ask for this specific feedback if it helps frame your thinking and learning.

5. Decide what you will do as a result of the feedback

When we receive feedback, we should assess its value, think about the consequences of ignoring it or using it, and then decide how we are going to respond to it. If we do not take decisions on the basis of feedback, then it is wasted.

It is always your choice whether to accept or reject the feedback.

6. Thank the person for giving the feedback

It might not have been easy for the person to give the feedback and it may be valuable to us. Also, providing feedback is a valuable practice to reinforce in any organization or relationship.

The better we become at receiving feedback, the more we will encourage people to give us feedback. If we demonstrate that we can receive it well, we will also help others to learn the skills of receiving feedback.

5.3 Should We Always Give Feedback?

You should not feel that whenever you have a thought or feeling about someone that it is your duty to tell them. You might consider the following thoughts before you give feedback:

When – Is this the right time, are we all in the right mood to give or receive feedback? Is this a caring thing to do right now?

Where – Is this the right place? Should I wait until he/she is alone? Should I spoil an occasion by giving this feedback now?

Who – Am I the best person to give it? Perhaps someone else is more appropriate.

How – How can I do it most effectively? What is the right approach, what language should I use, what body language, seating arrangements, etc. will be most effective?

People must make their own decisions about whether or not to accept the feedback given. Sometimes people accept the feedback but then do nothing to change their behavior. This will usually be because they have left the feedback session without clear objectives to which they are committed, and without a specific action plan to enable them to implement those objectives.

EXERCISES:

1. Select one important learning point you have identified in this book. Design for yourself a coaching program that will help you to develop your learning about this subject.
2. Think about the senior people in your organization. Who do you think would make a suitable mentor to help your development? How could you approach this senior person to ask them to be your mentor?
3. One of your project team has missed an important meeting with a client. How would you give them feedback to ensure a positive response?

Key Points:

1. Coaching and mentoring are similar concepts used to support development but involve very different facilitative approaches. Coaching assists students to find their own way through their development, and mentoring passes on knowledge and experience from a more senior person.
2. There are a number of focuses for coaching: personal, skills and performance.
3. Both coaching and mentoring require development of relationships and require provision of effective feedback.

Further Reading:

- Clutterbuck, D. and Wynne, B.** (1994) *Mentoring and Coaching*, in Mumford, A. (Ed.) *Handbook of Management Development*, 4th edition, Gower.
- MacLennan, N.** (1995) *Coaching and Mentoring*, Gower.
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Negotiation

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter you should be able to:

- Understand the difference between the three negotiation strategies: the win–lose strategy, the win–win strategy and the lose–lose strategy.
- Develop a negotiation plan of action.
- Understand the dispute process.

Negotiation is the art of influencing people to see things your way!!! The other party will, of course, be trying to influence you to see things their way. And so we have a dynamic situation of opposing positions that can only be amicably resolved by negotiation. Negotiation is, therefore, the method used to reach an agreement by compromise, which is open to discussion or modification.

Negotiation is the process of trying to obtain a better deal for the project than the project manager would get without negotiation. For example, if project managers do not ask the functional managers for the best resources they are unlikely to be given them.

The APM BoK defines **Negotiation** as: *A search for agreement, seeking acceptance, consensus and alignment of views. Negotiation in a project can take place on an informal basis throughout the project life cycle or on a formal basis such as during procurement, and between signatories to a contract.*

Negotiation differs from direct control, where project managers can exercise their authority to obtain compliance. Project managers in a matrix organization structure would not normally have direct authority over the resources. So, to be successful, project managers must develop and use negotiation techniques to achieve the best deals with their functional managers, clients and suppliers.

Networking and negotiation leadership skills come naturally for many project managers. This might well be why they have taken the project management route in the first place but, as with most management techniques, there is an underlying structure that influences and constrains how they operate.

Negotiation skills are a key component of the decision-making process where the project manager might be presented with a number of possible solutions. The decision-making process is then a collaborative and negotiation process to gain collective support and commitment from the team for one course of action. This chapter sets out some of these negotiating techniques. The three basic negotiation strategies are:

- Win–lose strategy (you win, they lose).
- Win–win strategy (you both win).
- Lose–lose strategy (you both lose).

1. Win–Lose Strategy

If project managers adopt a win–lose strategy this means they are trying to win a negotiation (winner takes all) against an opponent who must lose or, at best, not achieve their targets.

The win–lose strategy is a competitive adversarial bargaining approach where each party is searching for the other party's weaknesses and will then capitalize on any weaknesses discovered. Until quite recently this was the normal way to do business in many industries.

The consequence of this approach is there is little or no sharing of information with the other party and, consequently, no attempt is made to understand the other party's needs and expectations. There is also very little trust between the parties, which essentially kills effective two-way communication and goodwill. Everyone is playing their cards very close to their chest, being careful not to give anything away.

The win–lose strategy forces one party to give in and modify their position by compromise and concession. This negotiation strategy might be effective when there is a 'fixed size' pie to be divided, so the smaller your opponent's share, the bigger your share. It might also be considered a viable scenario when the underlying aim is to eliminate potential competitors. Unfortunately, the win–lose strategy does not encourage teamwork or collaboration with team members, which are two of the key leadership objectives.

2. Win–Win Strategy

The win–win strategy is a collaborative approach where each party (the project manager and the team members) is trying to achieve the best deal for both parties – a mutually agreeable solution.

Information is openly shared between parties in order to improve their understanding of each other's position (needs and expectations). Efforts are made to learn about all the problems and constraints facing each party, now and in the future.

For the win–win strategy to succeed, there has to be a demonstrable climate of trust and honesty between the parties that allows for an open exchange of views and expectations. Both parties must be genuinely interested in solving their differences. Each party is, therefore, looking for strengths to build on, not weaknesses to exploit to use to defeat the other party. Usually this level of mutual trust will only come about where both parties are striving to develop long-term commercial relationships and will work on future projects together.

Each party has to appreciate that they are probably not going to achieve their ideal solution, but they want to work with the other party to find the middle ground and settlement range which is acceptable to both parties (see Figure 18.1).

Through collaborative discussion, joint problem solving and synergy, the parties might actually discover a third way; an innovative option which has not yet been considered. This option could be an even better alternative than each party's original position. This would definitely be a win–win solution.

The success of the computer industry cluster in Silicon Valley can be partly attributed to collaboration between the various computer designers, engineers and project managers. There are also plenty of bars and clubs to meet socially where they can network. This informal exchange of information, symbiotic relationships and problem solving keeps the industry as a whole at the forefront of technology. This is a classic win–win environment.

The win–win strategy is essential when the functional managers' input and commitment are crucial to achieving the desired outcomes for current and future projects.

3. Lose–Lose Strategy

If you adopt the lose–lose strategy you are basically saying, *‘If I lose [the negotiation] I am going to make sure you lose [the negotiation] as well’*. Unless there are good business reasons to adopt this spiteful strategy, you might be making unnecessary enemies who could come back to haunt you in later negotiations. It is far better for long-term business relationships to ensure each party leaves the negotiation table having won something (the win–win situation).

4. Negotiation Tactics

The following negotiation tactics outline a number of useful approaches, which should improve the project manager's chances of getting a better deal. As a project leader:

Prepare: Do your homework and identify the other party's needs and expectations. This is essential no matter what negotiating strategy you intend using. You might have to do this informally through a network of contacts. Knowing how keen the other party is to buy or sell might influence their settlement range. (See, in this chapter, Section 6 on *Bargaining* and establishing your opponents' settlement range). For example, the functional managers might be prepared to give you a better deal when their resources are under utilized.

Establish a Battle Plan: Before negotiating, it is sensible to establish a battle plan outlining what you want to achieve and how you plan to achieve it, together with alternative options. It is also important to establish your bottom line, at which point you would walk away from the deal and consider other options including outsourcing.

Exaggerate: Start by exaggerating your position or requirement in order to weaken the other party's argument and so lower their resistance to your real objectives. Similarly, regard the comments by your opponents as overstatements of their position, and try and devalue them. It is a fact that those with high aspirations in life often achieve better results. In negotiation, high demands and hard-fought concessions often lower the other side's aspiration level.

Arrange Frequent Meetings: Try to organize frequent meetings between parties to enable tentative ideas to be quietly eased into the discussion. The continual probing and sounding out of possibilities enables embryonic ideas to establish and grow, whereas new ideas formally presented without notice at the monthly meeting are quite likely to be rejected.

Expect Temporary Opinions: Unlike attitudes, opinions are often temporary and might change over time. If a party rejects your initial offer out of hand on Monday, by Friday, after thinking about it all week, they might well have softened their views and have moved closer to your position. Therefore, it might be self-defeating to push the other party into a corner straight away, as this might make them cast their opinions in stone. If possible, always leave the door open so that you can revisit a proposal.

Solve Easy Differences First: Try to solve the easy differences first to show progress, good faith and willingness on your side to compromise and search for middle ground. This helps to set a collaborative tone for the following negotiations as you move on to the more difficult issues.

Give Concessions On Minor Issues: Give concessions on minor issues, especially if they are not important to you but are important to the other party. This might encourage the other party to similarly make concessions on their position about which issues are important to you.

Force The Issue: Forcing the issue by setting ultimatums and deadlines might trick the other party into revealing their bottom line and settlement range; the project manager will, in any case, be constrained by the baseline plan.

5. Networking Skills

Networking skills are an important part of the negotiation process because they enable project managers to gain a better deal, such as discounts and ‘mates rates’ from someone they know. People are far more likely to help someone they like and trust than someone they do not know; someone who cold calls off the street as it were. Chapter 11 on *Working with Stakeholders* discusses how to identify the key stakeholders who can help the project manager to achieve competitive advantage.

6. Bargaining

Bargaining is the process of giving up something to gain something; preferably giving up a little to gain a lot. To bargain effectively you need to exaggerate your position and understate or diminish the other party's position – this gives you room to 'negotiate'.

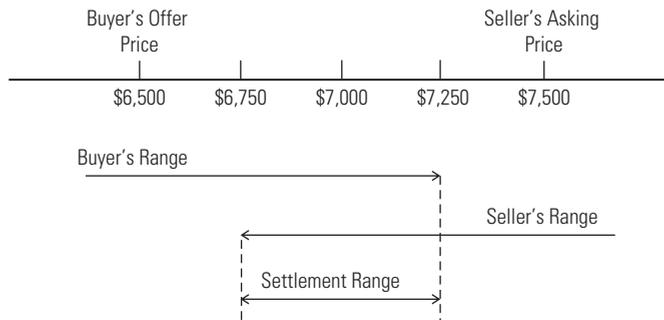


Figure 18.1: Settlement Range – shows a deal being struck for a second-hand car

It is a natural human trait to barter and trade. For example, when buying a second-hand car we usually 'negotiate' over the price. The buyer and seller know this, so the seller will usually ask for slightly more than they expect, and the buyer usually offers slightly less than they are prepared to pay. For example, if the asking price for the car is \$7,500, then the buyer offers \$6,500 and, after some horse-trading, both parties will probably agree on \$7,000 (Figure 18.1).

The settlement range is the area of mutually agreeable solutions. In the settlement range both parties would rather compromise from their initial position than stop the deal. There are times, however, when negotiation would be very tedious. For example, imagine trying to negotiate at the checkout for every item in your supermarket trolley!

7. Dispute Resolution

If the differences with another party cannot be resolved by negotiation, there are a number of dispute resolution processes to consider: arbitration, mediation and conciliation.

Mediation: Mediation is a dispute resolution process where a neutral third party, the mediator or facilitator, assists the parties in order to help them achieve an agreement.

Conciliation: Conciliation is similar to mediation, except the conciliator meets with the parties separately in an attempt to resolve their differences.

Arbitration: Arbitration is a legal alternative to litigation where the parties in dispute agree to submit their respective positions to a neutral third party for resolution.

A method of dispute resolution should be included in all contract agreements at the outset because, once a dispute situation arises, the parties might not be able to agree on anything, never mind a dispute resolution process.

EXERCISES:

1. Give examples of your projects where you have used the three negotiating strategies; win-lose, win-win and lose-lose.
2. Discuss how you have used collaboration to negotiate a better deal for resources from the functional managers.
3. Discuss how you have used negotiation as part of the decision-making process to converge on an optimal decision that has collective support.

Motivation

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter you should be able to:

- Understand how motivation theory applies to project management.
- Realize that motivation comes from within.
- Explain some of the theories that inform our current understanding of motivation.
- Link motivation to leadership style.

Have you ever been really motivated and determined to do something and nothing was going to stop you achieving your goal?

I can recall when I climbed Kilimanjaro; I was so determined that I put my head down and powered myself to the top. My body felt like it wanted to give up long before I reached the summit, but there was no way I was going back to say I did not make it; I had to say, '*I got to the top!*'. I have to admit my porter gave me an extra shove now and again when he thought his bonus was in doubt.

Conversely, have you ever been involved in something straightforward, for example writing a report, that you cannot fix your mind upon or complete?

The main difference between these two situations is motivation, the inner force that drives us to achieve our goals. It is a key feature of effective project leadership.

This chapter will discuss how Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs and Herzberg's Motivation and Hygiene Factors apply to project teams. These two models form the cornerstone of motivation theory. This chapter will also show how a project leader can use motivation to help create a conducive working environment.

1. Motivation

The term motivation is often misunderstood and misused in the project management context. Motivation is an inner force that causes or induces us to do something, and what motivates one person may not necessarily motivate another. Also, what motivates a person in one set of circumstances might not motivate the same person in another set of circumstances. No one can tell you to be motivated, but could create conditions that allow you to feel motivated. The project leader's task is to influence the situation in such a way as to encourage team members to feel inspired and motivated to achieve their tasks (that align with the project's goals).

When a person's performance to complete a job successfully is assessed, it can be subdivided into their ability and commitment.

Performance = ability x commitment

Ability: Ability describes the personal qualities and competencies that people bring to the project. These are qualities of skill (welding or programming, for example) that enable people to perform a task, and give them the capacity to cope with the demands of their job. People's level of calibre is associated with their innate ability and the amount of training and experience they have acquired.

Commitment: The performance of individuals, however, also depends on their willingness and drive to complete their task; in other words, their commitment. Unlike ability, commitment is not a fixed commodity. It might change quite frequently in response to conditions and situations that the individuals encounter.

To this extent, the project manager must use an appropriate style of leadership to control the project environment in such a manner that the workforce will be committed to the task and so inspire and motivate themselves to achieve the objectives of the project. Therefore, to achieve maximal output from the workforce, the project manager must address both ability and commitment.

Motivation may be defined as: *An inner force which inspires and motivates people to achieve their objectives.*

One thing is clear, motivation is internal to ourselves and is often the result of a style of thinking that is supportive of us reaching our goals. This helps to explain why people will give up most of their day to work; this may be for money, companionship, recognition and/or self-esteem. Different people are motivated by different rewards.

Researchers such as Herzberg and Maslow have introduced new concepts into the field of motivation that challenge traditional ideas such as McGregor's Theory. We will investigate these in more detail later in this chapter.

2. Motivation Cycle

The motivation cycle outlines the dynamic and changeable nature of motivation (see Figure 19.1). When a need is not satisfied it creates within the individual a kind of tension that feels uncomfortable. This, in turn, creates a driving force or impetus towards certain activities or behaviors that the person believes will help satisfy their need. If the behavior is successful, the need becomes satisfied and the tension is relieved. The cycle now starts all over again with respect to a different need (higher order) which remains unsatisfied. If the behavior is not successful in satisfying the need, then different behaviors are used until the need is satisfied or it is no longer a need.

This type of behavior can often be seen with children who might go from one parent to another until one is persuaded. If a series of modified behaviors is not successful, then a tantrum might ensue! You might agree that this is also the behavior of some adults.

In the project context, team members might be underperforming with reference to the weekly earned value curve. Recognition of this information should motivate team members to increase their performance, so that in the next reporting period the earned value curve will show improved performance.

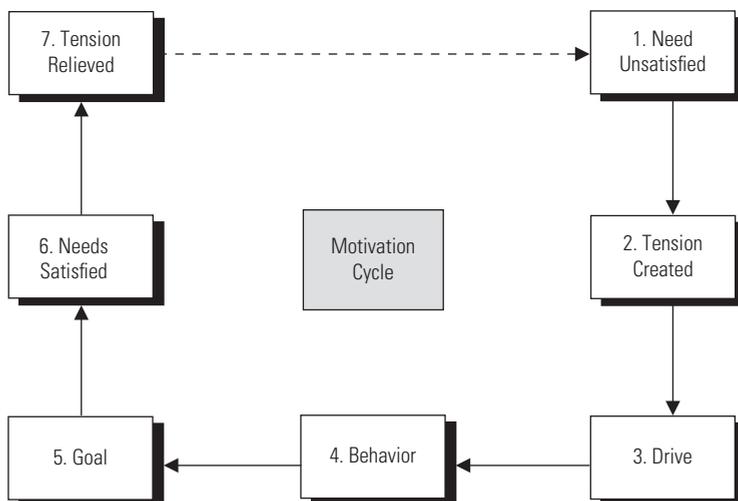


Figure 19.1: Motivation Cycle – shows the stages that contribute to trying to get a person's needs satisfied

3. Herzberg's Motivation and Hygiene Theory

Frederick Herzberg was a consultant for AT&T who conducted research into 'job enrichment and individual development'. In *The Motivation to Work*, Herzberg (1959) suggests that, though certain rewards, such as money and status, might not be directly motivating to all, the lack of them can be demotivating.

Herzberg's theory was designed to improve our understanding of working people, the factors that determine job satisfaction and the factors that determine job dissatisfaction. Herzberg found these were separate independent factors operating at the same time. Here, the term 'motivation' indicates factors that increase a person's commitment to the job, while a set of *hygiene factors* will cause a sense of grievance, leading to job dissatisfaction and hence a reduction of motivation and commitment.

A *hygiene factor* can be likened to the PMO's blocked toilet; when it fails it becomes extremely important to people working in the vicinity that it should be repaired as quickly as possible!!!! However, once repaired, the toilet now loses importance to those people concerned, and improving its efficiency still further is of little interest.

Table 19.1 presents the top six factors causing dissatisfaction and the top six factors causing satisfaction, listed in the order of higher to lower importance.

Table 19.1: Hygiene Factors Affecting Job Attitudes

Leading to Dissatisfaction	Leading to Satisfaction
1. Company policy	1. Achievement
2. Supervision	2. Recognition
3. Relationship with the boss	3. Work itself
4. Work conditions	4. Responsibility
5. Salary	5. Advancement
6. Relationship with peers	6. Growth

Herzberg suggests there are two distinct human needs that must be considered:

- *Physiological* needs: fulfilled by money, for example, to purchase food and shelter.
- *Psychological* need to achieve and grow: fulfilled by specific activities.

