Management for Professionals

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Managing People in Projects for High Performance

Behavioural Approach to Productive Project Teams

Springer

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My parents for their blessings, my husband for his constant support, and my child for the love.

—Upasna A. Agarwal

To my husband Shirish without whose dedicated support this book could not have been completed.

—Karuna Jain

To my wife Manga Anantatmula for unending support to my research work.

—Vittal Anantatmula

To my wife Gita without whose dedicated support this book could not have been completed.

—Shankar Sankaran

Preface

Evidence-based research in project management has shown that soft or people management skills contribute significantly to a successful project and project success. However, most project management books treat people as a part of the overall project management knowledge, paying insufficient attention to people management skills. Given that project organizations are made up of people and teams drawn from outside and inside the parent organizations, we feel that people management skills require special attention to build cohesive high-performance teams. Projects also require skills and effort from multiple disciplines and at multiple levels to develop project deliverables. Therefore, this book is structured to cover people skills and competencies from a micro-, meso-, and macro-lens.

Project managers play an important role in executing the project, and they are likely to perform well if their personal characteristics meet the requirements of the roles in a project. Knowing oneself, becoming aware of one's values and personality as well as skills is a sure way of enhancing project performance. Therefore, at the *micro-level*, this book examines a range of personal project management competencies needed for managing oneself and others such as personality style, cognitive skills, and emotional intelligence in a project environment. The micro-sections of the book will also include useful discussions on available tools for managing the emotions of self and others effectively. This part of the book is written by Profs. Upasna A. Agarwal and Karuna Jain.

Projects are executed in teams, as project tasks require expertise, skills, knowledge, judgement, and experience in multiple disciplines. At the *meso-level,* the book discusses basic team structure and managing a variety of teams used in projects such as virtual teams, project teams, and domain-specific teams. These skills will help to enhance productivity and manage the accountability of a project. The book also discusses processes, techniques, and tools to manage and enhance the performance of project teams; *team process* which include structure, culture, supporting systems, performance, and incentive systems that can impact team productivity. In addition, to the soft skills recommended by project management bodies of knowledge, we also plan to include the people management issues related to multigenerational teams (which are challenges that project managers face these days). This part of the book is written by Prof. Vittal Anantatmula.

Finally, at the *macro-level*, the book will cover organizational and cultural aspects of a project manager's work including the role of organizational cultures in a project context; alignment between project structure and culture; emerging leadership styles in projects, maintaining effective relationships with internal and external stakeholders; role of power, politics, and influence in relationship-building (social networks and social capital), and handing conflicts and negotiations. The book will also discuss ethical considerations in projects; relationship between projects and sustainability; societal responsibilities of projects; and building forms of control in projects (behaviour and outcome control).

This book is very useful for project management professionals and project managers in any organization and will also be a resource for academic institutions in teaching project management. The book is primarily positioned for practitioners. However, it is an equally important source for master's students studying project management (part-time or a full-degree course), as a textbook or a reference material. This part of the book is written by Prof. Shankar Sankaran.

Mumbai, India — Upasna A. Agarwal
Mumbai, India — Karuna Jain
Cullowhee, USA — Vittal Anantatmula
Sydney, Australia — Sankaran Shankar

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Praise for *Managing People in Projects for High Performance*

"*Managing People in Projects for High Performance* covers and integrates the wide variety of leadership and behavioral perspectives in and around projects. A comprehensive range of topics is addressed, from project manager personal characteristics via team and organizational leadership to that of projects, their leadership and ethics. Written by renown authors, the book provides a timely oversight of emerging new leadership perspectives, as well as existing theoretical frameworks. To that end, it is a highly recommended single source of information for all those looking for a broad, in-depth, and up-to-date overview of the contemporary understanding of leadership."

—Dr. Ralf Müller, *Professor of Project Management, BI Norwegian Business School*

"This book on *Managing People in Projects for High Performance* is not simply welcome, it is a needed contribution to the field of project management. Effective self-management is important on projects, where people so often feel insufficient support is provided by the firms delivering the projects. Teams need management, not only the relationships between the members, but for engagement with other teams, supply chains and clients. It is the other internal teams which introduces organizational management.

A refreshing feature is the hybrid between sole authorship and an edited collection. The authors have written different sections, hence bringing different knowledge and skill sets to this well-rounded consideration of people and soft skills in project management."

—Emeritus Professor Hedley Smyth, *The Bartlett School of Sustainable Construction, UCL, London*

"Building high-performing team, guiding and helping the team successfully complete the project at hand, is core of project business. I am excited to see this splendid scholarly work done by Upasana, Karuna, Vittal and Shankar, address this very issue. I am privy to their prowess and intellectual capability to address project management topics, through my association with them through our institute and PMI, but this work stands out. 'Managing self, teams and the business', is contextually more relevant to the current era where technology is largely taking care of process and tools part of project execution and the project leaders need to focus on the areas that machines currently cannot handle—the emotional connect, conflicts, ethical dilemmas and inspiration for superior performance. I recommend this compendium on project management soft skills for both academia and practitioners at large."

—V. T. Chandra Sekhar Rao, *Vice President and Dean-IPM, L&T Institute of Project Management*

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About the Authors

Upasna A. Agarwal is a Professor in Organization Behavior and Human Resource Management at National Institute of Industrial Engineering (NITIE), Mumbai, India. She obtained her Ph.D. from IIT Bombay. Upasna is identified as top 2% researchers of the world, in a research released by Standford and was recognized as "Emerging Psychologist of India" by National Academy of Psychology (NAOP). She has been chosen as one of the leading achievers from around the world and her name is included in Marquis Who's Who in the World® 2016–33rd Edition. In 2017, Upasna was awarded the AIMS International Young Woman Management Researcher Award by Association of Indian Management Scholars. Her areas of research interest are employment relationship (psychological contract, team and leader-member dynamics), effective work state (emotions, trust, fairness, bullying, well-being and happiness), work family integration, in-role and extra-role work behaviours (work engagement, innovativeness work behaviour), and sustainable consumer behaviour.