Herzberg suggests, therefore, that job enrichment is required for basic motivation, and that it is a continuous process which requires that:

4. McClelland's Motivational Needs Theory

David McClelland, in *Human Motivation* (1988), suggests there are three types of motivational needs that are found to varying degrees in all workers and managers (see Table 19.2). The theory maintains that each person's mix or balance of motivational needs characterizes a person's style and behavior, both in terms of being motivated and in the management and motivation of others.

Table 19.2: Human Motivation (David McClelland, 1988)

Motivation	Seeks	Expects	Leadership Strengths	Leadership Weaknesses
Achievement	Attainment of realistic but challenging goals and personal advancement in life.	Feedback about achievement and progress, and a sense of accomplishment.	Can make the best leaders.	A tendency to demand too much of their staff.
Authority and Power	To be influential, effective and to make an impact, to lead and their ideas to prevail.	Increasing personal status and prestige.	A determined work ethic and commitment to the organization, attracted to the leadership role.	Might not possess the required flexibility and people-centered skills.
Affiliation	Amicable relationships, interaction with other people.	To be liked and held in popular regard.	Good people-centered skills.	The need to be liked might undermine objectivity and decision-making capability.

McClelland said that most people exhibit a combination of these characteristics. Some people exhibit a strong bias to a particular motivational need, and this motivational or needs 'mix' consequently affects their behavior and working/managing style. Particularly, he believed that achievement-motivated people are those who make things happen and get results.

5. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

The cornerstone of motivation theory is **Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs**, which was first published in 1954. It develops a hierarchy in which basic needs must be satisfied before more aspirational needs can be addressed.

Maslow's motivators, more extensive than McClelland's, suggest that workers need secure structures and a sense of direction to maintain high standards and goals. The theory states that motivation is an unconscious attempt on behalf of the individual to satisfy certain inner needs and that people work in order to satisfy other various needs. He expressed this in the form of a hierarchy that is often portrayed as a ladder or a triangle (see Figure 19.3), illustrating a priority of needs from lower levels to the pinnacle of the triangle. Maslow indicated that people are always striving to achieve the higher order needs that can only be addressed once the lower order needs have been satisfied.

Indeed, Maslow thought of needs as being dynamic. That is, people are continually moving up or down the hierarchical ladder, with their hands and feet on different rungs of the ladder. In this way, needs for self-actualization are able to be fulfilled while still responding to some physiological or other lower need.

Physiological Needs: Refer to the needs of the body to survive and for self-preservation; the most fundamental needs of all. If deprived of air to breathe or food to eat, humans would become totally preoccupied with trying to acquire these lower order needs in preference to any other need. People who are starving might adopt antisocial behavior to satisfy these priority needs, perhaps by stealing. However, once these needs have been fulfilled (e.g. a full stomach), offering more has no real motivational value.

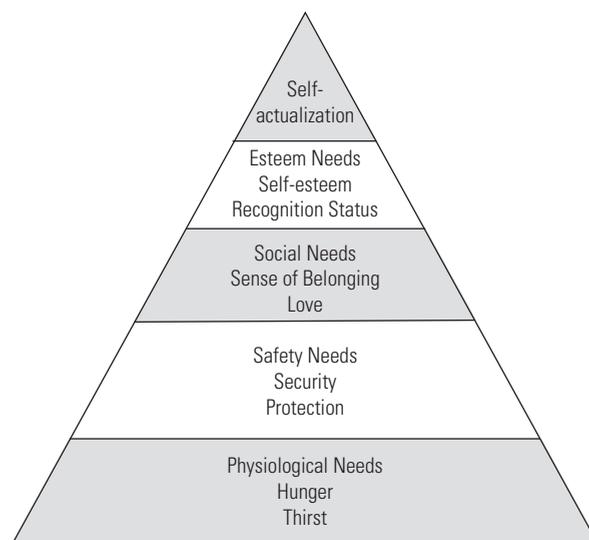


Figure 19.3: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs – shows a person's needs subdivided into five levels

Security and Safety Needs: Refer not only to the obvious immediate concern for continuity of job, income and protection from accident and physical danger, but also to concerns about fear of disapproval, comments against one's personality and character, risk of failure and unfair criticism; all of which might be seen as psychologically damaging.

When we have reached a level of financial security that satisfies us, we are unlikely to be motivated towards activities aimed at increasing security still further. A fundamental point about the hierarchy of needs is that a satisfied need does not motivate further.

People generally prefer a safe, predictable environment to one plagued by unforeseen events. This protective desire might prompt workers to be concerned with insurance and with jobs that offer security. Working on projects is a moot point; what are the team members' feelings as the project moves to completion and their secondment is about to be terminated? If there is not another project in the pipeline, then this security need will prevail.

Security needs do not dominate people's lives except in times of emergency or danger. However, some people are threatened by a change in job routine; even when the work is carefully explained to them, this can cause anxiety. This may be the case when a worker who has a fixed routine in a functional department is asked to do project work.

Social and Love Needs: Associated with other people, the need to be accepted by others and belong to a group or team (a project team in this case).

Sharing their lives with others is important to most people, and they generally react quickly to the possibility that this need will be denied. Love needs are satisfied through contact with family and close friends. Team members desire the approval and acceptance of fellow team members and the many teams of people they associate with and with whom they tend to identify themselves. They alter their behavior and even their standards in order to be accepted and loved by their chosen friends and teams. *Sgt. Pepper's Lonely Hearts Club* owes its existence to this powerful need to give and share love.

Self-Esteem: Is related to a person's **ego** needs, which drive a person to feel wanted and important within their own group or team. This need for recognition, respect, prestige and status is a higher order need.

These needs go beyond the more passive needs to belong (or to be loved) to a more active desire for recognition and self-respect. Esteem needs involve self-evaluation, the desire for reputation or prestige, recognition, attention, importance and appreciation. Satisfaction of self-esteem needs leads to self-confidence and a feeling of personal worth, leading to the next level.

Self-Actualization: Relates to a person's own self-fulfillment and self-realization – the desire to reach the height of personal abilities and talents, and feel that sense of achievement. In Maslow's words, '*What a man can be, he must be.*' This category of need includes creativity, achievement, competence and productivity. This is the highest of all the needs. This need becomes increasingly important as the previous needs are satisfied. Maslow described self-actualized people as having the following characteristics:

- A more efficient perception of reality.
- Increased acceptance of self, of others and of nature.
- Spontaneity, simplicity and naturalness.
- Problem-centered rather than ego-centered.
- Increased detachment and desire for privacy.
- Ability to be independent of their physical and social environment.
- Freshness of appreciation and richness of emotional reaction.
- Higher frequency of 'peak' mystic, or transcendent experiences.
- Increased identification with and feeling for mankind.
- Deeper, more profound interpersonal relationships.
- A more democratic character structure.
- Strongly ethical – able to distinguish clearly between means and ends.
- A friendly sense of humor.
- Naturally creative and innovative.

The rank and practical importance of these needs depends on the degree to which each is satisfied. Because this degree of satisfaction is constantly changing, Maslow believes people have a need to grow and develop (self-actualize). By using and developing their capacities, people begin to self-actualize; they experience satisfaction and enjoyment. Self-actualization is the highest need; as this need is satisfied it is replaced with new areas or targets to achieve, causing a continuous process. Self-actualization defers from the other needs, because it can never be satisfied!

The hierarchy of needs has an important impact on project management thinking because it provides a powerful instrument for predicting the outcome of responses by individuals within the project team. In project teams this self-actualization need can exhibit a high desire for promotion. Large companies provide career opportunities through career development and training. This can satisfy a need for self-development and improve promotion prospects. Self-actualization seems to be an intrinsic desire and is not always directly related to rewards of money.

6. Motivation and Leadership Style

The idea of motivation suggests that leading people is not a commanding role; commanding team members does not necessarily motivate them. It depends upon facilitation and influence, and requires concern for people, helping them to achieve their goals and ambitions within their value and belief systems.

'Leadership is constantly changing, and survivors learn to change with it.'

'Yesterday, natural resources defined power. Today, knowledge is power. Yesterday, leaders commanded and controlled. Today, leaders empower and coach. Yesterday, leaders were warriors. Today, they are facilitators. Yesterday, managers directed. Today, managers delegate. Yesterday, supervisors flourished. Today, supervisors vanish.'

Dr Denis Waitley, The Toastmaster, December, 2000 (www.waitley.com).

7. Seven Rules of Motivation (for project managers)

1. Set intermediate goals and work to achieve them: The project has intermediate goals that might allow you to go in different directions depending upon what you have learnt when you reach them. Application of 'rolling window' planning can provide short-term motivational targets for the team.

2. Finish what you start: A half-finished project is of no use to anyone. Quitting is a habit. Develop the habit of finishing self-motivated projects.

3. Socialize with others of similar interest: Mutual support is motivating. You will develop the attitudes of your five best friends. If they are losers, you will be a loser. If they are winners, you will be a winner. To be a great project leader you must associate with great project leaders.

4. Learn how to learn: Dependency on others for knowledge supports the habit of procrastination. Man has the ability to learn without instructors. In fact, when you learn the art of self-education you will find, if not create, opportunity to find success beyond your wildest dreams. Because of its uniqueness and inherent uncertainty, a project has many opportunities for learning.

5. Harmonize natural talent with interest that motivates: Natural talent creates motivation, motivation creates persistence and persistence gets the job done. Identify and develop the natural talents in your team and you can unlock their motivation.

6. Increase knowledge of subjects that inspire: The more you know about a subject, the more you want to learn about it. A self-propelled upward spiral develops. As you progress through the planning stages of your project, your team learns more about what is involved. This can encourage further learning and enhance the planning activity.

7. Take risks: Failure and bouncing back are elements of motivation. Failure is a learning tool. No one has ever succeeded at anything worthwhile without a string of failures. Risk is inherent within projects; allow yourself and the team to build upon any small failures and learn from them. When risks or failures occur, don't let the associated learning escape.

Adapted from http://www.motivation-tools.com/elements/seven_rules.htm

EXERCISES:

1. Discuss how your commitment and your team members' commitment to the project can vary during the project.
2. Identify Herzberg's motivation factors and discuss how they relate to you.
3. Using Herzberg's motivation and hygiene factors, discuss why salaries should be kept confidential.

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- Herzberg, F.** (1959) *The Motivation to Work*, John Wiley.
- McClelland, D. C.** (1988) *Human Motivation*, Cambridge University Press.
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Delegation

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter you should be able to:

- Identify what delegation is and how to delegate.
- Know what kinds of tasks can be delegated.
- Identify some problems arising from poor delegation.

The APM BoK 6ed (2012) defines **Delegation** as: *The practice of giving a person or group the authority to perform the responsibilities of, or act on behalf of, another.*

For our purposes, the Concise Oxford English Dictionary defines **Delegation** as: *Verb /delligayt/ entrust (a task or responsibility) to another person.*

The objective of delegation is to get work done by someone else (e.g. a team member). In the project context, work should be assigned as a complete package, including the authority associated with decision making and incorporation of any modifications that come from new information, without having to refer back to the person who has delegated the task.

1. Reasons for Delegating

During a project, the Work Breakdown Structure (WBS) provides a list of all the work needed to complete the project. This provides a list of activities that can be delegated to, for example, the project team. Selection of the people to complete each activity will depend upon whether they have the appropriate skills and experience, if they are available, or if you want them to develop skills in some aspects of the work.

There are two main reasons for delegating work:

Delegate to Take Control of Your Time: Some project work might not really need to be done by you personally. What issues really need your attention? When your time is tight and you need to create some space to better focus on those issues that only you can do, you need to think about delegating work to the project team.

Delegate to Grow Your People: When you share important work and devolve accountability and authority, you demonstrate your belief in people and help them to grow their knowledge, skills and abilities.

In some organizations, it is not possible for a leader to move on until there is a suitable replacement to take their place. If this is not overtly stated, it can be used as a reason for preventing promotion; *'there is nobody else to do your job, so we had to choose someone else for the promotion'*. This is a good reason to develop someone to take your place when you are ready for your next step.

Importantly, some aspects of the project might need to be contracted out. In terms of delegation, you might want to consider a procurement strategy that broadens or develops companies which can support you better in the future. You might want to assist a subcontractor to develop expertise in a field that might have interesting developments for the future that will benefit your company. Alternatively, you might desire to foster competition among subcontractors in order to keep their prices keen or to promote product development. A third possibility is to maintain a good subcontractor base, so you might pass out work equally to give them all sufficient business.

The leader must be prepared for delegating work. Delegation requires management time and energy to ensure the delegation is effective and successful. You should not assume that delegation can be efficient; it might take you longer to delegate a task effectively than it would take to do the task yourself. However, you should think of the long-term benefits that delegation can offer

in terms of development. You need to use your experience to help them achieve the task rather than to complete it yourself.

Additional work you will need to consider when delegating includes clearly identifying the work and establishing a way to monitor progress and results. You will need to provide support and to communicate.

Delegation is a skill that a good leader must acquire. It can be an art rather than a science; this means that, though there are some rules, you will have to make your approach to delegating fit your personal style. To become an effective delegator, you will need to practice delegating.

2. What Can be Delegated?

Before deciding to delegate something you should consider if the task is suitable for delegation. We can look through the WBS's work packages and the responsibility assignment matrix (RAM) and inspect each activity for suitability for delegation (see Figure 20.1). There are some simple tests that can indicate appropriateness of a task.

Responsibility Assignment Matrix										Project Manager	Functional Man	General Manager	Delegation
Activity Number	Mon 1	Tue 2	Wed 3	Thu 4	Fri 5	Sat 6	Sun 7	Mon 8					
100	■								● R	●			
300		■							●		●	D	
200			■						● A				
500				■					●	●		D	
400					■				● C				
600							■		●			D	

Figure 20.1: Delegation Matrix – shows a link between the scope of work and what can be delegated

What tasks are easy to explain? Delegation requires clear communication about what the work is and what your expectations are about success. Are you able to clearly describe the task and set realistic expectations for how it will be achieved successfully? This means that the task is likely to be suitable for delegation to the right people.

What tasks can they perform? Do you think this is the right person or people to receive the work? Do they have the relevant experience or knowledge to do the work to the necessary standard? If not, is appropriate training available to help them? Will they be able to take the whole task or will it need to be phased into stages so that you can monitor progress more carefully?

Can associated decisions be delegated? Can the decisions that are likely to come up be delegated effectively to the right people? Will they be able to make suitable decisions without your input or involvement? Can the total ownership of the task be delegated?

Will the task be motivating? Will the task be seen as exciting and challenging or mundane? Both types should be allocated widely across all staff. Think back to when you were in their situation. What activities did you perform? Which did you enjoy?

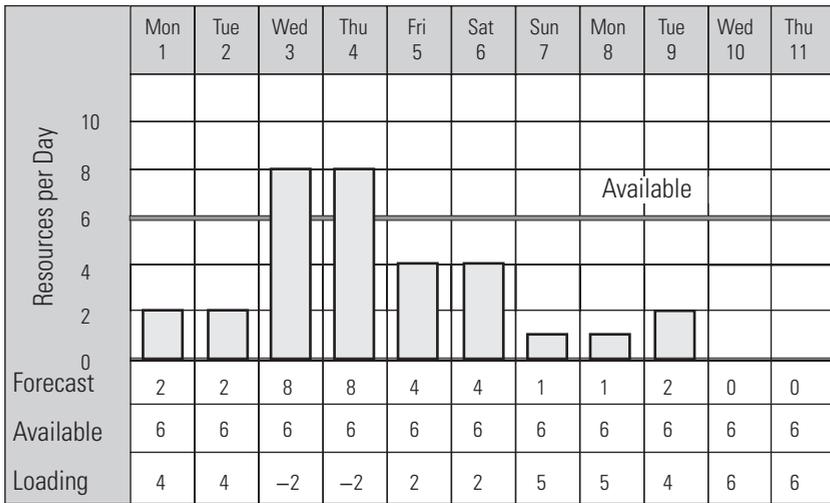


Figure 20.2: Resource Histogram – shows the availability of the resources

Expectations of Quality: What are the necessary quality standards expected for the work? These should identify the required competency of the worker. What will be the consequences of failure and what would constitute failure of this work?

Timing: The timing of the task is important; timing is indicated in the schedule or Gantt chart and the resource histogram (see Figure 20.2). Delays in the completion of an activity can have schedule implications for the overall project, especially if the activity is on the critical path. The project manager needs to check the resource loading because, on the one hand, resource overload might be the reason for the delegation but, on the other hand, the project manager needs to check the availability of the delegatee. The project manager needs to think about these limitations before deciding to delegate an activity. Is there time to complete the task and is there time available to redo the task if it is not completed to expectations? What will be the consequences of not completing the task on time?

3. Delegation: Simple Rules for Success

Delegation can be a straightforward process if you follow some simple rules (see Figure 20.3). These rules are appropriate to delegation within your project and for passing work to subcontractors. The steps of successful delegation are:

- 1. Define the task:** Be very clear in your own mind what the task is and what your expectations are of a properly completed piece of work. You must be able to clearly describe the task and your expectations as well as any boundaries, constraints or priorities that must be maintained during the work. Why is this task important? How does it fit with other work? These should already be included in the job card.
- 2. Select the individual or team:** You should also have clear reasons for choosing the person or people to do the work. What benefit will they get from doing the work and how can you explain what you will be getting out of it? You should explain the importance of the task, how it fits with other work and why you have selected them to do it.
- 3. Determine ability and training needs:** You should ensure that your people have the capability to do the work. Will they understand what needs to be done? Do you need to provide training or development as part of the delegation? This might involve some discussion or negotiation with them so that you all understand the situation and can agree on the appropriate way forward to ensure the success of the task is not compromised.
- 4. State required results and deadlines:** You must be very clear about what must be achieved and when the work must be finished. It is important to clarify the team members' understanding and obtain their feedback about the work and your expectations. How will the task be performed (build method)? How will the completed task be measured, and how will you decide that the work has been done successfully (quality control)? What are the deadlines or review dates? Are there any intermediary stages that they must achieve, such as reports or meetings? It is important to establish how you will be involved so that it is not interpreted as interference or lack of trust.
- 5. What resources are required?** What will be required to complete the work? Often, this is about the information that they need, though it might be people, premises, equipment, materials, money or other services that can be identified. What authority will they have to acquire other resources identified during the work? Are there any issues about politics or protocols that they need to know?
- 6. Confirm understanding and get their suggestions:** When the work has been identified and discussed, you should make sure there is agreed understanding about

the task. You should check for the team members' interpretation and elicit any ideas and suggestions they might have. Also, you should make sure they are able to complete the work, depending on their ability and other commitments (check the resource histogram).

7. Manage stakeholders, support and communicate: Who else needs to know what is going on? Do other people need to know about this delegation and associated authority held by your people? You should inform others about this and not expect your people to do so. Make sure information and other resources that are needed are enabled and available.