Karuna Jain is Professor of Technology and Operations Management at Shailesh J. Mehta School of Management, Indian Institute of Technology Bombay. She also served as the Director of National Institute of Industrial Engineering (NITIE), Mumbai. Professor Jain started her career as an Indian Engineering Service Cadre officer. With a Ph.D. in Industrial Engineering and Management from IIT Kharagpur, followed by Post Doctorate Fellow from University of Calgary, Canada, Prof. Jain embarked upon an academic career at IIT Bombay in 1986. With her interwoven technical and managerial expertise, she has served in numerous distinguished positions of academic, professional and government bodies in various capacities. She has made significant contributions to education, research and development of professionals in the field of project management. Most importantly, she is a founding member of the Academic Advisory Group (AAG) of the Project Management Institute (India), and served as its Chairperson from 2010 to 2017. In recognition of her inspired leadership of, sustained excellence in, and valuable contributions to the field of Project Management, PMI (India) conferred the "Distinguished Fellow" award on her. International Association of Management of Technology (IAMOT) Board has conferred upon her the "Distinguished Service Achievement" Award in 2019 for exemplary service in the area of MOT.

Her research interest areas are Project Leadership, Resource constraint Project scheduling, Project driven supply chain management and Project resilience, strategic management of technology, Patent analytics for technology related decisions and intellectual property management.

Dr. Vittal Anantatmula is a professor in the College of Business, Western Carolina University, USA, and is a recipient of the University Scholar and Graduate Teaching Awards. He is also Global Guest Professor at Keio University, Japan and a visiting professor at Skema Business School, France for directing Ph.D. students. He was chosen in Melbourne as Endeavor Executive Fellow and worked with the School of Property, Construction, and Project Management, RMIT, Melbourne in 2018. He is a member of the Academic Insight Team of the Project Management Institute (PMI) and served a director of the PMI Global Accreditation Centre in the past. He has extensive experience in academics and industry. Dr. Anantatmula has authored more than 80 publications. He received MS and Ph.D. degrees from The George Washington University and Electrical and Electronics Engineering from Andhra University, India.

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Part I
Managing Self

Module 1: Managing Self

1

Learning Objectives

- Building self-awareness
- Understanding and evaluating Big Five personality
- Understanding and evaluating Type A and B personality
- Understanding key project management skills.

Must Watch: https://www.ted.com/talks/susan_cain_the_power_of_introverts

Uma's Story
Uma was a stellar performer in her job of a project analyst and was recently promoted as project head. One of her tasks as a project manager was to lead meetings and manage performances. With a hybrid work structure, most team members connected on the phone from three or four different locations. These team meetings were anything but structured. Everyone had a point of view which they wanted to voice. Meetings were a cacophony and Uma found it very difficult to ask people to stop speaking. When she tried controlling, she was talked over, there were side conversations. She felt out of control, and it was exhausting to keep the team focused on the task. At the end of the day, not much was achieved. Radha felt helpless and met some friends over the weekend and get their thoughts of managing better her performance. She was recommended to read *How to Make Friends and Influence People* or attend a Dale Carnegie workshop and watch Amy Cuddy's TED. Uma's did all she was recommended but in vain and was still uncomfortable as her team performance showed no improvement. During her appraisal, she confided in top leadership that she was finding it extremely difficult to keep pace with expectations and she would like to consider a profile change.

In your view, what was the issue?

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1.1 Introduction

Project managers are accountable for achieving task goals despite the constraints associated with projects including time, scope, cost, quality, resources, and risk. To meet these demands, project managers must be able to effectively apply and integrate the processes. However, to be able to do effectively accomplish tasks and enhance performance, a person needs to primarily like the job and feel confident to be able to perform. One's personality can play a significant role in task performance. Personality could be understood as an individual's unique 'operating system', giving them an idea of what comes naturally to them and what is that they would need to invest their time into. Among many things, congruence between one's personality and task demands have been found to make a different to performance.

1.2 Personality and Performance

Personalities are characterized in terms of **traits**, which are relatively enduring characteristics that influence our behaviour across many situations.

An obvious question is—how can personality impact human productivity and performance of a project manager?
There is an old maxim— *When love and skill combine, expect a masterpiece.* When we perform activities that come naturally to us, we experience a state of comfort and flow. On the other hand, when we push ourselves to do jobs that we are not naturally inclined to, e experience fatigue and exhaustion.

Knowledge of one's personality can explain to a large extent occupation as well as roles and responsibilities in which they will thrive and be productive. It is also indicative of situations that an individual would need to put in additional mindful efforts into. While a congruence between personality characteristics and job characteristics enhances satisfaction and engagement, lack of it can result into stress and burnout.

The situation Uma was in, reflects the case. Misalignment between roles expectations and personality traits drains energy.

According to personality–job fit theory, person's personality traits will signal the adaptability with a job.

1.3 Big Five: Personality Factors

Although there are many frameworks to understand personality, the most widely accepted model of personality is the 'Big Five', which examines personalities into five types: open, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism. Big Five is also called the openness to experience (O), conscientiousness (C), extraversion (E), agreeableness (A), and emotional stability (N). OCEAN

profile. In the following paragraphs, we discuss the OCEAN dimensions and its characteristics.

Extraversion

Let me begin by asking you a few questions: How do you prefer spending time—with self or others? When with people, do you prefer spending time knowing them or do you prefer spending with yourself? Are you happy seeing a lot of people or do you shy away?

The extraversion dimension captures the extent to which we are comfortable with people. Extraverts draw their energy from people around them. They are social and gregarious, unlike *introverts* who are quiet, reserved, and shy. Individuals who demonstrate a mix of extrovert and introvert features are called *ambivert*.

How does personality impact productivity.

Imagine the impact if an introvert were a part of a project that demands frequent interaction? What would an extrovert experience if (s)he was put into a job which needs no or least interpersonal interaction?

In positions that require the manager to be outgoing and connect and engage subordinates, someone who is an extrovert and is comfortable in connecting with people will thrive. In fact, extroverts are considered as a leadership profile, one needs to be comfortable in engagement with others.

However, research by Corrinne Bendersky of University of California, Los Angeles, and Neha Parikh Shah of Rutgers University provides a surprising finding suggesting that in contrast to expectation, extrovert managers become less appreciated of group members contributions and tend to accrue all achievements to themselves. This may not be a desirable trait of a project managers.

Thus, with experience working together, however, both types of people, extroverts and introverts, may be important and valued contributors to their teams and thus teams initially overvalue extraverts, but they often end up disappointed and the status of extraverts tends to fall over time.

Agreeableness. Agreeable people keep team harmony, are trusting and cooperative. They are flexible and easy to get along. On the other hand, those who are low on agreeableness come across as fault-finding, critical, risk-averse, argumentative and can be seen as unkind.

When managing teams of large diverse people, which kind of personality will do well? If there were safety decisions to be taken with regard to manufacturing on anti-ballistic missiles, which of the two personalities would make effective decision?

Who is more effective as a project team Manager?

Well, managers who are more agreeable may find it difficult to make independent unpopular decisions and play to the gallery. On the other hand, those who have high degree of disagreeableness may be nit-picking every issue. The way forward

is balance. To those who are too agreeable, effort would need to be made to identify gaps and possible loopholes in the project. If someone is disagreeable, balance criticism with empathy.

- *Conscientiousness.* Highly conscientiousness people are very organized and undertake their tasks diligently. They come across as perfectionist and will know all 'I' to dot and 'T' to cross. They manage their energy well and have a high say-do ratio. When given a task, they will execute to the best of their abilities. Individuals low on conscientiousness are spontaneous, easy-going and come across as unreliable.

  Who is more effective as a project team Manager?

  One of the projects is time and mission critical and needs you to do regular planning and follow-up. The second project is not time critical and but needs out of the box thinking.

- *Openness to experience.* Attentiveness, imaginative, and sensitivity to stimulus characterize people who are open to experience. They are willing to let go their comfort and embrace uncertainty. They undertake risks, are curious, and thrive in unfamiliar situations. One the other hand, people with low levels of openness to experience are conventional, conservative, risk-averse, and find comfort in the familiar situations.
- *Emotional stability.* People high on emotional stability remain balanced and withstand stress. Those with low emotional stability experience high negative emotions, are anxious, and are insecure. They often remain tense, anxious, nervous. They are referred to as Type A personality and have usually been seen to be very goal-oriented and practical in their solutions. On the other hand, people high on emotional stability feel poised, confident under pressure. Studies suggest those high on neuroticism do well in high pressure, quick goal professions such as bankers, defence forces, revenue collectors, security personnel, among others.

In terms of the effectiveness, no single trait is effective. It depends on the context and the ability to get the job done. In certain situations (emergency), neuroticism may be an effective personality. Further, life stages, experiences, education, among others, can also bring changes in personality. In fact, working with someone for a long period or working in a type of organization can impact our personality.

What is your Big Five Profile?[1]

Key Skills for Project Managers

Control Orientation-Locus of Control

[1] Self-assessment: https://openpsychometrics.org/tests/AB.php.

Once upon a time, a shoe company sent two salesmen to western interiors of India to determine the market potential for their products. Both the salesmen completed a market scan and called back to the office. One of the salesmen reported: 'No one here wears any shoes, there is no market for us here!'. The other salesman sent a message 'No one here wears any shoes, there is a huge market for us, send inventory fast!'.

Same situation, nut diametrically opposite responses—how do we explain this? This is popularly referred to as 'a matter of attitude'. How we react to a situation has not only to do with the situation itself, but also with how we recognize, think, and feel about the situation. Individuals can be identified to have two approaches to situations: Individuals who believe that they control their fate and have the power to change the course of life are referred to as those with *master of destiny* attitude or internals and those who believe that their life is controlled by factors beyond their control are called externals or those with *victims of fate* attitude. People who have external LOC believe that everything happening in their life can be attributed to situations outside their control and they are pawns or even as victims of situations. On the other hand, people with internal LOC believe they write their own scripts, that their own actions determine their success or failure. They think long term, manage adversity, and show initiative.

Rotter (1966), who invented the term locus of control found that those with an internal locus of control, have high need for achievement demonstrate grit and have higher adversity quotient.

Studies on locus of control of project manager by Loosemore and Lam (2004) show that those who have a predisposition to behave in a certain way towards projects can go a long way in impacting success or failure. Projects experience unexpected challenges. A project manager with strong external LOC could seriously impede the execution of a project or could get in the way during team management activities. On the other hand, a PM with high internal LOC will manage the same adversity with grit and perseverance.

Can locus of control be enhanced? Studies suggest that regular reflections and micro-habits can improve one's attitude.

Who are you? Master of Destiny or Victim of Fate Profile?[2]

Key Skills for Project Management

Tolerance to Ambiguity

Ambiguity and uncertainty are an intrinsic part of any project and any performance measure such as time, budget, scope, and quality may undergo a change impacting

[2] **Self Assessment**: https://my-personality-test.com/locus-of-control?gclid=CjwKCAjwieuGBhAsEiwA1Ly_nSBhH9gEyRZ5Re6ku8rTMaeG98CWgSIbmdXt9rtlZc9EZnDFXjbX4BoCt64QAvD_BwE.

on the project outcomes and objectives. Project manager not only needs to be comfortable with changing the unexpected but also quick in making decisions and accept uncertainty.

A project manager has to take charge of the situation and step-in to address the issues as is the need of the hour, sometimes. In times, (s)he needs to be a troubleshooter, expeditor, consolidator, orchestrator, networker, ambassador, entrepreneur, and knowledge giver. In a study by Hogan and Park on 123 team leaders in the six-sigma context, it was found that ambiguity acceptance was very critical to obtain success in complex projects.

Ambiguity acceptance or ambiguity tolerance is considered a key skill of any project manager. It refers to '*the tendency to perceive ambiguous situations as desirable*' (Budner, 1962, p. 29) and 'an individual's willingness to accommodate or adapt to encounters with ambiguous situations or ideas' (p. 338). Individuals with higher ambiguity acceptance are risk taking and have high ability to work on complex tasks.

What is your comfort with ambiguity and Uncertainty?[3]

Can ambiguity and uncertainty tolerance be increased?
Studies suggest that individuals with high adaptivity and inculcating a growth mindset, one's tolerance to ambiguity can be changed. Adaptability is considered as a meta-skill—learning how to learn and being conscious of when to put that learner's mind into action. Adaptability can be nurtured by taking small steps to do things differently

1.4 Risk Taking Potential

As discussed, project managers have to be comfortable with thriving in ambiguity and making decisions. Every decision taken by a project manager will have a consequence. A project manager needs to have high ability to take risks and should be willingness to take risk, is defined as an individual's '*current tendency towards taking or avoiding risks*' (Sitkin & Pablo, 1992, p. 124). It can be expressed as the decision-makers' risk seeking or risk aversion attitudes.