8. Provide feedback on results: It is important to provide supportive feedback about the work progress and achievement. Have they achieved the aims? Are there any examples of good work that can be praised? Was there any indication of underperformance that would need additional development and support? An effective leader will absorb the consequences of failure and pass on all credit for success. How did they make decisions? You should ask them to explain how they operated a good decision-making process so that you can support this in the future. Any comments and recommendations should be included in the closeout report.

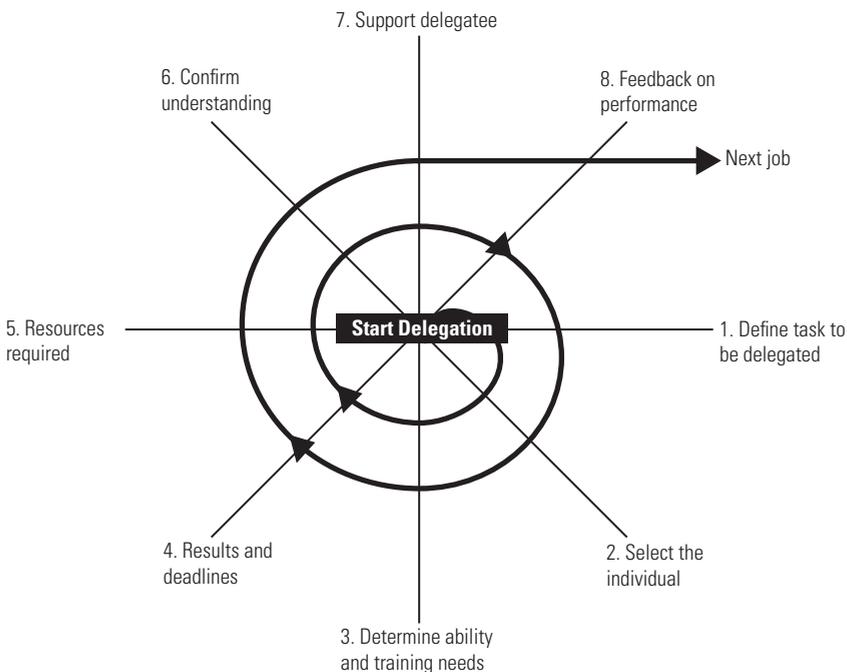


Figure 20.3: Delegation Spiral – shows the sequence of delegating

4. Delegation Contract

Sometimes it can be helpful to set a formal agreement for delegated work that clearly documents the expected outcomes and the involvement of all parties. This helps to clarify any agreements and commitments regarding deadlines, resource provision, cash availability and standards of work. In this context, it is not intended that this would be a legal document but rather a means of communication between the stakeholders involved in the work. Such a contract can be a very simple document, perhaps one page in length, that captures:

- A clear statement of the task in terms of expected benefits and/or deliverables.
- SMART objectives and measures of a successful outcome (see Chapter 23 on *Problem Solving*).
- Any constraints (usually deadlines, review dates, costs and quality expectations) should be identified.
- Any assumptions that have been made that might become invalid as the work progresses.
- Any specific exclusions to what might be expected (e.g. the document will be updated but will not be copied and distributed).

Table 20.1: Delegation Contract – shows the types of information needed for delegation to be communicated effectively

Project Number:	Delegation Contract	
Project Manager:	Name:	Date:
Scope of Work:	A brief explanation of the work that is delegated, some background	
Objectives:	SMART description of expected outcomes	
Deadline(s):	When the work must be completed and any agreed stage reviews	
Constraints:	Are there any limitations or boundaries that must not be exceeded?	
Assumptions:	There might be some issues that are not yet clear, but are required to scope the delegated work sufficiently	
Exclusions:	Are there any specific items that are not delegated or are not to be included in the objectives?	

The contract provides a means of formal agreement that represents commitment, accountability and authority. It provides a source of information that can be agreed upon or challenged, if necessary. An example template is shown in Table 20.1.

5. Problems with Delegation

Generally, delegation is full of benefits for you and the people who receive successful delegation. Unfortunately, delegation can be operated improperly and this can lead to negative outcomes.

Your Involvement: You should carefully gauge your involvement in the delegated work so that you are providing the right amount of support but you are not being seen to interfere. One way to overcome this problem is to formalize your encounters. This maintains your distance from the work and encourages the team members to engage with issues before asking for help. Obviously, there might be emergency situations where the formality must be removed.

Another way is to refuse to be involved in the decision-making process or to provide input to solutions. This would encourage them to come to you with their proposals rather than relying on your expertise. Also, this could prevent you from taking a controlling or inappropriately influencing role in the work.

Your Expectations: When you delegate work, it might not be completed to the same standards that you set for yourself. As long as the results are fit for purpose, the job is well done. You should be clear about what constitutes successful outcomes. This will take practice to get it right – how to set effective and clear measures and then how to observe outcomes against them. Experience tells us that properly delegated work usually far exceeds expectations because people are keen to show what they can do.

Your Fear of Failure: If you become anxious that the outcomes will be unsuccessful, you might be tempted to intervene. This must be done carefully and sensitively, or else the purpose of the delegation as development can be destroyed. Be aware that you might be micro-managing the situation and the people; this can only introduce a feeling of not being trusted. Micro-management is when a manager provides too much input and direction, and expects to review the work too frequently. Micro-managers are often those so in fear of failure that they cannot 'let go' of their control.

It might be prudent to wait until the last moment before taking action because, as a learning experience, failure can be a great teacher! The learning that can be acquired from things that went wrong can be more valuable than getting the job right.

Abdication: Delegation should not be treated as a way to dispose of work without follow-up or support. Passing on work without maintaining sufficient links with people is a form of abdication where the leader refuses involvement or is not available for support when needed.

You will note that all the reasons for failure of delegation lie at the leader's feet. There are no reasons why failure should be elsewhere because the leader should be in control of the delegation (this does not mean being in control of the delegated work). The leader must take responsibility for establishing the right level of involvement and ensuring the goals are effectively identified and understood.

EXERCISES:

1. Do you have any experience of delegating work or having work delegated to you? How effective was this delegation experience? Was the work delegated effectively, or not? What did you learn from your experience? What do you think the other parties learnt? You should justify your reasons.
2. Convert these loose criteria into SMART objectives. You can insert your own data, such as deadlines, referenced documents and other information, to enhance the 'smartness' of the objective:
 - a. To increase sales.
 - b. To distribute the report to all parties.
 - c. To satisfy the customers' requirements.
 - d. To improve customer relations by providing a high-quality service.
 - e. To improve call-out response and reduce maintenance costs

Key Points:

1. When identifying tasks appropriate for delegation, the leader should consider staff experience, quality expectations as 'fit for purpose' and if the task can be completed in the time available.
2. The key components of effective and successful delegation are clear establishment of expected outcomes and a suitable level of leadership involvement.
3. Reasons for failure of delegated actions belong to the leader.

Communication

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter you should be able to:

- Understand how to transmit and receive information.
- Understand how lines of communication link the project team and the other stakeholders.

Effective communication is one of the project manager's key leadership skills. Project communication is the ability to transfer information from one person to another, in this case from the project manager to the team members and between team members. The ability to communicate well, both verbally and in writing, is the foundation of effective project leadership. Through communication, team members share information and exchange ideas and influence attitudes, behaviors and understanding. Communication enables the project manager to develop interpersonal relationships; to inspire team members, handle conflict, negotiate with stakeholders, chair meetings and make presentations.

It is often stated that *information costs money* but, conversely, *lack of information* could be even more expensive. The cost of communication failure can be quantified as: poor problem solving and poor decision making (both based on incomplete information), rework due to the shop floor using old drawings, downtime due to managers not being advised of late delivery of materials and managers turning up for meetings that have been canceled. A trade-off needs to be established between the cost of mistakes and the cost of supplying good information.

Projects are particularly prone to communication difficulties because of the unique nature of projects and the matrix organization through which projects are generally managed. There might be overlapping responsibilities, decentralized decision making and complex interfaces all applying a strain on the communication system. However, if the communication system is well managed it could be the single most important factor determining project quality, efficiency, productivity and customer satisfaction.

The project manager and the Project Management Office (PMO) are in the key positions to develop and maintain all the communication links, both within the company and the project team, and outside the company with the client, contractors, suppliers, consultants, other stakeholders and interested parties. The project office is like the front door to the project. It is estimated that project managers spend about 90% of their working time engaged in some form of communication, be it meetings, writing memos, emailing, faxes, or talking with team members, project sponsors, customers, clients, subcontractors, suppliers and other stakeholders.

APM BoK defines **Communication** as: *The giving, receiving, processing and interpretation of information. Information can be conveyed verbally, non-verbally, actively, passively, formally, informally, consciously and unconsciously.*

The PMBOK defines project **Communication Management** as: *The process required to ensure proper collection and dissemination of project information. It consists of communication planning, information distribution, project meetings, progress reporting and administrative closure.*

The PMBOK and the APM BoK definitions both focus on the project communication system. The mechanics of this system will be explained in the next section on communication theory.

1. Communication Theory

The purpose of a project communication system is to transfer information from one team member to another. The basic communication model was developed in the 1940s by Bell Telephone in America. Bell was focusing on the process of communicating by voice over its telephone system and how to resolve some of the problems people were experiencing at the time.

Communication is essentially the interpersonal process of sending and receiving messages and information. The key components of the communication process are shown in Figure 21.1. They include the sender who encodes and sends (transmits) the message, and the receiver who decodes and interprets the message. The receiver then feeds back a response to the sender and closes the loop. The communication model focuses on each element of the process to identify what should happen and to prevent misunderstanding.

Sender: The sender is the originator of the message and the starting point of the communication cycle. The sender will have a purpose to communicate. This might be to request information, send information, ask a question, issue an instruction, encourage team building, marketing, networking or to make a courtesy call.

Encoding: Encoding is the process of converting thoughts, feelings and ideas into ‘code or cipher’. Although this might sound like espionage, James Bond communicating with MI6, in its broad sense, code and cipher are the words, numbers, phrases and jargon used by people to express themselves, which can sometimes sound like a foreign language. In the project management context there is definitely a project management speak that will have to be learnt.

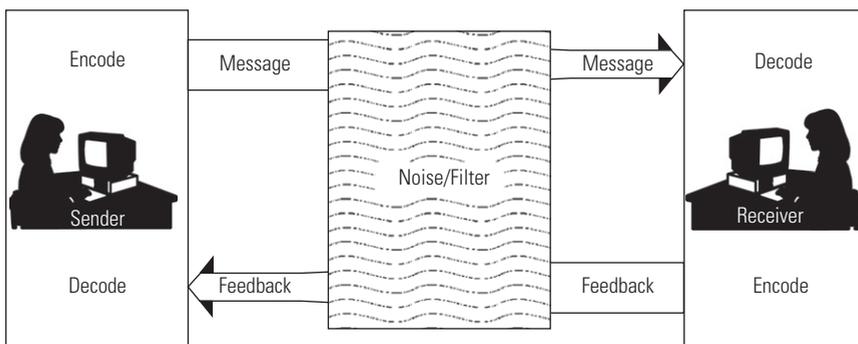


Figure 21.1: Communication Process – shows the communication cycle as a closed loop of sending and receiving messages

Medium: The medium is the vehicle or channel used to convey the message. Project communications can be transmitted in many forms; formal or informal, written or verbal, planned or ad hoc (see Table 21.1).

Table 21.1: Styles of Project Communication

Formal Written	Emails, letters, faxes, memos, minutes, drawings, specifications and reports
Formal Verbal	Telephone, voice mail, meetings, video-conferencing
Informal Verbal	Casual discussion between friends, networking with useful contacts
Non-verbal	Body language

The choice of medium will influence the impact of the message; for example, another memo or email will not have the same impact as a face-to-face discussion.

The use of written communication should be encouraged on the project because it addresses misinterpretation and forgetfulness. All the important agreements and instructions should be confirmed in writing. It is important to keep a written trail of agreements to refer to if and when problems develop later in the project. Written communications are acceptable for simple messages that are easy to convey and for those messages that require extensive dissemination to all stakeholders. However, verbal channels work best for complex messages that are difficult to convey, might need explanation, and where immediate feedback to the sender is valuable. Verbal communications are also more personal, and this helps to create a supportive and inspirational climate.

Non-verbal Communication: As the phrases suggest, '*A picture is worth a thousand words*' and '*Actions speak louder than words*'. This confirms that non-verbal actions are an important part of the communication process. They could be:

- Body language.
- Hand movements.
- Facial expressions.
- Eye contact.
- Use of interpersonal space.

Eye contact and voice intonation can be used intentionally to enforce certain words or phrases. Body language expresses one's feelings; for example, even though a person might remain silent, just a shrug of the shoulders can send a message across. It might also send confusing messages; the speaker is saying one thing, but the body language is expressing something else. In a meeting, a person under verbal attack will, unconsciously and instinctively, lean away or sit back on

his chair away from the antagonist. Some researchers claim that gestures can make up more than 50% of communication; a consideration as more communication moves to telephone and emails where non-verbal communications are completely lost.

Human beings are social animals who have learned from infancy how to read non-verbal signals. By the time they are adults they have become highly sophisticated in reading non-verbal messages. Unconsciously they can pick up what people expect from them from a host of subtle cues.

Studies in America of face-to-face verbal communication suggest that the spoken word communicated less than 10% of the message, about 40% was communicated by the tone of the voice and a massive 50% was communicated through body language. Which means, it is not what is said, but how it is said that gets the message across. The tone, the rhythm, the pitch and the loudness of the voice express the emotion and the mood; it could be happy or sad, commanding or pleading, or excited. And effective communication draws on body language as well as the choice of words and metaphors that are used.

Receiver: The receiver is the person or persons who receive the transmitted message. Their ability to receive will depend on their hearing and listening skills, selective listening, eyesight and reading skills, visual activity, tactile sensitivity and extrasensory perception.

Listening skills are a key part of project leadership because both the speaker and the listener play a part in the communication process. In a conversation there has to be a speaker and a listener. Instead of being a passive recipient, the listener has considerable influence on shaping the conversation.

Decoding: This is the process of converting the message back into a readable format.

Noise, Filters and Perceptions: These are all factors that interfere with the effectiveness of the communication process. Distortions occur during encoding and decoding, communication channels can be blocked by too many messages and filters and perceptions might influence interpretations and impressions.

Physical distractions can interfere with communication, such as telephone interruptions, drop-in visitors or lack of privacy in an open-plan office. It is important to have a place that is shielded from any noise, a place where issues can be thought through (a cave).

People's backgrounds, culture, education and personalities introduce communication filters and perceptions. Consider the following: language lost in translation, social background, semantics, innuendos, intelligence, technical expertise, knowledge base, religion, politics, personal values, ethics, reputation, environment, background noise and organizational position. Consider the

organization block when the boss is only told what he wants to hear for fear that the boss will 'shoot the messenger'; this effectively filters the information.

Other factors that will influence a response are preconceived ideas, frames of reference, needs, interests, attitudes, emotional status, self-interests, assumptions about the sender, existing relationships with the sender and the lack of responsive feedback from previous communications with the sender.

How the receiver feels about the sender can also influence how the information is received, particularly if a hidden agenda is suspected. For example, if the project manager suggests a different way of working, some team members might say, *'That's a good idea let's give it a go'*. While other team members might be suspicious (the suggestion is the *'thin end of the wedge'* for something more sinister – perhaps automation!). Therefore, part of the message sending is to consider how the words might be interpreted by the receiver.

Ambiguity: When communicating, make sure the comments are not likely to be misinterpreted, as in this example:

Two tradesmen knocking in a nail: *'When I nod my head hit it'*.

Feedback: It is good manners not only to acknowledge receipt of the communication, but also to give the sender a timeframe for a reply to any questions. It is important to give feedback to the sender so that it can be gauged how effectively the message was understood, and also for the receiver to confirm if the message has been interpreted correctly. No effective communication has occurred until there is a common understanding.

Listening skills are one of the weak links in the communication system, partly because most people like the sound of their own voice and when people are listening they might only be partly taking in what is being said because they are trying to think of what to say once they get an opportunity to break into the conversation. Listening skills, as the name suggests, are the skills required to fully receive what people are saying. They require the receiver to give regular feedback that the message is being understood and, if necessary, ask for clarification, perhaps even paraphrasing the message to confirm understanding.

2. Communication Plan

The diversity of projects might make it necessary to modify the company's communication management system to meet the needs of the project sponsor, the needs of the project manager and the needs of the stakeholders.

The PMBOK 5ed (2012) defines **Plan Communications Management** as: *The process of gathering and analyzing project stakeholder information and requirements to develop an appropriate communications approach for the project.*

The project communication management plan outlines how to achieve the project communication objectives. This involves identifying the stakeholders' communication requirements and developing a method for achieving the objectives. The communication management planning process should be conducted in parallel (interactively) with the other management topics (knowledge areas). It is the project manager's responsibility not only to develop the project organization structure, but also to develop the project's communication plan and lines of communication (see Figure 21.2). The communication plan should outline the issues shown in Table 21.2.

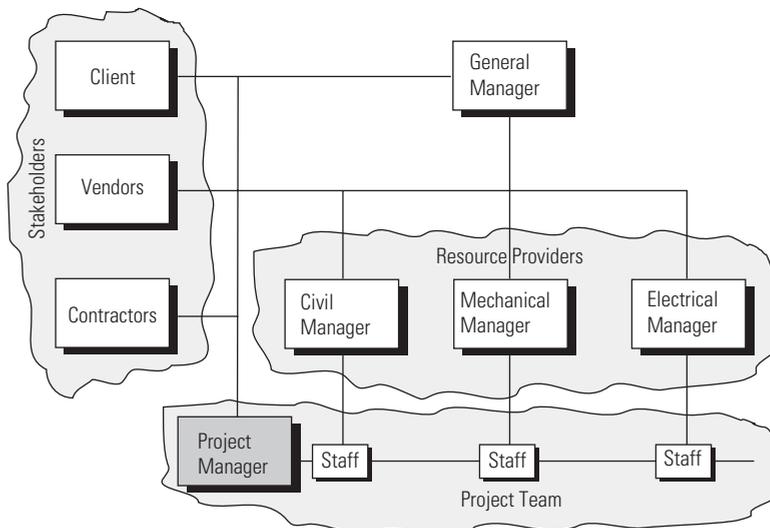


Figure 21.2: Lines of Communication – shows the link between the project manager and project team in the PMO, with the resource providers, senior management and stakeholders

Table 21.2: Communication Plan

Identify Stakeholders' Requirements	Using the key stakeholders' list developed in Chapter 11 on <i>Working with Stakeholders</i> , this section identifies and determines the communication requirements to satisfy the stakeholders' communication needs and expectations.
Scope of Communication	What should be communicated? This is a tricky issue; if the project manager filters the information, this might be considered manipulative. However, if the project manager provides everyone with all the information, they will be overloaded and are unlikely to read it. The objective should be to communicate sufficient information (as agreed) for the recipient to solve the problems, make good decisions and feel involved and part of the project.
Communicate with Whom (Lines of Communication)	A line of communication is a formal or informal link between two or more people, departments, companies, suppliers, contractors or stakeholders. The lines of communication tend to follow the organization chart, which not only outlines the project manager's position, but also implies responsibility, authority and who reports to whom. Every effort should be made to include all the key people in the project's lines of communication. To leave out key people will not only limit their knowledgeable contribution to the project, but might also result in them adopting a hostile and negative attitude towards the project. If senior people are included in the circulation list this will add weight to the document's perceived importance.
Format and Content	The reporting format and content should be discussed with the stakeholders. Where possible the project manager should be encouraged to accept the contractor's standard forms, which might have been developed from previous projects. The information presented should be in an easy-to-understand format so that the recipient can quickly assimilate the situation and take appropriate action if required.
Method of Communication	The project manager needs to agree with the stakeholders on the most appropriate methods of communication. As most of the communication is via the Internet and mobile phones, this makes it feasible to manage a project from a mobile site office.
Timing	The frequency of reports and turnaround time for responses should be discussed and agreed. For example, a reporting cycle might capture progress on a Friday, be processed on a Monday and reported on a Tuesday at the weekly progress meeting. The communication plan should produce a schedule of the key communication activities and show how they integrate with the project plan.
Document Control	The communication plan should outline the level of document control. Certain information should be controlled: contract, specifications, drawings, instructions and scope changes.
Administration	The administration of the communication process would normally be a PMO function. This would include information gathering, processing, transmitting, filing, storing and retrieval.
Resources	The communication plan should outline the resources and budgets required to set up and manage the communication system.

Communication planning pulls the project's lines of communication together. The project manager is at the heart of the project's information and control system and so is in an ideal position to plan and manage the communication process. The art of good communication is to strike a balance with the value of information supplied against the cost and time it takes to collect, process and disseminate it.

3. Project Meetings

Project meetings are an important forum for the project manager to lead and manage the project participants. Discussing the project at the coffee machine might be a convenient informal method of clarifying situations, solving problems and making decisions, but it needs to be followed up with a structured meeting to discuss the issues with the rest of the team and document in the agreed manner.

Some project managers might prefer many small meetings, while others might prefer the occasional big meeting with everyone on the project attending. Some project managers prefer informal, ad hoc meetings, while others prefer more formal, structured meetings. Whichever type of meeting is used, there are five basic reasons for holding a meeting:

1. Project Initiation Start-Up Meeting

The purpose of the initiation-type meeting is to formally commence the project, phase or subcontract. The attendees would normally include the project sponsor, the project manager, the project team members, contractors, suppliers, consultants and key stakeholders. The purpose of the start-up meeting is to set the scene for the project and what it has to achieve, and establish how it will be managed. This is an ideal time to review closeout reports and discuss previous achievements, problems and lessons learnt.

It is important to initiate the project with a start-up meeting to set the framework and tone for the project, and then follow up with progress meetings to keep the momentum going.

2. Problem-Solving Workshop

Problem-solving workshops enable members of the project team to use their creative and innovative skills to brainstorm problems, generate ideas, options and alternatives.

3. Decision-Making Meeting

Problem solving and decision making are often presented together; but their purpose and processes are quite different. The purpose of the decision-making process is to gain collective support and commitment from the project team for a certain course of action.

4. Project Progress Meetings

Progress meetings are generally held weekly to monitor progress and guide the project to a successful completion. Progress meetings provide an effective forum for the project manager to coordinate, integrate and manage the project's participants. This includes sharing progress data and information, evaluating, reviewing, forecasting and controlling.

5. Handover Meeting

The handover meeting formally hands over the project from the project manager to the client (project sponsor) for operation.

Structure: The project manager is responsible for establishing the communication plan, and also responsible for setting up a schedule of meetings (Table 21.3). Successful meetings require good planning to ensure genuine participation from the entire team. Advance notice of the meeting must be given to the participants to enable them to come prepared.

Table 21.3: Structure and Content Project Meetings

Quorum	The quorum outlines the number of people who must be present at the meeting so that decisions can be made.
Agenda	The agenda outlines the topics to be discussed.
Minutes	The minutes are a record of the discussions and agreements. They act as an action list and should be approved at the next meeting.
Business Case	The business case is the project sponsor's key document and a means to realize benefits for the company.
Project Charter	The project charter is the project manager's key document that translates the business case into a scope of work and the critical success factors for the project manager to achieve.
Project Team	The project is administrated through the PMO and the project team. The project manager has to work with the resource providers and delegate appropriate responsibility and authority.
Scope of Work	The scope of work defines the content of the project as a list of deliverables and work packages to make the deliverables. This section is also concerned with processing scope changes.
Configuration	The operational configuration considers how the project will operate and interface with existing facilities. Configuration management considers the implications of any changes to the scope of work.
Build Method	The build method outlines how to make the project and considers the implications of any scope changes.
Project Plan	The project plan integrates all the individual plans to form a unified baseline plan. This process considers the trade-offs between the plans to find an optimal arrangement.
Execution Strategy	The execution strategy considers how to implement the project plan and build method. This section considers the 'make or buy' decision and finds the best arrangement for the project to use in-house resources, contractors or outsource the work.
Procurement	The procurement plan buys in all the materials and components for the project. This section considers long-lead items and the procurement schedule.
Quality	The quality plan considers: quality assurance, quality control (testing) and non-conformance reporting.
Risk	The risk management plan considers risk identification, risk mitigation and risk control.

Table 21.3: (Continued)

Communication	The communication plan considers lines of communication, reporting and documentation control.
Instructions	The issuing of instructions authorizes the project team to carry out the scope of work. This section discusses the procedure for issuing instructions, the format and who has authorization. The documents used for issuing instructions should be listed; these could be drawings, schedules, minutes, written, etc.
Project Control	The project control process guides the project to achieve its objectives; this involves expediting, monitoring, assessing and issuing revised instructions.
Document Control	The document control process controls all the key documents. This involves listing the documents, circulation, outlining how they can be changed, transmitted and stored.
Payments	The payment process approves all progress payments as per the agreed payment schedule and method.
Commissioning	The commissioning process outlines how the project will be tested, run-up and accepted.
Handover	The handover process outlines how the project will be officially handed over to the client for operation. This might involve operator training and the agreed documentation.
Contract	The project's contract outlines the agreed bases for carrying out the project. The meeting should discuss any contractual issues, claims, penalties and warranties.

Meetings provide a dynamic environment where interaction and innovation will enhance the cross flow of ideas and help solve problems. The meetings should also provide the venue for consensus and decision making. See *Fundamentals of Project Management* for the administration of project meetings and workshops.

4. Teamwork vs. Communication

Communication is probably the single most important factor establishing cohesion amongst team members, because good communication is the thread binding the team members together to create a cohesive bond. It is only through communication that each team member gets to know the other team members and vice versa. Communication is an effective component enabling the project team to function (see Table 21.4).

Table 21.4: The Value of Communication

Team Building	Communication enables the team members to get to know each other, build friendships and develop a sense of pride in the team.
Conflict Resolution	Communication helps the team members air their views and opinions, and sort out their differences.
Competencies	Communication informs the team members of the other team members' abilities, skills and competencies. This makes sure they are put to the best use.
Team Roles	Communication enables the team to discuss and decide on team roles; who does what.
Shared Values	Communication enables the team members to discuss and converge on common shared project objectives and goals. This would include the project plan, build method and execution strategy.
Task	Communication informs the team members of the project's scope of work, material, equipment and resource requirement so they can plan ahead.
Progress	Status reports need to be communicated to keep the client, the team and the stakeholders informed about the project's progress. Concerns about carrying out the project and achieving the deadlines need to be shared.
Contribution	The project manager needs to communicate to keep team members informed of other team members' contributions to the project.
Recognition	The project manager needs to recognize and praise the other team members when appropriate; this will enhance their sense of achievement, and the team members' pride in the team's achievements.
Support	The project manager needs to communicate the need for assistance, support and help to achieve the project's tasks. And, conversely, be able to give assistance, support and help to other team members.

Effective communication enables the team to work together and perform the project efficiently. From the seeds of success the team will establish a sense of pride, and all the team members will feel good about belonging to the team.

EXERCISES:

1. Using the communication theory model (or schedule) show graphically how information is communicated on your projects.
2. Draw up a lines of communication document for your project, determining who receives what and when.
3. Almost every aspect of your project requires some form of communication. Identify areas where information was misunderstood and the consequences for your projects.

Reference:

Burke, R. (2009) *Fundamentals of Project Management: Tools and techniques*, UK.

Conflict Resolution

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter you should be able to:

- Recognize what constitutes a conflict situation in the workplace.
- Recognize that conflict in the workplace can be a good thing.
- Identify strategies to deal with workplace conflict.

Much of the work done to understand conflict situations involves knowledge of psychology. However, the leader needs to be aware of the nature of conflict, how it can be beneficial to project work and how to create an environment that avoids negative or damaging conflict situations. This chapter provides the basis for such understanding and strongly links to the next chapter, which introduces coaching styles that provide useful ways to deal effectively with conflict.

1. Conflict in the Workplace

In the workplace, conflict usually relates to people or groups having incompatible goals and an inability to resolve their differences. This means that it is difficult to find a mutually beneficial solution to a common problem. This kind of situation needs to be managed to prevent it getting out of hand. Management of conflict involves taking preventative measures as well as working to resolve any conflict once negative behavior is experienced.

Conflict often arises in competitive situations; for example, look at the behavior of supporters at some sporting events to get a sense of tension and the potential for conflict. When only one team can win, the other must lose. Though sporting teams can draw, achieving the same score, this is not usually the case in projects. When companies are competing for work, there is usually only one winner. An alternative for business is to create a partnership of two or more companies, effectively combining together to address a task. However, conflict can still occur in partnership situations when one party tries to achieve the common goal in a manner undesirable to the other.

A conflict situation involves emotions that work to drive and reinforce the conflict. Issues must be dealt with at an emotional level in order to escape the conflict. The leader should review issues about emotional intelligence (see Chapter 9 on *Emotional Intelligence*) for ways of identifying personal strengths in this area.

The conflict situation can manifest through emotions that affect people in one or more of the following ways:

- **Behavioral** – the way the conflict is expressed through verbal/non-verbal and intentional/unintentional behaviors.
- **Physiological** – the way people feel inside about the conflict situation; for example, how does it affect their self-image?
- **Cognitive** – the way people think about the conflict; how do they assess or appraise the situation to determine relevance to their point of view?

Though there is this emotional component, the root of the conflict can lie in a challenge to people's personal or cultural values, their achievement of goals and the way they want to achieve their goals or in their understanding of the facts. The sources of the conflict need to be identified in one or more of these categories if the situation is to be resolved. For example, if the conflict relates to a difference in factual understanding, we might investigate whether one of the parties in the dispute is working with some assumptions that they are treating as facts. If it was possible to test what people are taking to be truth, then we might be able to identify misconceptions that could break the deadlock.

Conflicts over facts, goals and methods are more likely to be resolved in a straightforward manner than issues involving values. This is because it is difficult to prove values or beliefs to be 'correct'. For example, cultural beliefs or values are embedded in a social structure that indicates how particular emotions should be expressed and responded to.

Emotions are acceptable in the workplace as long as they can be controlled and utilized for productive project outcomes. This indicates that some conflict situations can provide a source of emotional engagement that can be applied productively to benefit a situation.

So, sometimes, conflict can be a good thing. For example, it can be a way of avoiding groupthink (see Chapter 13 on *Teams vs. Groups*), and it constitutes part of the storming phase of Tuckman's team formation process (see Chapter 15 on *Team Development Phases*). Conflict can present challenges to accepted ideas and assumptions that introduce different points of view and create new opportunities. Leaders should embrace conflict situations and understand the issues that arise because conflict can provide great potential for learning and team development.

2. Dealing with Conflict

As a leader, you might be involved in participating in conflict with others or you might need to assist the resolution of conflict between other people in the team. Importantly, you need to be active in removing the chances that conflict might arise. There are a number of choices you can make when you are involved in conflict, as outlined in Table 22.1.

Table 22.1: Available Choices When Involved in Conflict (adapted from Ursiny, 2003)

Avoid It	Avoiding a conflict means disengaging with it or trying to ignore it. Avoidance tactics can be physical or emotional. For example, we can ignore someone or not answer their messages or phone calls; we can be dishonest when someone asks how we are feeling or what we are thinking.
Give In	Giving in can be a form of avoidance but, by giving in, we make it clear that we are allowing the other person to win, even though we do not want to. The other party might be aware we have given in or they might not.
Be Passive-Aggressive	Passive-aggressive behavior involves giving dual messages about feelings of anger. It usually arises from an inability to be honest about the anger so that, superficially, action looks positive and helpful (passive), but underneath the actions can be subversive or obstructive (aggressive).
Bully the Other Person	Bullying is a totally selfish action where one person exerts himself over another. For the bully, the end can justify any means. Some people are bullies so that they do not have to deal with conflict – other people won't dare to challenge them, so they get their own way.
Compromise	Compromises can be a positive way to resolve conflict. Each party gives some ground in order to allow everyone to achieve some of their goals. Unfortunately, compromise can mean each person loses some of their goals and the compromise process attempts to minimize these losses for all parties. Compromise is usually the outcome of negotiation.
Problem Solve Together	With this approach, it is possible that none of the parties need to give up anything. The discussion is a creative exercise that strives to discover and address the core issues. The result is to design an approach that satisfies all parties.
Honor the Other Person	Sometimes we decide that our desire is to give the other person what they want and this is more satisfying to us than getting what we thought we wanted. In this way we honor them and our reward is pleasing the other person.

Adapted from: Tim Ursiny, PhD (2003) *The Coward's Guide to Conflict*.

There are benefits and disadvantages of using each approach in any particular situation.

3. Drama Triangle

Stephen Karpman suggests there are three roles involved in a conflict-like drama that represent dysfunctional interactions that can work together to reinforce the conflict or drama. He named the three roles: Persecutor, Rescuer and Victim, and they can be represented by a triangle of interrelationships (Figure 22.1).

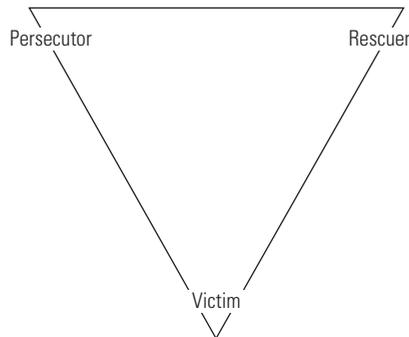


Figure 22.1: Drama Triangle – shows the three roles: Persecutor, Rescuer, Victim

Each of the roles is rooted in a person's own psychological history and theory suggests, as a result, each person has a preferred position that affects their behavior. However, people tend to rotate through the roles as a situation develops. This rotation can occur quickly, in minutes or seconds, as they relate to an event. The drama can continue for the people involved in the situation as long as someone is prepared to play the role of victim. It is interesting to note that, if one person in the triangle changes roles, the others involved will change their roles as well.

Before looking at the three roles, consider the following example which illustrates a drama and how the three roles can interact:

A project manager needs an activity completed quickly and asks a junior to do it. The junior has other work that is also urgent, so he cannot complete the new task. The project manager becomes irate and demands that the new task is done first because, to the project manager, his project takes priority. The junior has taken on the role of the victim with the project manager as the persecutor. If the line manager of the junior steps in and supports the junior's position, the line manager becomes the rescuer. At this point, a number of possibilities might occur. The project manager might turn on the line manager who would then become the victim. Alternatively, the line manager might stand up to the project manager and become the persecutor, with the project manager becoming the victim. As the argument progresses, the roles of each person will change. Adapted from: Lynne Forrest (<http://www.lynneforrest.com>).

The players in this drama can quickly change roles as the situation unfolds. For many people, this is the only way they know how to communicate or to behave.

The Persecutor wants to be in a dominating position, adopting a blaming or criticizing position that keeps the victim oppressed. Usually the persecutor is driven by anger, becoming the authoritative or ‘critical parent’.

The Victim is helpless, powerless, possibly ashamed and oppressed. Often victims will look for a rescuer to help them reinforce their negative feelings. The victim role blocks the person from problem solving and decision making.

The Rescuer provides the victim with permission to fail, which keeps the victim dependent upon the rescuer. Often rescuers feel guilty if they do not rescue and sometimes the victim might force them into a rescuer role. Rescuers might have a ‘need to rescue’, possibly so they have a feeling of being needed by the victim.

These roles seem to be related to the way people have responded psychologically to events or the way they have been treated in the past. For example, a person who takes a victim role might have been brought up by a parent who was a devout rescuer – he or she does not know how else to behave!

3.1 Getting out of the Drama

The only way to stop the drama is for one of the players to let go of their role. This is usually done after realization that the game is in play and needs some understanding of how the various roles operate. Those involved need to identify the cues that occur in the game and be able to prevent their (possibly) natural responses.

The key is to realize the truth and become accountable for the situation and their behaviors, even though that might be painful for them, and to help others discover the truth without adopting one of the roles in the triangle.

There is another role that comes from Transactional Analysis (Berne, 1964) – the Adult role. This requires people to take responsibility for themselves, working with the Emotional Intelligence competencies noted in Chapter 9 on *Emotional Intelligence*. It is necessary for people to explore their core beliefs and realize which is their preferred drama role so that they can better recognize when they might be hooked into the drama.

The Drama Triangle is found wherever there is some dysfunctional behavior.

4. Transactional Analysis

The Drama Triangle came out of Transactional Analysis theories developed by Dr Eric Berne in the 1950s. Transactional Analysis represents a model for understanding how people behave in social situations, and it is a method to help them to improve their communication with others.

The name ‘Transactional’ implies that the approach relies on small ‘tokens’ of action in their behavior or communication with others. These ‘tokens’ or transactions are the result of adopting one of three main ego states or behavior modes. The ego states are called Parent, Adult and Child and are shown diagrammatically in Figure 22.2.

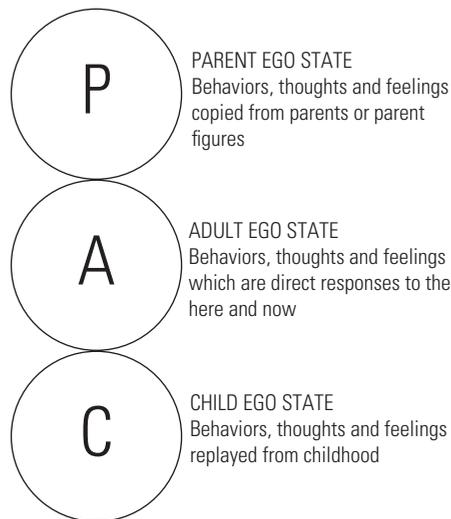


Figure 22.2: Ego States – Parent, Adult, Child

It is important to note that this does not imply, for example, that someone is behaving in a ‘child-ish’ manner or doing what a child would do. The words are used with capital letters to indicate this is a means of labeling the ego states.