While taking risks finally depends on the context, individuals differ in their propensity and some are high risk takers, while some others are averse. In a study done by Wang et al. 2016, the personality of project managers influences their risk propensity. Extraverts, look out for stimulating, new, varied, and complex situations and are comfortable in taking social risks. On the other hand, introverts avoid taking risks. Similarly, conscientious people are self-control and discipline and tend to work in structured well-regulated environment. Thus, they are less willing to take risks (Hogan & Ones, 1997). Agreeable people always put people

[3] Self Assessment: Check your scores: http://faculty.wwu.edu/dunnc3/rprnts.toleranceofambiguityscale.pdf.

and systems expectations before their own needs and are discouraged in engage in risk taking. Thus, high on agreeableness will be discouraged to engage in risk taking. Further, aptitude to undertake risk varies as a function of contexts (Keil et al., 2000; MacCrimmon & Wehrung, 1990; Weber et al., 2002).

What is your risk appetite?[4]

Can risk propensity be increased?

Risk appetite can be increased. For instance, a recent McKinsey article 'Have you made it safe to Fail', suggested that a culture of 'celebrating mistakes' can motivate us to take mindful risks.

1.5 Managing Stress and Time

A project, by definition, has an official end date. Despite planning well, a project manager often faces unforeseen roadblocks such as issues inadequate resources allocation to the project, unrealistic deadlines, unclear goals, lack of team members' motivation, insufficient planning, ineffective communication or goal shift or resource availability. Project manager (PM) job is considered to be one of the most stressful jobs. According to a 2012 study by Samad Aidane, project managers are more prone to work-related stress in comparison to other office professions.

Since the project manager is directly responsible and accountable for the success or failure of a project, (s)he has to be adept at managing timelines. Time is money, goes the old adage. For every minute spent organizing, an hour is earned, said Benjamin Franklin. For the PM to manage project *s*chedule, time management is so critical. Without it, projects don't get done on time and may not get done at all.

One of the often-used tools to plan activities is the Eisenhower Matrix. It was designed by former US President Dwight D. Eisenhower, who played several roles while holding the position of a president. His days used to be busy, and he had to decide which tasks he should concentrate on, on a daily basis. He used this matrix to examine the important tasks. The Eisenhower Matrix, also referred to as the Urgent-Important Matrix, helps to sort tasks by their urgency and importance. According to this matrix, there is a difference between important and urgent. This tool helps to prioritize time by helping in identifying tasks that are truly urgent issues, at the same time as you work towards important, longer-term goals.

Besides the Eisenhower Matrix, productive people engage in some rituals everyday:

1. Making use of technology: Setting up regular e-mail alerts or use apps (Evernote) to organise information needed can save a lot of time.

[4] Self-assessment: Test yourself: https://www.psytoolkit.org/survey-library/risk-rps.html.

2. Making to-do list: Each week before work, make a to-do list of high priority work that must be accomplished.
3. At the end of every day, list the high priority work that needs to get done the next day.
4. Avoiding procrastination: Using deadlines can be an effective way of managing work. 'Eating a frog', that is getting done with tasks that are not necessarily motivating can be addressed early in the day.
5. Rejuvenating: Block out time on your calendar during the time of day to tale walks and engage in rejuvenation.

Self-assessment: How are your time management skills?[5]

1.6 Summary

The chapter introduced how self-awareness and knowing one's values and personality can impact project performance. The chapter also discusses important personality types such as Big Five and Type A and B frameworks. Range of personal project management skills, viz. control orientation-accountability-locus of control, resilience, risk taking, managing ambiguity, and managing time were also discussed.

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[5] http://med.fau.edu/healthfirst/Time%20Management%20Questionnaire.pdf.

Cognitive Intelligence

2

Learning Objectives
After reviewing this chapter, you will:

- Understand about cognitive intelligence
- Learn key cognitive skills
- Enhance your cognitive skills.

Story
Uma, an experienced project manager, was brought on board to salvage a project heading towards failure. Initially, Radha, the original project manager, had a great rapport with the customer community and the client. Radha found the customers changing the requirements more frequently than before, and the project falling behind schedule and exceeding the allocated budget for the recent quarters. Radha focused on trying to get the customers to rein in the rapid changes resulting in a deterioration in relationship. In frustration, the client threatened to cancel the project. Uma, on the other hand, focused on analysing the recent changes to discover a trend. She conducted a focus group session with five of the most influential customers. She found that the customers were affected by their industry's falling market share. Hence, the haphazard changing of requirements. Uma suggested another focus group session to identify new trends, understand the industry's challenges, and define innovative ways to revive an interest in the product. As the word spread about the focus group meetings, the customers started gathering new ideas and rallying around the project team. The new impression of cooperation, collaboration, and synergy changed the project landscape. The client agreed to increase the funding and sent out a press release announcing highlighting the future innovation and collaboration between Vijay's company and their own.

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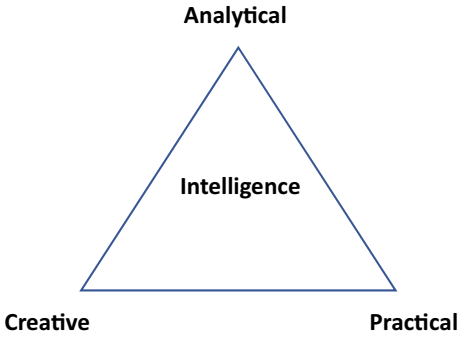

Fig. 2.1 Triarchic theory of intelligence

Have you noticed the difference between Radha and Uma?

You'll notice that different project managers have different abilities to execute projects. This difference is evident in the way they handled the situation. This is because they differ in their ability to understand project complexity, adapt to their environment, learn from experience, and overcome obstacles. It has been said that successful project managers require both cognitive and emotional intelligence. This chapter will focus on cognitive intelligence.

2.1 What Is Cognitive Intelligence

Intelligence is a key construct employed to know how individuals differ from one another. It provides an understanding of how people adapt their behaviour according to the environment they live in. Psychologists have proposed many definitions and theories for intelligence. A psychometric approach views intelligence as a collection of abilities and expresses it as a single measure of cognitive ability. Information processing approaches describe the processes people use for intellectual thinking and problem-solving. This approach focuses on studying the cognitive functions that underlie intellectual behaviour.