4.1 Ego States

Parent Ego State

This is a set of feelings, thinking and behavior in response to an unconscious mimicking of how parental figures in one’s life have acted. For example, a person might respond out of frustration by shouting at someone, because they have learnt that this is a way of responding that works.

Adult Ego State

This is a state in which people behave, feel and think in response to what is going on ‘here-and-now’ without any emotional ‘heat’ attached to the communication. This means that Adults use their faculties, being aware of the situation and seeing things and people as they are. They are not projecting their prejudices on to the situation or making untested assumptions. Instead, they are making an objective appraisal of reality through an effective and ongoing learning process.

Child Ego State

The Child ego state involves reverting to behaving, feeling and thinking similarly to how one did in childhood. For example, a person sentenced in court might feel shame or anger, as they used to when being told off as a child.

The Parent and Child ego states each have substates or modes that help deeper understanding of the model (see Figure 22.3). The modes have positive and negative aspects to them, which imply effective and ineffective behavior, respectively.

The Parent state includes Nurturing Parent and Controlling/Critical Parent. The Child ego state includes Adapted Child and Free Child. When considering these modes, similarities are apparent with the roles indicated in the Drama Triangle.

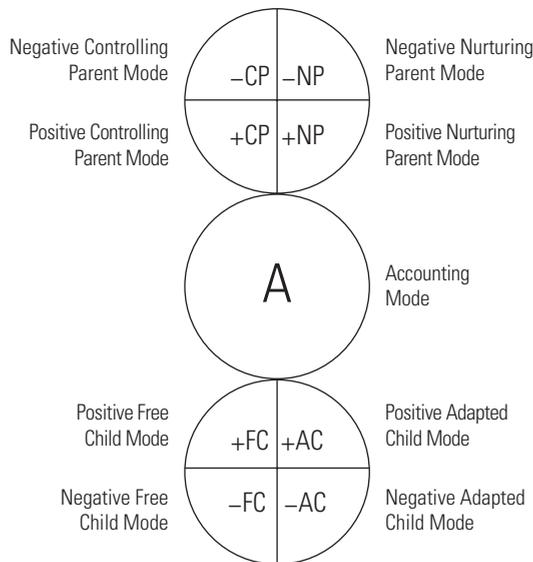


Figure 22.3: Ego States showing Parent and Child modes

The *Nurturing Parent* demonstrates caring and concerned behavior, often taken as a mother figure (though men can play it too). This mode is similar to the Rescuer role where there is a need to protect, calming when troubled and offering unconditional love.

The *Controlling (or Critical) Parent* demonstrates a more forceful approach by trying to get the other person to do as the Parent wants them to do. There might be a desire to transfer values or beliefs that the Parent believes will assist the other person. The Controlling Parent might have negative intentions that translate into excessive domination. This mode is similar to the Persecutor role in the Drama Triangle.

The *Natural Child* is playful and demonstrates very open behavior that can make them vulnerable.

The *Little Professor* represents the curious and exploring Child who is always trying out new things. Together with the Natural Child, they make up the Free Child.

The *Adaptive Child* reacts to the world around them, either changing themselves to fit in or rebelling against ideas or situations they find themselves within.

4.2 Applying the TA Model

Now the content and structure of the model have been investigated, we can see how it can inform our behavior in communication.

For now, we will just consider the three main ego states: Parent, Adult and Child. Transactional Analysis works for individuals communicating with each other, so let us imagine we are having a conversation and we will investigate our ego states.

First of all, each of us will be in some ego state before the conversation depending upon what we have been doing and thinking. Suppose I have been writing a progress report for you and it is late. You are feeling annoyed that I did not complete the report on time as I had promised, so you might be in Critical Parent mode. You might say, *'Where is that progress report? You promised you would have it finished yesterday and I need it now!'* I can reply to your Parent ego state from one of the three possible ego states available to me, regardless of my current ego state. The possible communication links for all combinations of ego states are indicated in Figure 22.4.

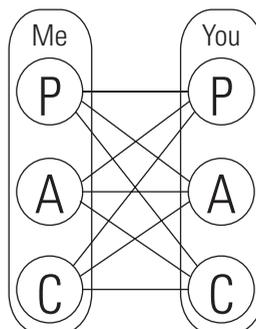


Figure 22.4: Communication between Ego States

I can reply in a Parent fashion, for example I might respond, *'Well if you had given me all the data I asked for, the report would have been completed the day before!'*

Alternatively, I can adopt a Child ego state and say, *'I'm sorry I am doing my best, I will have it done as soon as possible'*. Here, I am taking a subservient role that might indicate to you that you can adopt this style with me in future.

The most productive response for any future relationship is to maintain an Adult ego state, *'Yes, that is what we agreed and I have had some difficulty working through the extra data you gave me, I have a couple more hours' work to do and then it is finished'*. This response remains unemotional and factual. It does not challenge your position or allow your challenge to affect my response, taking the emotional heat out of the situation.

Reciprocal or Complementary Transactions: In this way, we can apply some understanding of the ego states and provided responses to analyze the situation and produce an effective outcome. In some cases, responses are simple and straightforward, referred to as *reciprocal* or *complementary*, when both partners are addressing the ego state the other is in. Some examples of complementary transactions are shown as follows:

Examples of Reciprocal or Complementary Transactions:

A: *'Have you been able to complete the report?'* (Adult to Adult)

B: *'Yes, it is finished, I have just emailed it to you.'* (Adult to Adult)

A: *'I am going to the movies, would you like to come with me?'* (Child to Child)

B: *'I'd love to – what shall we go and see?'* (Child to Child)

A: *'Have you tidied your room yet?'* (Parent to Child)

B: *'Will you stop hassling me? I will do it eventually!'* (Child to Parent)

These are examples of appropriate communication between ego states where the response is appropriate for the question. However, if the responding ego state does not match, miscommunication ensues, as indicated in the box below.

As noted above, there is the possibility of demonstrating some ineffective modes of communication (see Table 22.2).

Crossed Transactions: Dysfunctional communication is typically caused by a crossed transaction where one person addresses an ego state that is different to the one their partner is in. Consider the above examples mixed together:

A: *'Have you been able to complete that report?'* (Adult to Adult)

B: *'Will you stop hassling me? I'll do it eventually!'* (Child to Parent)

This conversation is likely to produce problems in the workplace. 'A' might respond with a Parent to Child transaction. For instance:

A: *'If you don't finish the report, I will have to tell the boss'* (Parent to Child)

Another example might be:

A: *'Is your room tidy yet?'* (Parent to Child)

B: *'I'm just going to do it, actually.'* (Adult to Adult)

This is a more positive crossed transaction. However, there is a risk that 'A' might get annoyed that 'B' is acting responsibly and not playing the expected Child role. Therefore, 'A' might respond:

A: *'You are just saying that!'* (Parent to Child)

Thus, enticing 'B' into the Child role:

B: *'Why don't you believe anything I say?'* (Child to Parent),

which then introduces the attributes of a negative relationship.

Table 22.2: Effectiveness of TA Ego Modes

Mode	Message	Approach	Notes
Positive Controlling Parent	<i>'You're OK'</i>	Effective	This mode sets boundaries and offers constructive criticism, whilst being caring but firm.
Negative Controlling Parent	<i>'You're not OK'</i>	Ineffective	This mode represents a punitive or controlling style.
Positive Nurturing Parent	<i>'You're OK'</i>	Effective	When in this mode, a person demonstrates a caring and affirming style.
Negative Nurturing Parent	<i>'You're not OK'</i>	Ineffective	When in this mode, a person will do for others things they are likely capable of doing for themselves. The person can be engulfing and overprotective.
Positive Adapted Child	<i>'I'm OK'</i>	Effective	When in this mode, we learn the rules to help us to live with others.
Negative Adapted Child	<i>'I'm not OK'</i>	Ineffective	When in this mode, a person can over-adapt to others and can experience such emotions as depression, unrealistic fear and anxiety.
Positive Free Child	<i>'I'm OK'</i>	Effective	This is the creative, fun-loving, curious and energetic mode.
Negative Free Child	<i>'You're not OK'</i>	Ineffective	In this mode, a person operates with no restrictions or boundaries.

Transactional Analysis is supportive of a win–win approach. This means that both parties have their needs met, resulting in the situation, *'I am OK'* and *'You are OK'*. If the communication leads to any party experiencing *'Not OK'*, then it is ineffective and this leads to the application of blame (Table 22.3).

Table 22.3: Transactional Analysis Influences a Win–Win Approach

Okay-ness	Emotion	Blame	Style
<i>'I am okay and you are okay'</i>	No emotion	No blame	Assertive
<i>'You are okay and I'm not okay'</i>	Helpless	I'm to blame	Passive
<i>'I'm okay and you are not okay'</i>	Angry	You are to blame	Aggressive
<i>'I'm not okay and you are not okay'</i>	Hopeless	We are both to blame	Manipulative

4.3 Driver Behavior or Working Styles

The drive to be 'okay' causes people to develop strategies over time that help them to cope with difficult situations. These become helpful to them and, when they understand them, they can consciously use them as strengths rather than be driven by them subconsciously. In Transactional Analysis theory, there are five such drivers, as shown in Table 22.4.

Table 22.4: TA Drivers for 'Okay-ness'

Driver	Good At . . .	Beat Themselves Up For . . .	How they Relate to Others
Be Perfect	Accurate, detail, neat, clean, tidy	Not being good enough, making a mistake	Expect others to be perfect
Be Strong	Great in a crisis, take control of situations	Appearing stupid or weak	Aloof, don't often express feelings, impersonal
Try Hard	Pioneering, new projects, gathering ideas, collecting information, working under pressure	Starting too many new things and not finishing them	Easily sidetracked
Please Others	Team membership, pleasing people, see both sides of an argument, calm down a tense situation	Poor decision making, not changing their behavior in case others don't like them	Don't express own opinions, preferring other people to determine priorities
Hurry Up	Get a lot done in a short time, meet deadlines	Overlooking important issues	Seen as impatient and not addressing detail well

You might be able to relate these drivers to other models you have observed in this book. For example, you might see some relationships with Belbin's Team Roles in Chapter 14 on *Team Roles*.

EXERCISES:

1. How do you think the Victim role in the Drama Triangle maps on to the TA Child ego state modes?
2. Look at the driver behaviors in Section 4.3 and consider how these might map on to Belbin's Team Roles in Chapter 14 on *Team Roles*.
3. Reflective exercise: Think about a situation where you have had experience of conflict. How do you think the various roles were played out? What do you think was the reason for the conflict? Did the conflict situation escalate and, if so, what do you think were the reasons for this? How was the conflict eventually resolved?

Key Points:

1. Conflict arises when we cannot find a mutually beneficial outcome to a common problem.
2. Some conflict can be beneficial because it causes new perspectives and ideas to be developed and considered.
3. Conflict can be dealt with by understanding the underlying causes and behaviors.

References:

Drama Triangle:

<http://www.karpmandramatriangle.com/pdf/DramaTriangle.pdf>

http://www.lynnforrest.com/html/the_faces_of_victim.html

<http://www.mental-health-today.com/articles/drama.htm>

<http://www.co-cornucopia.org.uk/coco/articles/Rescue3/reschand.htm>

Recommended Transactional Analysis books:

Berne, E. (1964) *Games People Play*, London, UK: Penguin.

Harris, T. A. (1995) *I'm Okay You're Okay*, Arrow.

Stewart, I. and Joines, V. (1987) *TA Today*, Lifespace Publishing.

Ursiny, T. (2003) *The Coward's Guide to Conflict*.

Problem Solving

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter you should be able to:

- Understand the problem-solving process.
- Understand how problem solving and decision making are linked.
- Carry out a brainstorming session.

Problems should not be seen as something negative that must be avoided. A problem may be defined as any obstacle that stands in the way of meeting the project's objectives. A problem can also be seen as an opportunity to improve the current situation.

In many ways, project processes and the tools and techniques used to manage projects are parts of a problem-solving system. A project is often just a big problem that needs to be solved. At the corporate level, the business case is the solution and, at the project level, the project charter and project plan are the solutions. The success of a project can depend on the innovative way that problems and opportunities are dealt with.

The nature of problems is that, often, other smaller problems are hidden within the problem to be solved. So, a project can contain many problems that are hidden within. Project techniques can be used to work through these embedded problems, or a more generic approach can be used that provides a more streamlined approach.

It is important that the project manager or project leader sets up a problem-solving system and is able to identify problems early and respond quickly to opportunities with solutions and options, and also to make visionary decisions to keep the project on track with minimal disruptions.

Problem solving and decision making are often interrelated and seen as parts of the same process (see Figure 23.1) but they can be differentiated as follows:

- Problem solving is the process of generating a number of practical and technical solutions to solve a problem.
- Decision making is the process of considering the wider aspects of the situation and ensuring that the course of action satisfies stakeholder requirements and problem objectives.

Problem solving and decision making can be seen as two sides of the same coin. This chapter will focus on problem solving and the techniques project managers use to solve problems, while the following chapter will focus on decision making.

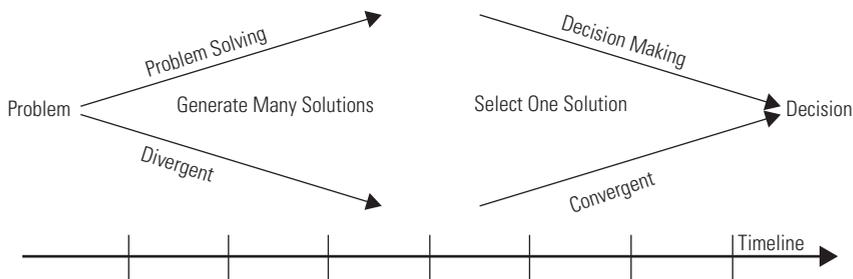


Figure 23.1: Problem-Solving and Decision-Making Processes – shows the divergent problem-solving process to generate many solutions, and the convergent decision-making process to select one solution

1. Types of Problems

There are successful project leaders who solve problems intuitively in an ad hoc and unstructured way; for some people it is a natural, intuitive method (see Chapter 3 on *Project Leadership BoK*). However, for others, a structured approach helps the problem solving and decision-making process.

The first step to take when approaching a problem situation is to determine what kind of problem it is. This will reveal important information about the problem and guide the way in which the problem should be approached. To do this, what is known about the problem must be separated from ideas about possible solutions.

Figure 23.2 suggests that there are four possible situations:

Known Problem, Known Solution: These are usually problems that have already been solved. Possibly, there are elements of a project that have been encountered before, and tried and tested solutions already established. For example, if an earth-moving machine breaks down due to a flat tire, then it is known that fitting the spare tire will solve the problem.

Known Problem, Unknown Solution: Once again, the problem is clear and well specified, but this time the solution is not clear. This situation suggests that the solution has to be designed to fit the problem, which could involve some trial and error. For example, on an offshore platform, the project leader must get the workforce there each day. The options are to supply a vessel or helicopter and/or provide accommodation on the platform itself. The solution the project leader chooses will depend upon what is available.

		SOLUTION	
		Known	Unknown
PROBLEM	Known	Not Really Problems	Design Task
	Unknown	Methods and Procedures	Research and then Design

Figure 23.2: Known and Unknown Problems and Solutions – shows the first step in understanding what type of problem exists

Unknown Problem, Known Solution: This situation suggests that a known solution will fix an unknown problem. For example, if an earth-moving machine won't start, then a mechanic would undertake a series of actions or tests that would result in the machine starting. The actual cause of the problem might not be known, but these steps would fix it.

This is the typical scenario where Health and Safety issues are addressed. The nature of the problem is uncertain, but a set of instructions must be followed that address the problem and provide a preventative solution.

If such predetermined solutions are relied upon, without knowing what problem is being addressed, what happens if the problem is no longer present? For example, a longer supply route could be taken to avoid roadworks on a bridge. If the road has unknowingly been resurfaced, the supply route could continue to follow the longer route unnecessarily. It is worth testing this type of scenario to check if a problem still exists.



Photo: Courtesy of BHP Billiton Newman ©
Press Images – BHB Billiton, Western Australia Iron
Ore – spare wheel not shown

Unknown Problem, Unknown Solution: The majority of project-related problems are in this category. If an unknown problem is thought of as one that has not yet been agreed by the stakeholders, then time must be invested in identifying what each stakeholder expects and mapping these into an overall statement of the problem before proceeding with developing a solution. For example, if there is a limited budget and the earth-moving machine is not operating properly due to a range of possible faults, then it must be determined exactly what the problem is before purchasing the correct replacement part.

One of the dangers of having an unknown problem is that we might be designing a solution for the *wrong* problem and, therefore, we end up with a *wrong solution*.

As a result, it is of paramount importance to maintain separation between stating the problem and developing the solution. Some project methods do not provide this separation (e.g. The Project Initiation Document [PID] in PRINCE2) and allow the development of the solution to become confused with understanding the real problem.

2. The Nature of Problems

Considering our familiarity with the elements of the problem and/or solution is the first step in addressing the problem situation. The second step is to think about the depth and breadth of the problem. Technical problems, such as bridge or software design, exhibit more straightforward attributes. Problems often faced by a project leader, specifically those involving people, exhibit more complex properties and require a different approach. This is the case when the nature of the problem changes while a solution is being attempted.

Tame Problems: These types of problem require a linear and logical approach that provides a rational and objective solution. When faced with this type of problem, the facts can be established and tested, the solution can be designed and the problem solved. Many technical problems can be described as tame because the laws of physics at this level allow repeatability and certainty. It would be unusual indeed if the ground forming the banks of a river where a bridge is to be sited moved up and down!

Wicked Problems: These are often the types of projects that face a project leader. Due to the nature of issues that people face, it is likely that the problem will change as people attempt to introduce a solution. These types of problems often do not allow for the creation of a 'perfect' solution and it is not possible to test the solution before it must be realized. Also, a wicked problem can arise as a result of another problem and, as the two problems are interrelated, their solutions can affect other problem situations. This can create a daisy chain or network of problem–solution relationships that massively complicate the problem situation.

For example, on calling for additional budget, the Director of Research and Development might say, 'We need to invest in technology to develop new products that keep up with the market'; the Marketing Director could request, 'More investment in advertising to raise the profile of the company and to promote existing products'; the Finance Director might want to, 'Pay off some existing debts to reduce interest payments over the next financial year'; and the Manufacturing Director wants, 'More investment in machinery to improve throughput and unit costs'. It is clear there is no one solution that can satisfy all the stakeholders from a limited budget.

Specific techniques that are helpful in addressing these wicked types of problem will be introduced later in this chapter. However, a start can be made on addressing all types of problems using a similar approach.

3. Problem-Solving Process

Problem-solving techniques can be shown as a process or sequence of interrelated actions or discrete steps:

- Define objectives.
- Identify problems or opportunities.
- Gather data and present information.
- Identify a range of possible solutions that satisfy the problem’s objectives.
- Present solutions and options.

The presentation of a number of possible solutions is where problem solving ends and decision making starts. The decision-making cycle can also be shown as a sequence of interrelated actions or discrete steps (see Figure 23.3):

- Identify what decisions need to be made and who has the authority to make them.
- Gather information.
- Decide on the most appropriate course of action.
- Present the decision and its justifications.

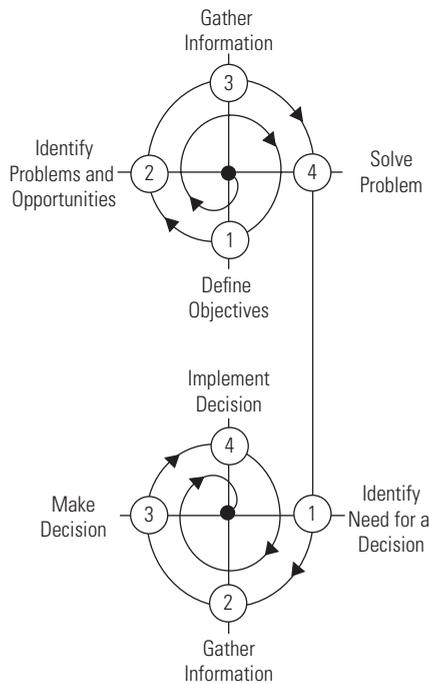


Figure 23.3: Problem-Solving and Decision-Making Processes – shows how the separate processes of problem solving and decision making are linked

4. Define Objectives and Problem Definition

The starting point for problem solving is to define the project's goals and objectives, because problems and opportunities can only be evaluated against these objectives.

Objectives are a bit like Russian Dolls; they are embedded within each other. As one drills down into an objective, there are further objectives. In the project context, the objectives relate to the level of responsibility within the organization. Consider the objectives shown in Table 23.1.

Table 23.1: Different Types of Objectives in a Project Context

Corporate Objectives	At the corporate level the objectives are documented as the corporate vision and values, which outline the company's long-term objectives and how the company wants to do business (governance and ethics).
Portfolio Objectives	At the portfolio level the objectives are documented in the statement of requirements, which outlines what the company needs to do to maintain competitive advantage.
Business Case	At the corporate strategy level the objectives are documented in the business case, which outlines how the company can address the requirements outlined at the portfolio level and realize benefits for the company.
Project Level	At the project level the objectives are documented in the project charter and project plan, which outline the critical success criteria the project has to achieve.

5. Identify Problems or Opportunities

The problem-solving process starts with the recognition that a problem or opportunity exists and there is a need to establish a solution that removes the problem or exploits the opportunity.

Sensing and identifying problems is a skill and an art usually gained from experience (certainly learning from previous mistakes is one way!). This is where an expert can come into a situation and immediately identify a number of problems – problems that should have been obvious for some time (*‘not seeing the wood for the trees’*).

Within projects, problems and opportunities can be identified by the project management system in the following situations:

Progress Meetings: The discussion during a progress meeting can identify potential problems. For example, these could be late delivery of a component, workers’ absence, lower than estimated performance – all these are compared to the baseline plan.

Non Conformance Report (NCR): When the quality control department finds work that does not achieve the required condition as set out in the project quality plan, or quality control plan, it raises an NCR. The NCR initiates a process to correct the problem. This might simply require the job to be redone and retested, or it might involve a design change leading to a scope of work change. If it is the latter then this will be managed through a configuration management system.

Problem Solving vs. Project Lifecycle: The project lifecycle can be used to subdivide the type of problem solving by project phase. This is a logical approach because, by definition, each phase produces a different set of deliverables and, therefore, there will probably be different types of problems to solve (Figure 23.4).

Figure 23.4: Problem Solving vs. Project Lifecycle

Business Case Phase	Project Feasibility Phase	Project Definition Phase	Project Execution Phase	Project Commissioning Phase
Problem solving in this phase relates to how the business case establishes a strategy to solve the corporate requirements.	Problem solving in this phase relates to the problems associated with confirming the feasibility of the project within defined constraints.	Problem solving in this phase relates to the problems associated with producing a project design and a project plan.	Problem solving in this phase relates to the problems associated with executing the build method and execution strategy.	Problem solving in this phase relates to problems associated with testing and commissioning of the project.

Situation Appraisal: What is wrong with the current solution? What would happen if this problem was not addressed?

There is a joke about a consultant who, in response to a difficult suggestion made by a client, said, ‘*Well, if you are wanting to get to there, I wouldn’t start from here!*’ Obviously, here is exactly where you must start from, so you must make sure you know where here actually is, what is the current situation and, specifically, what aspects are directly related to the problem you have identified.

For example, if it has been identified that a product needs an update, the product and the manufacturing process should be inspected so that there is clarity about what must be addressed during problem solving.

Alternatively, there might be problems arising within the project team, perhaps conflict between certain people or the allocation of team roles. The project leader recognizes dissent within the team or through monitoring team and individual performance.

As the project leader appraises the situation, possibly with the help of the stakeholders, they will be able to identify specific challenges that will help to identify and shape the problem. It is important to acknowledge what the real challenge is that is being faced. It is not good to identify the challenge in terms of its solution (e.g. to build a better mousetrap [business case]), but to think of the actual problem (e.g. to remove vermin from the kitchen [statement of requirements]), which could lead to a more innovative and robust solution. The vision could be to live in a healthy environment.

Questions that the project leader might ask are: ‘*What are all the benefits of tackling this problem? What are the benefits to the organization, to the people involved, to oneself and to society as a whole?*’

6. Gather Data and Present Information

Once a problem or opportunity has been identified and defined, the next step is to gather data to better shape and understand the problem; data which might suggest ways that the problem can be solved.

A successful project leader uses a range of tools for data gathering and converting this data into information. Data is a collection of words, numbers and pictures that are meaningless until they are assessed and presented as *information* – i.e. information that has meaning or *informs*. This is an important distinction because effort must be invested in converting data into information. For example, this book is only data until it is read and understood by a reader, and through a sense-making process it becomes information.

First of all, consider the following methods for data gathering:

- Internet.
- Project closeout and audit reports/lessons learnt.
- Stakeholders.
- Reflective journals.

Internet: The Internet is the first place where most people look for data. It has revolutionized how information is found by simply entering the key words in a search engine and following the links.

Closeout and Audit Reports: Closeout reports and minutes of meetings from previous projects are a valuable source of data collected from previous problems and lessons learnt. Many companies have a technical library or online resource that contains technical specifications and other relevant information.

Audits are a formal method of gathering information. For example, a company might be concerned that its subcontractor does not have an effective document control system and that its workers are using old revisions of drawings and specifications. Carrying out an audit will enable all parties to see how the subcontractor is performing against the ‘required condition’. The findings of the audit should identify any nonconforming situations and make recommendations for corrective action.

Stakeholders: The project stakeholders include the vendors, the suppliers and also the project manager’s network of useful contacts – these should be a source of valuable information to help solve problems. If the problem is of a technical nature, then some of the vendors and suppliers would most likely have experienced similar problems before.

Reflective Journals: The project leader should consider maintaining a reflective journal that captures thoughts about important events as they occur. This journal or diary can be used as a reminder of past situations. Importantly, the act of writing a journal provides a powerful mechanism to help think through a situation and helps the mind assess and filter related issues. Project leaders can refer to their journals as a source of information to help define a problem or identify solutions.

6.1 Data Mapping

In order to be able to interpret the data we have collected in a meaningful way, the data needs to be filtered, sorted, structured and organized using a range of techniques. This is particularly important for wicked problems because the interrelated nature of the problem situation needs to be mapped and understood before an effective solution can be developed.

A series of interrelated problems can be considered as a system, and a range of techniques developed by Peter Checkland called *Soft-Systems Methodology (SSM)* is helpful to organize and understand these types of situations. SSM provides rich pictures and CATWOE, as part of a structured method.

Rich Pictures: A rich picture is essentially a diagram of the system under investigation. Often it is only meaningful to the person who has drawn it, so it needs some explanation if the representation needs to be communicated. The diagram should capture the key issues in the system, the stakeholders and any relationships between them.

CATWOE: This is an acronym that helps to capture a range of perspectives that could influence the system being modeled:

Customer: includes all the people who will benefit (or lose out) from the proposition.

Actor: includes all the people who will take action.

Transformation: description of the action, moving from where you are now to where you want to be.

Worldview: what is the underlying rationale for making the transformation?

Ownership: who is the individual or group who can modify or stop the transformation from happening? What are the related circumstances?

Environmental: what are the external enablers and constraints that can affect the transformation?

6.2 Sense Making

Sense making is an important part of problem solving. It is how we make sense of a situation, how we determine what it means to us and what it means to the project. As we review the information we have developed about the problem, we internalize the knowledge and this helps us to develop an understanding of the problem.

Tools for Sense Making: There are a number of thinking tools that can help us to engage with issues surrounding a problem. Edward de Bono and Tony Buzan have both written many books about developing thinking skills. De Bono's CoRT techniques are particularly helpful to problem solvers and project leaders. Follow the references at the end of this chapter and try to apply some of the techniques to help with the development of your thinking and sense-making skills.

In the poem 'The Elephant's Child,' **Rudyard Kipling** (*Just So Stories*, 1904) noted:

*I keep six honest serving men:
(They taught me all I knew)
Their names are What and Where and When
And How and Why and Who.
I send them over land and sea,
I send them east and west;
But after they have worked for me,
I give them all a rest . . . '*

Here, we have one of the most useful aides for thinking and interrogating issues. We ask the questions: What? Where? When? How? Why? and Who? in any appropriate sequence to collect a wealth of information. For example:

- WHO is/are the Customer(s)?
- WHY does the Customer want it?
- WHERE does the Customer want it?
- WHAT does the Customer want?
- WHEN does the Customer want it?
- HOW MUCH is the agreed budget?

A technique that helps us to get to the root cause of an issue is to ask the question *why?* five times. As we ask a *why* question, it takes us to the next layer of cause. Quite often, we do not need to ask all five questions because the cause becomes evident after three or four.

For example, we might be members of an HR department of a large organization and have received complaints about low productivity of a specific department. An initial investigation

(first WHY) confirms productivity has dropped significantly over the past month. Before we decide upon a course of action, we investigate further (second WHY) and find that attendance in this department has fallen below average. Then we look into the time records more deeply (third WHY) and find that staff are regularly arriving just before 09:30 and leaving before 15:30 each day. Before approaching the department head, we find that this person consistently arrives at 09:30 and leaves at 15:00 (fourth WHY).

At this point, we might consider disciplinary action against the head of department, but we ask WHY for a fifth time. As a result, we find that the department head's partner is in hospital with a serious illness and they have no one to help with child care. The head of department has been struggling to take their children to and from school, thus explaining the poor time attendance. We now have a clear picture of the problem and can take more appropriate action.

6.3 Identify Constraints

We need to identify any constraints and assumptions that help to shape the problem. Constraints set boundaries for our solution; for example, there might be cost or time scale limits as set out in the baseline plan, or specific requirements that must be met such as utilizing inhouse resources.

We should be clear what constraints are mandatory, or must be met, otherwise, without these, the project could be deemed a failure. There could be other constraints or requirements that are less important and that we might be able to compromise or sacrifice in order to save something elsewhere.

Requirements should be prioritized, separating those that are mandatory from those that are 'nice to have', and the latter can be sacrificed if the project gets into difficulty.

Example: If our project is to procure a building for the Project Management Office (PMO), we might have to sacrifice our requirements for location if we want the PMO to have plenty of parking spaces. The parking takes priority over our need for location because if we cannot find a PMO with sufficient parking, there is no point in moving.

WBS	Description	Constraint
1.1.1	Parking	Level 1 mandatory
1.1.2	Location	Level 2 optional

6.4 Break Down the Problem

Sometimes, the problem can be too big to solve in one go. Can we break it into smaller stages, or at least identify the first goal we must overcome? If an easier, more straightforward goal can be achieved, then we have somewhere to start. Indeed, the level of uncertainty that might be involved in the larger problem can make it unachievable. Choosing a goal that involves less uncertainty, or a level of uncertainty (or risk) that is manageable, makes it achievable.

Define the Problem: Once we have investigated the problem, the definition of the problem should be written down in clear and concise terms that specifically state:

- What is the expected benefit to be achieved in solving the problem?
- What are the objectives and measures that will be applied to ensure success?
- What are the mandatory constraints that frame any solution?

Essentially, this document, or Statement of Requirements, is a collection of stakeholder views and requirements that you have optimized and clarified. As such, the document can be used to communicate the scope of the problem to the audience.

6.5 SMART Objectives

A useful technique for establishing clear objectives is to define them using the SMART acronym. SMART stands for: Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic and Time bound (Table 23.2).

Table 23.2: SMART Objectives

Specific	The objective should clearly state what must be achieved.
Measurable	You should be able to measure whether you are meeting the objective or not.
Achievable	Is the objective attainable within the set timescale and to the standards expected?
Realistic	Can you realistically achieve the objective with the resources you have?
Time Bound	When must the set objective be completed?

Sometimes different words are used, such as Relevant, Results-focused and Appropriate. Also, there have been some additions made to the acronym, for example SMARTER includes Enjoyable or Ethical and Recorded. Another extension is appropriate for teamwork objectives because it includes Agreed and Shared.

The acronym is helpful to test if all the aims and objectives of a piece of work capture the necessary information to clearly state the specification of the work. It can be very difficult to construct an objective that captures all these requirements.

An example of converting a simple objective into a SMART objective is:

Not SMART: To increase the number of book sales by 20 per cent.

SMART: To increase the number of sales of the book, *Project Management Leadership*, by 5 per cent per year with an aim of a 20 per cent increase by 2015.

6.6 Problem Definition

The problem should be clearly stated in terms of its objectives and constraints so that these can be reviewed and agreed upon by any interested parties. With reference to Figure 23.3, this ensures that the problem is known and, therefore, the solution can be developed. It is also important to state how each of the objectives will be measured for success, although this should be clear if the objectives are SMART.

Once the problem definition has been formally agreed by the interested parties, a start can be made on designing solutions to the problem.

7. Identify a Range of Solutions

Choosing from a range of solutions can provide a better outcome than if we had proceeded with our first ideas. Allocating the design task to a number of individuals or teams allows creative options to be developed. This chapter considers this creative process, while Chapter 24 on *Decision Making* explains how the most appropriate solution can be selected.

It is important at this stage of the problem-solving process to engender a creative style. Creative thinking methods should generate plenty of alternatives, should challenge assumptions, test theories and consider a number of what-if scenarios. There are a number of available techniques to provide guidance for creativity (see references at the end of this chapter). However, the most common approach used by individuals and groups is brainstorming.

7.1 Brainstorming

The most popular problem-solving technique is *brainstorming*, though this is now sometimes called *mind shower* because some people think the process is more like a 'shower' than a 'storm'! The process is usually used with a group, but it can also work as a solo technique. Essentially, the brainstorming process is a series of steps, as follows:

1. First, allow all the participants to get into the right frame of mind to encourage creativity. Referring to the Transactional Analysis method in Chapter 22 on *Conflict Resolution*, all the participants should be in the *Free Child* frame of mind, or they will not properly participate in the creative process.
2. There should be a space, like a whiteboard, that can be seen by all participants. The title or focus of the problem should be written clearly at the top, with plenty of space below to capture ideas. For example, the focus might be on capturing ideas for a marketing project to increase sales of the ZY1500, or '*What are effective ways to communicate with our clients?*' There should be someone available to write down the ideas as they are created.
3. Everyone should be briefed on the purpose of the session, which is to generate ideas about the title or focus. They should not comment on other people's ideas (no evaluation), but just use them as a stepping stone to their own new ideas. If ideas are judged too early, this will compromise creativity, causing the ideas to dry up and the process to terminate early.
4. The team members call out their ideas to be written on the whiteboard so that everyone can see them. Sometimes, a variation of the process is to ask people to write their ideas on a note pad and stick them on to a wall so that others can walk by and inspect them, as in an art gallery. This process should continue until there appear to be no more ideas to contribute, or until the time allowed for the session is complete (30 minutes maximum).

5. The ideas can then be grouped for similarity and particular themes, or major ideas identified. Ideas should not be discarded at this stage, though new ideas can be added.
6. The ideas can now be judged, either by the participating team or by selected people involved in the decision-making process. In the spirit of the creative process, there might not be any preselected criteria for choosing. Each idea can be considered on its merits and developed or combined with other ideas to design the most suitable approach to solving the problem.

Generally, the brainstorming approach generates a multitude of good ideas. However, there are some difficulties with a team approach that might stifle creativity. If there are more senior level people in the team, their ideas can, unintentionally, take precedence and others might be loathe to contribute their own, different ideas. Sometimes, an electronic medium is used to submit the contributions anonymously so that they are judged on merit rather than by whoever suggested them.

8. Blocks to Problem Solving

The problem-solving process is often compromised by problem-solving blocks. These are a combination of factors which unintentionally constrain thinking and polarize opinions. Consider the different types of blocks shown in Table 23.3.

Table 23.3: Blocks to Problem Solving

Cognitive Block	Lack of mental ability, cannot understand the problem, lack of ideas and, therefore, lack of solutions.
Cultural Block	Taboos – the problem cannot be discussed, therefore, the problem cannot be solved.
Stereotype Block	See what you expect to see, see the problem only in terms of your discipline – do not consider the whole project.
Saturation Block	Too much data, information overload – cannot see the wood for the trees.
Ambiguity Block	Unable to accommodate uncertainty and ambiguity, doesn't know what to do with incomplete data, misleading data, and too many options – tries to establish order too soon which might limit promising ideas.
Boss Block	The boss always knows the answer – this effectively stops the team making alternative suggestions.
Lack of Exposure Block	Although someone might have been working in an industry for 20 years, is this one year's worth of experience twenty times over, or twenty years of different experiences?
Risk Averse Block	Will not consider anything new for fear of the unknown, prefers the status quo.
Indecisive Block	Too many ideas and options, cannot make a decision – <i>'Well I think this is what has been decided'</i> .

9. Solutions and Options

The output from the problem-solving process is a number of possible solutions and options to solve the problem or take advantage of the opportunity. The solution that the project should select will be discussed in Chapter 24 on *Decision Making*.

EXERCISES:

1. Explain how you solve problems during the implementation of your projects. Does this operate as a formal approach and/or use specific supportive techniques?
2. Explain how you generate creative ideas and develop innovative solutions to your problems.
3. Explain how you use a review and audit process to capture and act upon lessons learnt from previous problem-solving activities.