Sternberg (1985) defines intelligence as the ability to adapt, to shape, and select environment to accomplish one's goals and those of one's society and culture. Sternberg (1988) developed theory of intelligence, which he titled the **triarchic theory of intelligence** because it sees intelligence as comprised of three parts: analytical, creative, and practical intelligence as shown in Fig. 2.1.

2.2 Analytical Intelligence

Analytical intelligence is closely related to academic problem-solving and computation. Sternberg says analytical intelligence is demonstrated by the ability to analyse, evaluate, judge, compare and contrast, and problem-solving.

2.3 Creative Intelligence

Creative intelligence is characterized by devising or imagining solutions to problems and situations. Creativity in this area includes finding novel solutions to unexpected problems, creating beautiful works of art, and well-written short stories. I was camping in the woods with my friends and realized I forgot my camping coffee pot. The person in your group who finds a way to brew coffee well for everyone is rated as having a higher creative intelligence.

2.4 Practical Intelligence

As Sternberg (1988) suggests, practical intelligence is sometimes compared to 'street smarts'. As a practical tool, apply your own experiential knowledge to find solutions that work in your daily life. This type of intelligence seems to differ from our traditional understanding of IQ. Individuals who score high on practical intelligence may or may not have comparable scores on creative and analytical intelligence.

2.5 Key Cognitive Skills

To be a successful project manager, you need to have all three components of intelligence and related skills. We will discuss four cognitive skills that are required for the successful execution of projects.

2.5.1 Analytical Skills

Analytical skills are the abilities that enable us to observe, investigate, and interpret specific situations in order to develop complex ideas and solutions. Analytical thinking can be used in almost any situation. B. Project management, customer needs, etc. A key component of analytical thinking is the ability to quickly identify causal relationships. It means understanding what happens in the process of problem-solving and how new ideas relate to the situation.

Developing this skill will help you achieve organizational and project goals and support your personal career goals. Use analytical skills in your daily work to make decisions based on meaningful analysis of data and demonstrate reliable and pragmatic thinking.

Analytical skills for project success are often defined as the ability to decompose a problem into parts and see connections and dependencies. A project manager with analytical skills can effectively plan and lead projects to success. You can accurately predict outcomes and plan to reach your goals. Analytical skills can also be used in talent management. Determining expectations and setting them with project team members requires good planning and analysis. Planning for

project meetings and reviews also requires analytical and detailed skills. It is suggested that project managers should use all their analytical skills when interacting with people.

Analytical thinking skills are critical in the workplace. It is essential for gathering data, solving complex problems, making rational decisions, as well as summarizing data and executing well-thought-out projects.

If you think your analytical thinking skills need some brushing up or you just want to improve it, here are some strategies you can do:

- Be observant
- Read books
- Learn how things work
- Ask questions
- Play brain games
- Practice your problem-solving skills
- Think about your decisions.

At the end of the day, like any skill development, you have to a lot of practice and application. Learn from your everyday experiences. Then, practice your analytical skills until it comes naturally.

2.5.2 Critical Thinking

Critical thinking (CT) means being able to build and understand a reasoned argument to apply scepticism to what you hear and specially to recognize an incorrect or fraudulent assertion. CT involves confirming the facts as you understand them, eliciting knowledgeable debate regarding the evidence, verifying the source of authority for what you hear, generating alternate explanations, and testing what you believe. CT requires that you educate yourself about the facts and not accept what is supplied by others.

As a critical thinker you must actively engage in.

- Testing the facts by poking holes in all arguments
- Careful consideration of trustworthiness of the sources of new information
- Scrutiny of potential alternative explanations of the evidences presented.

As a critical thinker, you should be aware of your own attitude and beliefs and see that your objectivity is not getting effected by your attitudes and beliefs. You should be open to new points of views with intellectual caution.

CT requires that you discard your previous opinion and believe in a state of affairs shown to be true regardless of whether the new information support your deeply held belief. Each of us have belief system that contains large array of beliefs. Your beliefs are changing as you receive new information. Critical thinker

actively seeks to examine their own belief structures and test these assumptions to assure accuracy.

Intensity or strength of attitudes determines your willingness or openness to alter your viewpoints. Your beliefs and attitudes that you possess come from direct experience and exposure. Your attitude towards an object can be influenced by how information is presented to you. The direct experience and exposure gives you frame of reference and establishes your worldview. Your thinking and judgement are mediated by attitudes you hold. Personal beliefs and attitude can and do influence your decisions. Critical thinker requires reflective scepticism, a cautionary approach that demands reasonable supportive evidences.

2.6 How to Enhance Critical Thinking

To improve your critical thinking, you need to recognize when careful decisional scrutiny is appropriate. CT can be enhanced by focusing on those skills that most directly apply to your thinking processes.

- Verbal reasoning skills that enable you to recognize and take stand against persuasive attacks improves your ability to think critically.
- Understanding and analysing the component of argumentation improves your critical thinking ability.
- Understanding of probability and uncertainty and focusing on the likelihood of anticipated events aids your critical thinking.

One of the ways to improve CT skills is focusing on the important aspects of a problem and determining what you are required to do with any information you uncover. Halpern (1998) provided examples of relevant tasks and questions that aid your CT.

2.6.1 Creative Thinking Skill

Creativity is the production of novel, valuable, relevant. and useful idea, and creativity may involve meaningfully recombining existing ways or doing something first time by creating something entirely new (Amabile, 1988; Oldham & Cumming, 1996; Woodman et al., 1993). Research suggests that creativity results from an intersection of the personal resources available to the decision maker, the techniques and processes used and amount of drive or motivation in a specific problem-solving situation (Amabile, 1988). Table 2.1 shows these characteristics with examples.

Table 2.1 Characteristics for creativity

Characteristics	Examples
Personal resources	Expertise, experience, knowledge, technical skills
Techniques and skills	Cognitive style, ability to take new perspectives, applying appropriate thinking skills, energetic approach to problem-solving
Internal motivation	Appropriate rewards (recognition and encouragement), clearly defined goals, constructive feedback, challenges, interest, willingness, enthusiasm, freedom to explore passion for what you are doing

It is observed that creative people have one thing common is the love of what they are doing even though they come from varied background. Personal resources, thinking techniques, and motivation to perform are all necessary for creativity to occur. Higher the intersection of these three characteristics, higher will be the creativity (Amabile, 1988) (Fig. 2.2).