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Decision Making

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter you should be able to:

- Understand the decision-making process.
- Understand the project leader's decision-making continuum from autocratic to democratic.
- Understand the Quality Function Deployment (QFD) process.
- Understand Decision Tree Analysis.

Decision making is a companion process to problem solving, where problem solving is a process for analyzing the problem and identifying a number of feasible and technical solutions, and decision making is a collaborative process involving selection from a range of options or possibilities to gain collective support and team commitment for the most suitable solution. Ultimately, a decision is a commitment to action that authorizes the consumption of finite project resources.

The key considerations for each decision to be made are:

- What decisions are required?
- What will be a good outcome?
- When must the decision be made?
- What data must be collected to inform the decision?
- Who is involved and has the authority to make the decision?

Another key question to ask is when will it be clear that the decision is a good decision? It is important to know that a good decision has been made when making the decision. The only way this can be done is by adopting *a good decision-making process*.

There is some overlap with ideas already discussed in Chapter 23 on *Problem Solving*. The approach for setting objectives and gathering information is very similar.

Therefore, problem solving and decision making are not connected in a linear sense, but are embedded within each other. Problem solving requires embedded decision making. Decision making requires embedded problem solving.

1. The Decision-Making Process

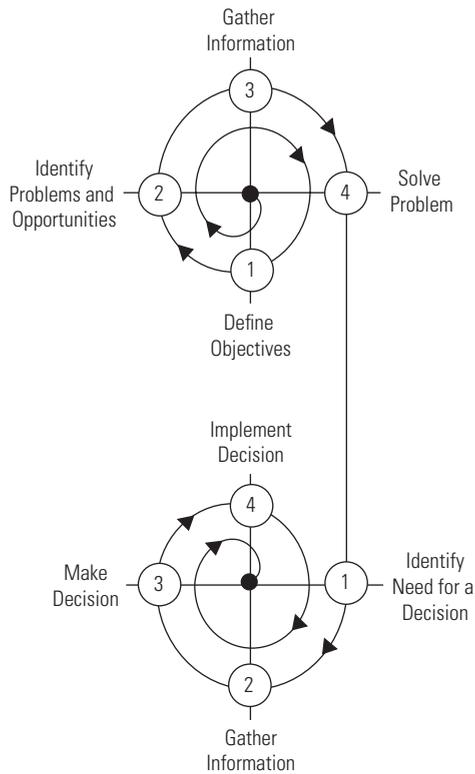


Figure 24.1: Problem-Solving and Decision-Making Processes – shows how the separate processes of problem solving and decision making are linked

Decision-Making Process: The decision-making process can be shown as a process or sequence of interrelated actions or discrete steps (see Figure 24.1):

- Determine objectives (baseline plan and stakeholders' needs and expectations).
- Confirm who is responsible and has the authority to make the decision.
- Determine what decisions need to be made.
- Gather information.
- Decide on a course of action.
- Issue instructions.

1.1 Determine Objectives

The project objectives outlined in Chapter 23 on *Problem Solving* also apply to the decision-making process. The difference is that, where problem solving is a divergent process that develops

a number of solutions, decision making is a convergent process that decides on one optimal course of action that has widespread support and commitment from the project team. The project objectives should be developed as SMART objectives with suitable measures that indicate whether the desired outcome has been achieved.

1.2 What Decisions are Required?

The project management methodology or systems approach has a number of formal decision points. Consider the examples shown in Table 24.1.

Table 24.1: Examples of Decisions Needed in Project Activities

Initiate Phase	Each phase is initiated by a go/no-go decision that ensures the project is still meeting the key objectives and is feasible within the defined constraints.
Progress Meetings	The regular progress reports presented at the progress meetings should highlight any actual vs. planned variations. The decision-making process should decide on what form of corrective action is required.
Scope Change Requests	The scope change request process will consider changes to the scope of work that need to be formally approved by the configuration management process.

1.3 Gather Information

Decisions are usually based on insufficient and incomplete information. This might be a combination of the information not being available, and/or there is insufficient time to find the data. Figure 24.2 shows that the level of information at ‘timenow’ improves as time moves forward. For example, the level of information about resource loading next week would be very detailed, but information about resource loading six months from now would be a rough estimate, based upon prediction. This level of information is also used by the rolling-horizon Gantt chart.

As with the problem-solving process, the function of gathering information should try to obtain all relevant information, facts, figures and opinions, together with identifying possible causes of problems, and with establishing time constraints. A key input will be the suggestions and solutions from the problem-solving process discussed in Chapter 23 on *Problem Solving*. Other data required to inform the decision process is:

Consequences: In order to align with the outcomes identified in the objectives, a series of possible situations should be considered. This is equivalent to the development of a range of solution options presented in Chapter 23.

Consideration of possible consequences uses a similar approach to the **decision-tree technique** (see Figure 24.4). Here, a range of decision alternatives is identified and the first level

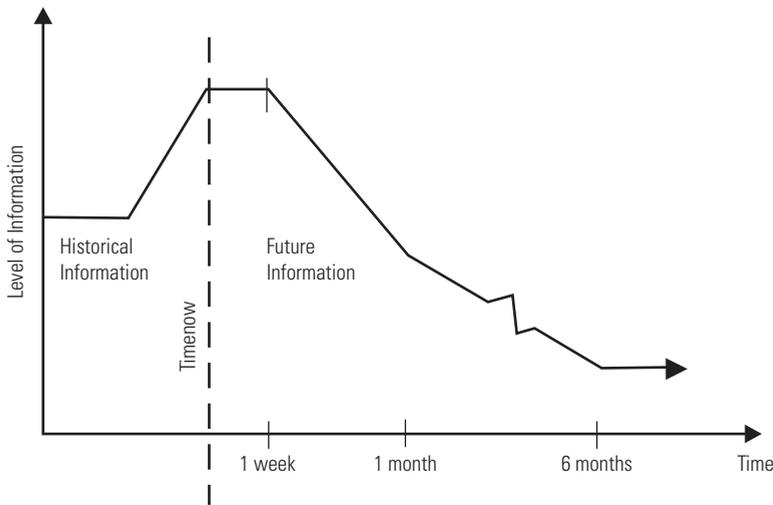


Figure 24.2: Level of Information Against Time – shows how the level of information about future and past events reduces as the distance from ‘timenow’ increases

consequences of each possible outcome are quantified. The technique then considers the next phase of ‘knock-on’ outcomes – i.e. potential further outcomes from these first level consequences and further decisions. The resulting second level consequences are then quantified. Consideration of the next phases of consequences goes on for as long as possible outcomes can be seen from the range of decisions. The most appropriate route through the sequence of decisions and possibilities is the one that gives the best quantified outcome.

Considering consequences using a decision-tree approach is one way to make our decision more objective. Using this technique can remove the need for personal opinion and other subjective methods because it points to the best alternative and allows us to design the way forward to create this preferred future state.

Stakeholders: A project decision might be influenced by a range of stakeholders, internal and external to the project team. Consider the following:

- The competition might have released a new version of a competing product – you need to respond.
- The supplier might have released a new version of its product – you need to respond.
- The market fashion trends might have moved into a new area – you need to respond.

It is natural to give more weight to information that confirms our assumptions and prejudices, while dismissing information that contradicts them. It can often be more efficient to maintain the status quo, which encourages us to justify and continue with current conditions. Also, we can be influenced by the first information we receive on a particular subject, which distorts how we process all subsequent data.

2. Decision-Making Continuum

The decision-making continuum is a model used to help determine who should be involved in the decision-making process. It was developed by Tannenbaum, who updated the model in the early 1970s. The continuum offers a six-stage decision-making model that ranges from autocratic to democratic modes (see Figure 24.3).

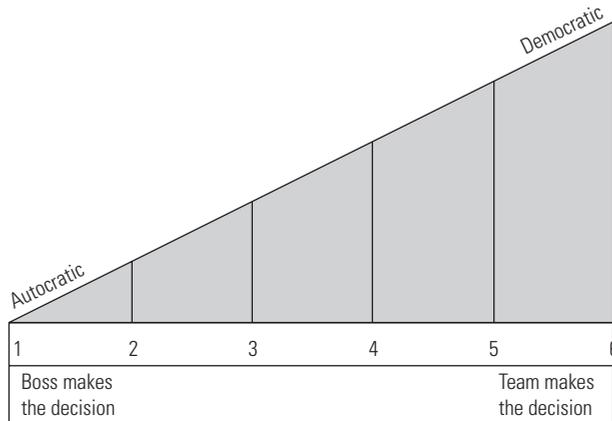


Figure 24.3: Decision-Making Continuum

The six stages from autocratic to democratic leadership are:

1. Autocratic (isolated decision)

The project manager solves the problem and makes the decision on his/her own, using information available at the time. There is no communication with the team members.

2. Autocratic (informed decision)

The project manager obtains the necessary information from the team members, then makes the decision on his/her own.

3. Consultative Autocratic (discuss with individuals)

The project manager shares the problem with the team members individually, gathering their ideas and suggestions, then makes the decision on his/her own.

4. Consultative Democratic (discuss with team)

The project manager shares the problem with the team members as a team, then makes the decision on his/her own.

5. Consultative Democratic

The project manager shares the problem with the team members as a team then, together with the team, makes the decision – a majority vote.

6. Empowerment

The project manager gives the problem to the team members and empowers them to make the decision themselves. As project teams develop they become more self-directed.

The ability of the project manager and the project team to make effective decisions is fundamental to the project's success. It is, therefore, essential that the project manager and the project team decide how they will make decisions.

At the autocratic end of the continuum, even though the project manager may make the decision on his/her own, how the project manager sells the decision to the team will influence how it is received. There is a big difference between telling a team member what to do and using a persuasive argument to communicate the instruction (see Chapter 7 on *Power to Influence*).

The following questions can be used as a guide to selecting the appropriate decision-making process.

- Is one decision likely to be better than another? If not, go for number 1 – let the project manager make the decision on his/her own.
- Does the project manager know enough to make the decision on his/her own? If not, avoid number 1.
- Is the problem clear and structured? If not, use numbers 4 or 5 to widen the input and capture the team members' knowledge and experience.
- Must the team members accept the decision? If not, then numbers 1 and 2 are possibilities. But, if the team members do have to accept the decision, then 4 or 5 would be better options for capturing their input and gaining their commitment.
- Will the team members accept the manager's decision? If not, then number 5 is preferable. A democratic process is the best way to capture all the inputs and discuss any differences as a means of gaining full team support and commitment to the decision.
- Do the team members share the project manager's vision, strategy and goals for the project and organization? If not, then number 5 is risky. As a self-directed team it might deviate away from the project manager's vision, strategy and goals for the project.
- Are team members likely to conflict with each other? If yes, then number 4 is better than 5. If interpersonal conflict is possible, then the project manager should encourage the team members to air their views and opinions and discuss their differences. This way they can converge on a decision that is acceptable to all parties (see 'storming' and 'norming' in Chapter 15 on *Team Development Phases*.)

Autocratic: Being autocratic means that project managers essentially make decisions by themselves using their own information and judgment. The project manager might talk and discuss things with the team members and share jokes and have a sense of humor but, when it comes down to ‘calling the shots’, the project manager decides.

The autocratic project management style is more appropriate for simple, fairly routine tasks where feedback from the team members is not important. An autocratic approach is effective when there is a need to make quick decisions, and not to be concerned about consulting and gaining consensus with the team.

On the negative side, an autocratic approach might lead to demoralizing the team members, since they contribute no meaningful input into the decision-making process. Creative and intelligent team members might become frustrated when their input is not considered. This approach could actually encourage them to leave the project team. Autocratic decision making can lead to poor decisions since the project manager might base decisions on insufficient outside information, and the team is not necessarily committed to the decision either.

Democratic: Democratic project managers actively seek input from team members before making a decision. This can lead to better decisions as the decisions will be based on a broad range of views and opinions. This approach also increases team members’ commitment to implement the decision, because they have had an input into making the decision.

The project manager might use a selection of these decision-making styles on a project as the situation dictates. The concept for shared leadership is fundamental for project leadership and team building because it requires participation and involvement of all the team members. The project manager must delegate some authority and empower the team and, in so doing, the project manager becomes more of a team member and the team members assume more of a leadership role as they become a self-directed team. This encourages the team to participate in problem solving and decision making and accept the responsibility for achieving the project’s goals. This will not only enhance the team’s commitment, but will also give it a strong feeling of ownership of the decision.

3. Quality Function Deployment (QFD)

Quality Function Deployment, or QFD, is a process whereby some measures of success are established that will test the solution. Success measures are listed and prioritized and a numerical weighting is allocated to each of them. A high priority allocates a high weighting and vice versa.

The project manager and the team can then assess their options to determine how well each of them satisfies the success measures. Again they allocate a numerical weighting that indicates how well an option satisfies a success measure. They need to clearly differentiate high from low satisfaction, so their allocated weighting for high satisfaction should be much higher than their allocation for low satisfaction. Suggested weightings are: high = 9, medium = 4, low = 1. This provides a way of lifting the good solutions away from the poor ones as the weightings are used to identify the better solutions.

The weightings are used as follows: for each option, multiply the priority weighting of the success measure by the weighting that indicates how well that option satisfies that measure. Then add all these calculations together for each option to find out how well the option satisfies the overall requirement. The higher the calculated number, the better the option. This provides a reasonably objective way to assess a series of options.

On inspection, if the team members disagree with the calculated outcome, then they have probably chosen their weightings incorrectly or have not prioritized their measures correctly. Alternatively, if they are clear that the numbers are chosen properly, then perhaps intuition is at fault.

As an example, suppose we want to buy a new computer and we have a specific requirement and a number of brands and models available to us. If none of the models meet our exact requirements, which is the best one to choose?

Example: Quality Function Deployment (QFD)

The requirements and options can be tabulated as follows:

Options:			Wiz 200X	Gonzo 4200	Flashy 99.1	
	Priority	Weighting				
Requirements:						
Processor speed > 2G	1	10	9	9	4	Weightings for options: 9 is fully compliant 7 is over compliant (e.g. Gonzo 4200 has 500G disk) 4 is nearly compliant (e.g. Wiz 200X has 250G disk) 1 is not compliant (e.g. Gonzo has CD writer)
Memory > 1G	2	8	9	9	4	
Hard disk size > 300G	3	5	4	7	9	
DVD rewriter	4	2	4	1	9	
20" monitor	5	1	4	9	9	
Totals:			194	208	144	

Calculations:

$$\begin{array}{lcl}
 \text{Wiz 200X:} & 9 \times 10 + 9 \times 8 + 4 \times 5 + 4 \times 2 + 4 \times 1 & = 194 \\
 \text{Gonzo 4200:} & 9 \times 10 + 9 \times 8 + 7 \times 5 + 1 \times 2 + 9 \times 1 & = 208 \\
 \text{Flashy 99.1} & 4 \times 10 + 4 \times 8 + 9 \times 5 + 9 \times 2 + 9 \times 1 & = 144
 \end{array}$$

Multiply the weighting for the option by the corresponding weighting for the requirement; for example, processor speed weighting (10) times compliant Wiz 200X (9) gives a score of 90. The total of these calculations gives a score for each option.

The Gonzo 4200 has the highest score which indicates, for the chosen priorities and weightings, that this is the best option. However, the Wiz 200X is not far behind and this option could be investigated more closely, especially if cost is an issue. The Flashy 99.1 does not represent a good fit and so can be disregarded at this stage.

4. Decision Tree Analysis

When there is a decision to be made, depending upon the choice, there can be a number of possible consequences or different outcomes. Each of these possible outcomes then leads to a set of subsequent decision points. This creates a tree-like structure that illustrates a series of linked decision points and consequences to determine which is the most appropriate course of action. As we move through each set of decisions, options and consequences, we can assess how the next layer of options best fits our requirements and apply a weighting, in this case expressed as a percentage value.

CASE STUDY

Consider a pipeline welding job 'A' on an oil platform, where the maintenance project manager's execution strategy decision is to choose between using in-house resources or contracting out the work. The example (Figure 24.4) shows that completing the work

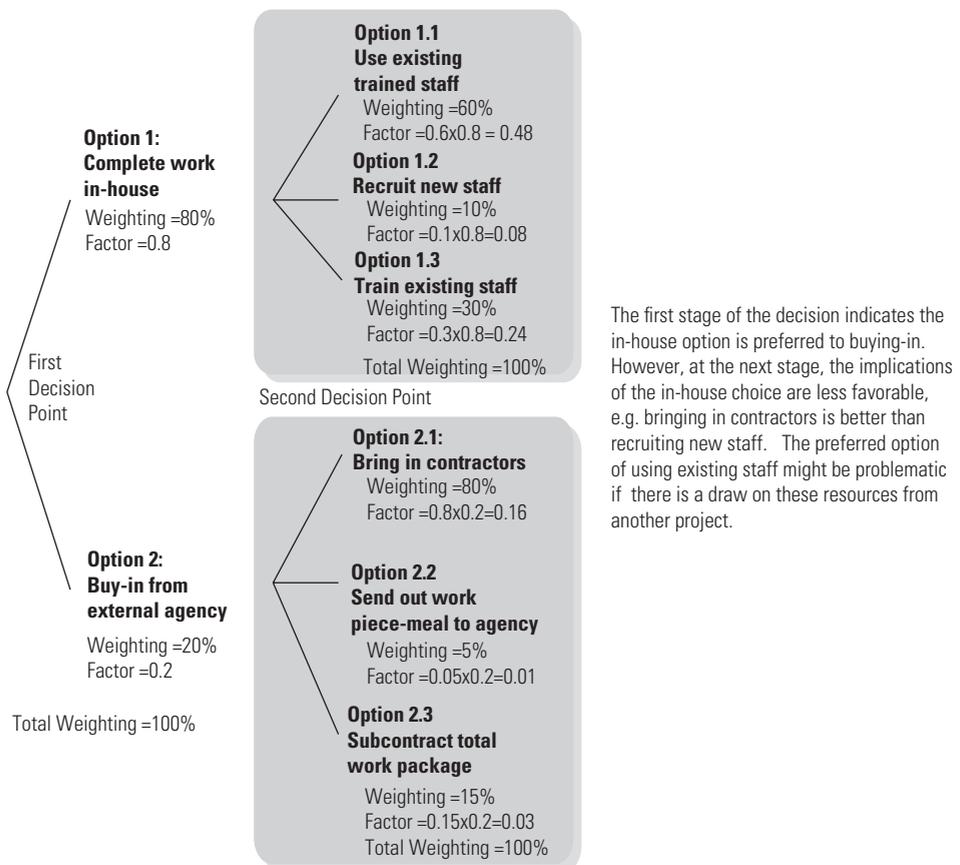


Figure 24.4: Decision Tree Diagram – an example of a simple decision tree used to show how thinking through multiple layers of decisions can reveal a better outcome

in-house is (80%) preferable compared to contracting the work out, which has a weighting of 20% (these percentages must add up to 100%). The allocation of the weightings might be determined by the profit level or cash value the company could earn from each of these options. In this case the company would earn more by doing the work in-house.