In most cases, creative individuals use process that, although it does not guarantee creative outcome, provides the ingredients for developing a creative solution. The five-stage creative model typically includes **problem identification, preparation, idea generation, idea validation, and verification**. For creativity to occur, all stages in the creative process should be present, and the quality of creative outcome is primarily determined by the quality of each individual component in the model (Amabile, 1988).

Stage 1: Problem identification: The initial step in creativity is recognizing that a problem exists. To solve a problem creatively, you must first understand the real problem, which is the root cause. Keep asking why till you end

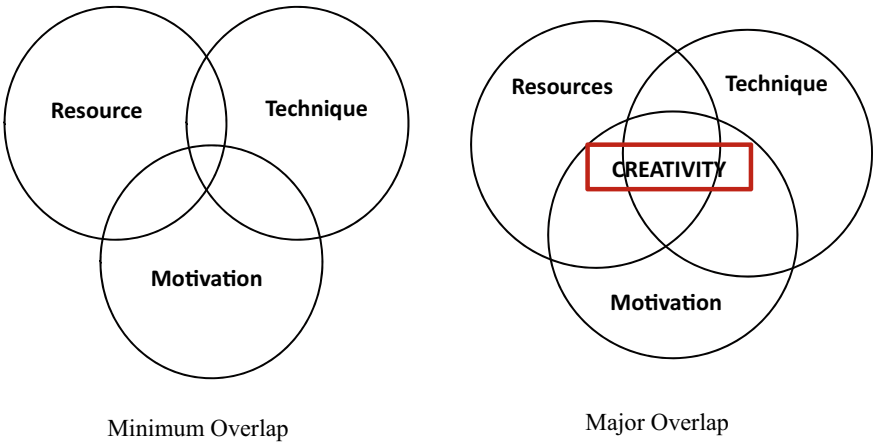

Fig. 2.2 Overlap between resource, technique, and motivation

up with an understanding of the problem that needs no further questioning. If you have a productivity issue but identified the difficulty is the need to fire a lazy employee, you have stated the problem in terms of a solution severely limiting the avenues you might imaginatively consider.

Stage 2: Preparation: Preparation involves a search for information, clarifying all aspects of the problem, analysing the resources you can bring to bear, identifying informational deficiencies, and assessing your assumptions (Bazerman, 1990). If you process enough knowledge to cope with problems, then you activate that store of information, so it becomes available for use. If you discover that you are deficient in key areas, you can spend time in the preparation stage learning what you need to know (Amabile, 1988).

Stage 3: Idea generation: This is the stage that results in something new or novel. During this phase, you search your knowledge and experience to find relevant information. Here, you go through what you know and apply various thinking methods to develop ideas and possibilities.

Stage 4: Idea validation: In this stage, you evaluate and judge each idea generated during the third phase. Ideas are tested for appropriateness and evaluated for correctness relevant to your knowledge and experience base. True creativity has occurred when you validate that a novel and useful idea is a practical solution to the problem identified in stage 1.

Stage 5: Verification: If the response validated in the stage 4 resolves the problem, the creative process is complete. However, if your idea fails to solve your dilemma but appears to be 'getting warmer' then you return to stage 1. Based on information gathered during stage 2, you redefined the problem and continue through the creative process until you return to verification. If you achieve complete failure, then your problem-solving attempts ends. However, if a reasonable response has been developed, the process repeats until you are either satisfied with the outcome or you are convinced that you are unable to generate a creative solution (Amabile, 1988).

2.7 How to Improve Creativity?

To improve the creativity, you need to look at each of the five processes and find ways to improve each of these processes.

To improve problem identification, it helps if you are able to learn as much as you can about the situation. It helps you to identify the true problem if you discover where the problem came from, if you distinguished facts from opinion and if you challenge all assumptions and information presented to you (Kepner & Tregoe, 1981). Another technique for improving problem identification is turning the problem around by making the strange familiar and familiar strange (Gordon, 1961).

By transferring the problem into something else you have the opportunity to recognize aspects of something you know quite well (the metaphor) rather than something that feels uncertain (the original problem). New insights can occur because attributes of the redefined problem become evident and can be applied to original predicament: you are able to recognize the root problem.

Preparation for creativity can be improved if you allow yourself to pay attention, especially in uncommon ways, to useful concepts derived from things going on around you. Everyday event can add to your mental storehouse and increase the amount of knowledge available to draw from it at a later date (Plsek, 1997). Possible tools that have been found to aid preparation are suggested by Plsek (1997).

Enhanced idea generation occurs if you are flexible to exploring possibilities, are internally motivated to achieve a creative outcome, give attention to particularly relevant aspect of the problem, and follow appropriate thinking processes as you move towards a solution (Amabile, 1988). Creative problem solvers are those who come up with a broad range of different alternatives rather than a small number of similar concepts. To the extent possible, you need to avoid evaluating ideas as they are developed, you need to encourage yourself to generate wild ideas, you should emphasize quantity over quality, and you should build on previous concepts.

Osborne (1953) provided Substitute, Combine, Adapt, Modify, Put, Eliminate, Reverse (SCAMPER) checklist to enhance idea generation. Most of us have difficulty coming up with creative ideas, primarily because we unconsciously impose mental obstacles that constraint the way we look at the problem and limit the number of alternatives we believe are relevant (Allen, 1974). Creative idea generation can be improved if you avoid:

- Always looking for right answer
- Always trying to be logical
- Strictly following the rules
- Insisting on being practical
- Being afraid of failure
- Resisting the desire to play
- Becoming too specialized
- Being too concerned with certainty
- Not wanting to appear foolish
- Saying ‘I am not creative’.

2.7.1 Problem-Solving Skills

In general, problem-solving refers to the ability to successfully deal with complex and unexpected situations and find solutions. Problem-solving skills help determine why a problem occurred and how to fix it. Problem-solving begins

with identifying problems, developing solutions, implementing those solutions, and evaluating their effectiveness. Problem solvers are able to observe, assess, and act quickly when problems arise and are not afraid of the unknown. This is invaluable for identifying and resolving issues in a project environment. Problem-solving skills in a project environment have several important advantages. Problem solvers have been observed to possess the following qualities that they can bring to their roles and workplaces.

Time management skills are often underestimated as one of the benefits of having problem-solving skills in the workplace. However, people with problem-solving skills usually also have good time management skills. The ability to manage time wisely and focus on what is important to the project/business leads to better decision-making and project/business impact.

Ability to prioritize, plan, and execute strategies: Problem solvers carefully assess customers and their needs and identify any problems in prioritizing, planning, and executing strategies to meet them. neither. All moving parts are in control as you can strategize how best to meet multiple unique needs.

Ability to think outside the box: Problem solvers often see opportunities in problems. Thinking outside the box is an important problem-solving skill in the workplace because it often leads to better results than originally anticipated.

Ability to work under pressure: This is often one of the most important benefits of problem-solving skills in the workplace. Problem solvers are often good at handling pressure, such as shrinking deadlines or changing project parameters. Depending on your workplace culture, you may prefer someone who can provide quick solutions or who can take the time to identify next steps. Both are valid problem-solving qualities.

Risk management skills: Planning is an important problem-solving skill. Problem solvers can not only solve immediate problems but also predict future problems based on trends, patterns, experience, and current events.

Problem-Solving Skills

There are six key problem-solving skills that you should have as project manager.

- Listening skills
- Analytical thinking skills
- Creative thinking skills
- Communication skills
- Decision-making skills
- Teamwork.

Morfin (2000) suggested new rules for effective problem-solving in projects. Problem-solving is an essential skill to handle the issues project managers encounter on a daily basis. Effective problem-solving actually circles around the people element in project management. How you relate and interact with people

has a major impact on how effectively and how quickly you can solve problems (Jaeger, 2019).

2.8 Summary

In this chapter, we reviewed the concept of cognitive intelligence, with a tacit focus on project managers based on the triarchic theory of intelligence. Based on classification by Sternberg (1988), we studied intelligence from three perspectives: analytical, creative, and practical. Four cognitive skills which have significant ramifications on the performance of a project manager were identified as analytical skills: which helps a project manager to investigate a situation; critical thinking skill: which leads to an ability to draw reasoned arguments; creative thinking: the skill to provide novel solutions under constraints; and problem-solving skill: which leads to delivering out of the box solutions in unprecedented situations.

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Emotional Intelligence

3

Learning Objectives

- Understanding self: Self-confidence and emotional self-awareness; Johari window
- Managing Self: Transparency; adaptability; achievement drive; initiative; optimism
- Understanding others: Empathy and the role of communication; organizational awareness and service orientation (servant leadership)
- Managing others: Inspirational leadership • Developing others • Change catalyst • Conflict management • Teamwork and collaboration (The chapter will only give a passing reference to this aspect, since it will be covered in Module 2 and 3).

Radha's Story

Uma was going through an emotional rollercoaster. The project had hit a roadblock. **Leading projects often involve working in challenging situations and the team was responding in unexpected ways**. The project delivery date was fast approaching, but there were raw materials shortage and of the three key project members one resigned and other two were going through some medical and personal challenges. Uma was confident that current problems were temporary. Her past experiences and existing team strength, they would be able to iron out issues. However, immediate time and person power pressures had taken a toll on most team members. Many felt psychology distressed, and their emotions were out of control. People walked into the meeting frustrated, and discussions were turning into battle grounds. High pitch discussions, conflict, and discourtesies were impacting team performance. Uma did not know how to handle these emotions. What do you think is going on with Uma?

U. A. Agarwal et al., *Managing People in Projects for High Performance*,
Management for Professionals, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-19-8206-4_3

It's business—Leave Your Emotions at the Door.
You might have heard this statement during a heated conversation! For a long time, any discussion on emotions was considered pollyannish and un-business. However, scientific evidence in the late 1980s led to the discovery of 'Emotional Brain'. Daniel Goleman's work suggests that emotions are intelligent and are irreplaceable resources. Emotional intelligence can yield twice the business performance than purely cognitive intelligence (Mount et al., 2006). In a study examining qualities of star project performers of the Bell Labs, it was found that ability to understand their emotions and effectively use emotions of others to build networks to problem solve and create (Casper, 2002) was the key differentiators of a star project manager. However, to manage emotions, they have to be understood well.

Every project has its set of complications, uncertainty, nonlinearity, irregularity, and volatility. To be an effective project leader, ability to recognize one's own and others' emotions and managing them is critical. Understanding and managing emotions of self and others are also important leaders' because emotions (positive and negative) are highly contagious and spread like viruses, process called *emotional contagion.* These effects become even more powerful in workgroups where there is greater work interdependence. Ability of the project manager to manage ones and other emotions is identified as one of the key ingredients and a central factor in how successful leaders manage on a day-to-day basis (Jordon & Lindebaum, 2015).

There are various theorists who have developed models of emotional intelligence with most similarities and few variations. For the purposes of this chapter, we chose one of the most established models by Daniel Goleman. According to Goleman, emotional intelligence (EQ) is broken up into four domains:

I. Self-awareness
II. Self-management
III. Social awareness
IV. Relationship Management.

The following paragraphs briefly provide some background on each domain in the quadrant.

3.1 Self-awareness

The capacity and the skill to recognize and interpret one's emotions, called *emotional literacy*, enhance self-awareness. Emotional literacy involves the ability to monitor, understand, and regulate one's emotions and behaviours in response to social environments and situations (Snyder, 1974) (also called self-monitoring behaviour). It is also about being aware of the impact of one's behaviour on others and the ability to modify one's conduct keeping the context in mind.

To understand one's emotions, it is important to be aware that these are two kinds of emotions that are experienced at different stages: Primary and secondary.

Primary emotions, such as fear, sadness, surprise, and happiness, are felt first. They are 'fast-acting' and occur in close proximity to the event. Secondary emotions, on the other hand, are feelings that are experienced after primary emotions are experienced. These emotions don't pass easily and hold back for longer time, high stickiness. They can be problematic also because they can 'take over' from primary emotions, effectively blocking them. For example, when there is a change in project delivery, the team's first response is likely to be anxiety, that is followed closely by another secondary emotion—irritation, anger, or frustration. However, secondary emotions can be managed by being aware of the primary emotions.