However, the project manager might also think about the logistics of each option and any associated risks. This will take the project manager to the next layer (second decision) of possible options and another set of decisions. For the in-house solution, the availability of skilled resources would need to be considered. Possible options at this stage are: using existing staff who are skilled in this work (60%); recruiting skilled workers (10%); or training existing staff (30%). Each of these has a different cost, timescale implications and might affect work being undertaken on other projects due to moving resources.

The project manager could assess the cost/risk/timescale issues for each of these options and then calculate the overall 'value' of the sequence of decisions. For example, the overall value of this option (1.1) is the value of the in-house option multiplied by the existing skilled workers option – i.e. $80\% \times 60\%$, or 48% overall, giving a factor of 0.48, as shown in Figure 24.4.

The calculations can be completed for each of the options and the project manager can determine which has the highest value. In this example, the existing skilled workers seem to provide the best option. However, he might not have fully considered their availability, and another higher priority project might have precedence for this resource. The project manager can then look at the second best option, which is to train some existing staff.

Decision Tree Analysis, therefore, can provide an effective means of decision making that considers multiple options and consequences.



Photo Courtesy of BP © Press Images: Thunder Horse Oil Platform (image highlights the location of a typical pipeline welding job)

5. Decision-Making Pitfalls

As we go through the decision-making process, there are some potential mistakes we could make that could compromise the decision outcomes:

- The decision criteria are set too generally; the goals and expectations are not sufficiently clear or specific, or are too open-ended.
- The decision criteria are ambivalent; the expectations contain internal confusion and/or conflicts.
- Too much is wanted at one time or the expectations are too complicated. You might need to simplify the stages or make smaller decisions like stepping stones to reach the ultimate goal.
- The options are too similar; perhaps all the ideas are versions of the same idea.
- There are not enough options generated. Not enough alternatives are available to make choosing seem worthwhile.
- There are too many alternatives, which means that there is no real winner. You could arrange your options into groups or combine some options together to reduce their number.
- Connections between the decision criteria and the options are not clear. You might be on the wrong track.
- Ideas are considered as requirements, or demands are treated like possibilities. Be clear about what is actually required and do not get hijacked by good ideas for their own sake.

A decision should be seen as a commitment of resources, but often it is a case of what is available at the time. Therefore, a decision is not complete until the necessary resources are applied. A delay in making resources available or scaling down the resource might change the ability to implement the decision.

6. Communicate the Decision

The final step in the decision-making process is to make a decision and communicate it. The implementation of the instructions has all the elements of a project and should be planned, monitored and controlled as a project. As project manager, you need feedback on the performance of the decision because, if the problem is not being resolved, further corrective action might be required.

EXERCISES:

1. Explain how you identify objectives as part of your decision-making process.
2. Give examples of how you identify and assess data to inform your decision process.
3. Discuss how and under what circumstances you would use each aspect of the decision-making continuum on your projects.
4. Show how you would use the Quality Function Deployment (QFD) method to help quantify the selection of a component for your project.
5. Show how you would use the Decision Tree Analysis method to help select an option for your project. Justify why this is the best choice.

Key Points:

1. Decision making is a process to help select one from a range of options that will generate an outcome that is agreeable to all parties.
2. The decision-making continuum identifies six different ways to involve others in the decision-making process.
3. Quality Function Deployment (QFD) is a numerical method to test which solution best satisfies decision objectives.
4. Decision Tree Analysis provides a method to consider a route through a sequence of decisions, options and consequences.

Reference:

Tannenbaum, R. and Schmidt, W. (1973) 'How to Choose a Leadership Pattern', *Harvard Business Review*, May/June.

Lost At Sea

Learning Outcomes

After reading this appendix you should be able to:

- Understand the benefit of team decisions.

Your yacht is sinking after hitting a whale in the middle of the Pacific Ocean. You only have time to salvage fifteen items of gear. Your task is to rank these items according to their importance to your survival, starting with 1 (the most important) to 15 (the least important). You may assume the number of survivors is the same as the number in your team. Before the yacht sank you were able to send a Mayday message but you were not sure of your position.

Exercise 1: Using the survival gear list in Table A.1, determine your personal ranking.

Exercise 2: Determine the team's ranking.

This is an exercise in team decision making. Your team is to employ the team consensus method in reaching its decision. This means that the prediction for each of the fifteen survival items must be agreed upon by each team member before it becomes a part of the team decision. Consensus is difficult to reach, therefore, not every ranking will meet with everyone's complete approval. As a team, try to make each ranking one with which all team members can at least agree. Here are some guidelines to use to reach consensus:

- Avoid arguing for your individual judgments. Approach the task on the basis of logic.
- Avoid changing your mind if it is only to reach agreement and avoid conflict. Support only solutions with which you are able to agree at least somewhat.

Table A.1: Survival Gear Ranking Chart for Exercises 1 and 2

	Your Rank- ing 1–15	Your Error Score	Experts’ Rank- ings 1–15	Team Rank- ings 1–15	Team Error Score
	A	(A–B)	B	C	(B–C)
Sextant					
Shaving mirror					
20 litre can of water					
Mosquito netting					
One case of army rations					
Charts of the Pacific Ocean					
Lifebelt					
10 litres of fuel					
Small transistor radio					
Shark repellent					
2 m of opaque plastic					
2 litres of 160 proof Puerto Rican rum					
5 m of nylon rope					
Two boxes of chocolate bars					
Fishing kit					
Total					

Copyright unknown.

Error points are the absolute difference between your ranking and the experts’ ranking (disregard plus or minus signs).

- Avoid 'conflict-reducing' techniques such as majority vote, averaging or trading to reach your decision.
- View differences of opinion as a help rather than a hindrance in decision making.

Lost at sea experts' opinion

According to the experts the basic supplies needed when a person is stranded in mid ocean are articles to attract attention and articles to aid survival until rescuers arrive. Articles for navigation are of little importance. Even if a small liferaft were capable of reaching land, it would be impossible to store enough food and water to subsist during that period of time. Therefore, of primary importance are the shaving mirror and 10 litres of fuel. These items could be used for signaling air-sea rescue. Of secondary importance are items such as water and food.

A brief rationale is provided for the ranking of each item. These brief explanations obviously do not represent all the potential uses for the specified items but, rather, the primary importance of each.

Shaving mirror: Critical for signaling air-sea rescue.

10 litres of fuel: Critical for signaling – the fuel will float on the water and could be ignited with a dollar bill and a match (obviously, outside the liferaft).

20 litres of water: Necessary to replenish loss by perspiring etc.

Army rations: Provide basic food intake.

2m of opaque plastic: Utilized to collect rain water and provide shelter from the elements.

Two boxes of chocolate bars: A reserve food supply.

Fishing kit: Ranked lower than the chocolate bars because 'one bird in the hand is worth two in the bush'. There is no assurance that you will catch any fish.

5m of nylon rope: May be used to lash equipment together to prevent it from falling overboard.

Lifebelt: If someone fell overboard, it could function as a life preserver.

Shark repellent: To repel sharks.

2 litres of 160 proof Puerto Rican rum: Contains 80% alcohol – enough to use as a potential antiseptic for any injuries incurred; little use otherwise; will cause dehydration if ingested.

Small transistor radio: Of little value since there is no transmitter (unfortunately, you are out of range of your favorite radio stations).

Maps of the Pacific Ocean: Worthless without additional navigational equipment – it does not really matter where you are but where the rescuers are.

Mosquito netting: There are no mosquitoes in the middle of the Pacific Ocean.

Sextant: Without tables and chronometer, relatively useless.

The basic rationale for ranking signaling devices above life-sustaining items (food and water) is that without signaling devices there is almost no chance of being spotted and rescued. Furthermore, most rescues occur during the first 36 hours, and one can survive without food and water during this period.

Glossary

Ability: (see Competency)

Accountable: The state of being answerable for the satisfactory completion of a specific task to the person(s) who assigned to you the responsibility.

Accountable: (Wikipedia) A concept in ethics with several meanings. It is often used synonymously with such concepts as answerability, responsibility, blameworthiness, liability and other terms associated with the expectations of account-giving.

Action-Centered Leadership: A leadership style developed by John Adair which focuses on the task, the team and the individual.

Antagonism: Where the team's output is less than the sum of the individual inputs (opposite to synergy).

APM: Association of Project Managers (UK)

Audit: An investigation to compare actual performance with planned or declared performance.

Authority: (PMBOK) The right to apply project resources, make decisions and sign approvals.

Autocratic: Project managers make decisions on their own without an input from the project team members.

Baseline Plan: The sum of all the individual plans which outlines how the project will be implemented. The baseline plan would typically include: the contract, scope of work, time schedule, procurement plan, resource plan, budget, cashflow, communication plan and risk management plan.

Body Of Knowledge: The body of knowledge of a profession identifies and describes the generally accepted practices for which there is widespread consensus of the value and usefulness, and also establishes a common set of terms and expressions used within the profession.

Brainstorming: A group method for generating a flood of creative and novel ideas and solutions.

Build Method: Outlines the step-by-step construction of the project.

Client: The customer (employer) who initiates the project, accepts the project, and pays for the project.

Closeout Report: The closeout report progressively signs off the completed work and identifies the experiences – what went right, what went wrong, and recommendations for future projects.

- Coaching:** A process which enables team members to achieve their full potential.
- Cohesion:** An individual's sense of belonging to a team, how they are attracted to each other and how motivated they are to be part of the team.
- Collaboration:** The process of two or more parties working together to achieve common objectives.
- Commitment:** A willingness and drive to complete the task's objectives.
- Communication:** (APM BoK) The giving, receiving, processing and interpretation of information. Information can be conveyed verbally, non-verbally, actively, passively, formally, informally, consciously and unconsciously.
- Competency:** (PMBOK) The skill and capacity required to complete the project activities.
- Competent:** (GAPPS) Generally used to describe someone who is sufficiently skilled to perform a specified task or to fill a defined position.
- Competent:** Demonstrating an ability to do something at a standard that is considered acceptable in the workplace.
- Configuration Management:** (APM BoK) The technical and administrative activities concerned with the creation, maintenance and controlled change of the configuration throughout the project lifecycle.
- Conflict Management:** (APM BoK) The process of identifying and addressing differences that if unmanaged would affect project objectives. Effective conflict management prevents differences becoming destructive elements in a project.
- Control Freak:** A person who wants to make all the decisions, does not delegate any responsibility and micro-manages people's work.
- Decision Making:** A process to gain commitment and support from the team and stakeholders for the selection of one course of action.
- Delegation:** To assign responsibility and authority to subordinates to carry out a scope of work, to empower them to take control over their assigned scope of work.
- Democratic:** A democratic project manager actively seeks input from the project team before making a decision.
- Ego:** A person's ego drives them to feel wanted and important.
- Emotional Intelligence (EI):** The development of social skills, intelligence regarding the emotions, especially in the ability to monitor one's own or others' emotions.
- Empowerment:** Giving the project team members the power to plan and control their own scope of work and their work environment.
- Entrepreneur:** A person who is able to spot opportunities, coordinate resources and make it happen.
- Ethics:** (APM BoK) Relating to proper conduct. Ethics covers the conduct and moral principles recognized as appropriate within the project management profession.
- Gantt Chart:** A scheduling bar chart originally produced by Henry Gantt.
- Groups:** In project management a group of people implies a collection of individuals who, although they might be working on the same project, do not necessarily interact and communicate with each other. They all work independently through the project manager.

Health and Safety: (APM BoK) Process of determining and applying appropriate standards and methods to minimize the likelihood of accidents, injuries or environmental impact during the project.

Human Resource Management: (APM BoK) The understanding and application of the policy and procedures that directly affect the people working within the project team and working group. Those policies include recruitment, retention, reward, personal development, training and career development.

Human Resource Management: (PMBOK) The process required to make the most effective use of the people involved with the project. It consists of organization planning, staff acquisition and team development.

Influence: The effect a person has on another person.

Integrity: Implies someone who is honest, sincere and adheres to a code of ethics.

Job Description: Outlines duties, responsibility and authority.

Job Description: (PMBOK) An explanation of a team member's roles and responsibilities.

Knowledge: Includes information gained and lessons learned from other projects.

Leadership: (APM BoK) The ability to establish vision and direction, to influence and align others towards a common purpose and to empower and inspire people to achieve project success. It enables the project to proceed in an environment of change and uncertainty.

Leadership: (PMBOK) Developing a vision and strategy, and motivating people to achieve that vision and strategy.

Lines of Communication: The formal and informal links between two or more people, departments, companies, suppliers, contractors or stakeholders.

Matrix OBS: The matrix structure enables the project manager to coordinate the project work as it passes through a number of functional departments.

Mentor: An experienced person who can guide the project manager through the planning and control process.

Motivation: An inner force which inspires us to achieve our objectives.

Negotiation: (APM BoK) A search for agreement, seeking acceptance, consensus and alignment of views. Negotiation in a project can take place on an informal basis throughout the project life-cycle or on a formal basis such as during procurement, and between signatories to a contract.

Networking: The active development and maintenance of a list of useful contacts who can help you achieve your objectives.

OBS: Organization breakdown structure

Organization Roles: (APM BoK) The roles performed by individuals or groups in a project. Both roles and responsibilities within projects must be defined to address the transient and unique nature of projects and to ensure that clear accountabilities can be assigned.

Organization Structure: (APM BoK) The organizational environment within which the project takes place. The organization structure defines the reporting and decision-making hierarchy of an organization and how project management operates within it.

PMBOK: Project Management Body of Knowledge (USA)

PMI: Project Management Institute (USA)

Power: The ability to influence the decisions and actions of others to help you accomplish the project's scope of work.

Problem Solving: The process of generating a number of practical and technical solutions to solve a problem.

Project: (PMBOK) A temporary endeavor undertaken to create a unique product or service (outcome or result). Temporary means that every project has a definite end. Unique means that the product or service is different in some distinguishing way from all similar products or services.

Project Charter: A document which outlines the purpose of the project and how it will be managed.

Project Communication Management: (PMBOK) The process required to ensure proper collection and dissemination of project information. It consists of communication planning, information distribution, project meetings, progress reporting and administrative closure.

Project Lifecycle: Subdivision of the timeline into sequential phases, usually: concept, design, implementation and handover.

Project Management: The management of a project using project management principles and planning and control techniques.

Project Management: (PMBOK) The application of knowledge, skills, tools and techniques to project activities in order to meet stakeholders' needs and expectations from a project.

Project Management Office (PMO): Central office offering a range of support functions.

Project Manager: The person appointed to manage and lead the project and the project team. The project manager is held to be the 'single point of responsibility'.

Psychometric Test: Questionnaire and interview used to determine a team member's team role profile.

Quality Circles: A method of empowering production line staff to identify their own problems, solve their problems and implement their own solutions.

RACI: (responsible, accountable, consult, inform) (Wikipedia) Used to clarify the roles and responsibilities, especially on multi-disciplined projects.

RAM: (responsibility assignment matrix) (PMBOK) A structure that relates the project organization breakdown structure (OBS) to the work breakdown structure (WBS) to help ensure that each component of the project's scope of work is assigned to a responsible person.

Recruitment: Recruiting a team member is the process of determining the technical skills and personality of the person required. Followed by the active search and selection of the right person.

Reporting: Gathering and presenting project information, for example, a status report or a progress report.

Resistance to Change: The action taken by individuals and teams when they perceive that a change that is occurring is a threat.

Resource Management: (APM BoK) Identifying and assigning resources to activities so that the project is undertaken using appropriate levels of resources within an acceptable duration.

Resource allocation, smoothing, leveling and scheduling are techniques used to determine and manage appropriate levels of resources.

Resources: The machines and people who will perform the project work.

Responsibility: (PMBOK) The work that a project team member is expected to perform in order to complete the project's activities.

Risk Shift: Make decisions based on what other people do; happy to follow the crowd because you think they know best (safety in numbers).

Role – Organization Role: (PMBOK) The roles performed by individuals or groups in a project. Both roles and responsibilities within a project must be defined to address the transient and unique nature of projects and to ensure that clear accountabilities can be assigned.

Scope of Work: The work content of a project, usually subdivided into work packages by the work breakdown structure (WBS).

Self-Actualization: Our desire to reach the height of our personal ability and talents, and feel that sense of achievement.

Self-Directed Teams: The team members are empowered to plan and control their own scope of work.

Self-Esteem: Related to a person's ego needs, which drive the person to feel wanted and important within their own working team.

Single Point of Responsibility: Identifies the one person who is responsible and accountable for managing the project, namely the project manager.

Situational Leadership: Suggests that different leadership styles are better in different situations and with different people. Effective leaders must be flexible enough to adapt their style to suit the ability, experience and maturity of their followers.

Skills: (APM BoK) Skills are the knowledge and abilities that a person gains throughout life. The ability to learn a new skill varies with each individual. Some skills come almost naturally, while others come only by complete devotion to study and practice.

Stakeholder Management: (APM BoK) The systematic identification, analysis and planning of actions to communicate with, negotiate with, and influence stakeholders. Stakeholders are all those who have an interest or role in the project or are impacted by the project.

Stakeholders: Companies and people who have an impact on the project, or are impacted by the project being implemented. Their needs and expectations determine the scope of the project.

Strategy: The direction or baseline plan to achieve the project's vision.

Synergy: When the team's output is greater than the sum of the individual inputs.

Team: (Katzenbach and Smith) A small number of people with complementary skills who are committed to a common purpose, performance goals and approach, for which they hold themselves mutually accountable.

Team Building: Methods to enhance the team members' ability to work together more effectively.

Team Building: (PMBOK) Activities designed to improve interpersonal relationships and increase team cohesiveness. It is also important to encourage information communication and activities because of their role in building trust and establishing good working relationships.

Team Development Phases: Teams pass through a number of distinctive development phases: forming, storming, norming, performing.

Team Roles: In a team we all fulfill a team role which is our tendency to behave in a particular way, to contribute to the team's effectiveness through our inter-relationships with other team members.

Teamwork: (APM BoK) When people work collaboratively towards a common goal as distinct from other ways that individuals can work within a group.

Traits: (APM BoK) Distinguishing qualities or characteristics of a person; character is the sum total of these traits. The more traits you display as a leader, the more your followers will believe and trust in you.

Trust: Trust is about giving without collateral, it incorporates honesty, integrity, moral courage, justice, fairness, ethics and dependability.

Vision: The project's vision is a short, succinct, inspiring and unambiguous statement of what the project intends to achieve.

War Room: A central Project Management Office (PMO) where information and project plans are held, and the project team can meet to plan and control the project.

WBS: Work breakdown structure. Used to subdivide the project into manageable work packages.

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