However, one can manage unproductive primary emotions from becoming secondary emotions by labelling them. First by l***abelling them*** . The ancient wisdom says '*Putting our feelings into words helps us heal better. If a friend is sad and we can get them to talk about it, that probably will make them feel better*'. The labelling technique rests on accepting the emotion that one is feeling at any given point and giving it a label. Numerous other studies show that when using words to describe our emotions dampens the deeper negative emotions. In a research study carried out in 2005 by Matthew Lieberman on thirty participants, each participant was shown a picture of happy, angry and scared looking faces. They were asked to do two activities. Under the first activity, the participants had to search and match a picture they were holding with another picture having the same expression. The other activity involved them searching for a word that aptly described the emotion expressed by the face. In the MRI scans, it was found that when the participants used words to describe the emotion they were seeing, their PFC got activated and very little activity occurred in amygdala (part of limbic system).[1] Thus, by attributing a label to emotions, we are essentially bridging the gap between thought and feeling, which, to a large extent is what emotional intelligence is all about. However, sometimes, we may not have right word to describe the emotion! The Feelings Wheel, created by Dr. Gloria Willcox, is a good indicator and puts words to emotions and care for our mental health.[2]

The next time you're feeling a difficult emotion: start by expressing and labelling it. For example, you may say 'I am feeling anxious' or 'My state of mind reflects a confusion' *Give a label: Give an intensity score*: You can also define the intensity using some scale. For example, say 'I am feeling anxious, and my anxiety level is 8 on a scale of 10'.

[1] https://newsroom.ucla.edu/releases/Putting-Feelings-Into-Words-Produces-8047.
[2] https://blog.calm.com/blog/the-feelings-wheel.

3.2 Self-management

Victor Frankel in the famous boos, Man's Search was meaning said, '*The one thing you can't take away from me is the way I choose to respond to what you do to me. The last of one's freedoms is to choose one's attitude in any given circumstance*'.

Have you ever overreacted in a situation or lost control of your emotions and did something or said something in the heat of the moment that you later regretted?
The sudden response is called 'amygdala hijack', and it refers to spontaneous intense reactions to a given situation.[3] In other words, it is when someone 'loses it' or seriously overreacts to something or someone.

The explanation of the amygdala hijack is the brain structure. Human brain has two parts. First, the prefrontal Cortex which operates slowly and is logical and precise. The second is the limbic system that is dominated by emotion and impulse and works fast. The amygdala, placed in the limbic region, is designed to respond swiftly to a threat. If coordinated well, both parts of the brain can yield very effective results. Usually in six seconds, data travels from a rational to the limbic brain.

However, during evolutionary development that is five hundred million years ago, the brain stem assumed responsibility for basic survival and thus often had limbic reactions. It is estimated that the neocortex, seat of reason developed over two hundred million years ago. It facilitated the ability to make sense of one's immediate surroundings and respond. However, like in stone age, even today, when faced with a threatening situation, the stimuli bypass the neocortex (overlooking reason) going directly to the limbic system, resulting in instant reaction and later rationalization.

Managing one's emotions is about regulating one's emotions and avoiding the amygdala hijack. Project leaders face immense uncertainty and ambiguity. Thus, a project managers ability to recognize and regulate one's response and respond to it is considered a strength.

Emotional regulation can be done in two ways.

Step 1: ***Recognizing emotional triggers***

By understanding what triggers your positive and negative emotions, you can control situations and avoid an amygdala hijack. For example, by understanding how every time you arrive late, you get angry for missing timelines. It results in irritable behaviour and snappy conversations triggering unproductive time and loss of energy. Another example could you realizing that waking up early and spending 20 min in yoga, uplifts your mood and helps you to accomplish critical tasks.

[3] https://oxford.universitypressscholarship.com/view/10.1093/oso/9780197512654.001.0001/oso-9780197512654-chapter-3.

Understanding and managing your positive and negative triggers can result in better results.

How do we do that?

Step 2: ***Controlling emotional triggers***

What do you do after realizing your positive and negative triggers? Have you heard about the six seconds test[4] (and pause) and then apply consequential thinking by evaluating the costs and benefits of your choices.

What would happen if I lost control over myself?
How would happen if I lost this relationship?

It is basically suspending actions when facing a particularly stressful situation. The SOBER technique helps manage panic attacks and reduce anxiety.

- **STOP**—Whatever you are doing, just stop.
- **OBSERVE**—Simply observe the emotions inside you in an objective way, without judging.
- **BREATHE**—Take some deep, calming breaths through your nose. Hold your breath for 3–5 s before releasing it through your mouth.
- **EVALUATE**—Notice how you feel now and if your perspective, thoughts and feelings have changed.
- **RESPOND**—Choose the most appropriate response to the situation, from a place of respect and kindness for yourself and others.

When we're faced with a challenge, our view suddenly narrows and we tend to lose perspective, resulting in losing sight of the bigger picture. So, the key to reversing this is to practice self-distancing techniques which enable us to make better decisions and assess challenges with more objectivity. An interesting approach to managing time between and stimulus and response is to apply Solomon's Paradox. It is defined as human ability to reason more sensibly about someone else's problems than one's own.

Practising self-distancing over time increases our emotional intelligence and our ability to approach situations wisely and with empathy. There are two ways to practice self-distancing when faced with a challenge, both which require reframing a situation:

- What suggestions would you give to a friend who is experiencing same problem?

[4] https://hbr.org/2015/12/just-6-seconds-of-mindfulness-can-make-you-more-effective.

- Talking in third person to yourself can also help. to yourself in the third person. Instead of asking, 'Why am I doing this?' or 'What can I do?', rather ask yourself, 'Why is she doing that?' or 'What can she do?'

Step 3: ***Reframing***

The meaning of an event depends on the frame that you put it in. When you change the frame, the meaning changes which in turn leads to change in your behaviour. Positive framing isn't about avoiding a situation. Reframing is a technique that advocates looking at a situation differently in a different and more positive light. Positive framing helps in changing outlook. Problems only get worse with a negative attitude.

For instance, instead of saying 'It's going to take such a long time for my broken ribs to heal, and the car will never be the same', can be framed differently. 'It's going to take months for my broken ribs to heal, it's a long time, but it's not forever'.

Positive frame helps in good feel factor and reenergizes one. Once the energy starts to change, good things can begin to happen. Optimism helps in seeing *opportunities.* This also helps in stopping negative primary emotions become secondary emotions.

3.3 Understanding Others

Recall the leaders you have worked with who invoked very strong commitment and loyalty from you. List the reasons that motivated you to work for them? What were the reasons to follow and support those leaders?

(a) *Were they willing to look at the problem from your point of view?*
(b) *Were they good listeners?*
(c) *Were they approachable?*

Managing others begins with emotional awareness and ability to recognize and understand what other people are experiencing. Recognizing and appropriately responding to others' emotions are the key requirements of a leader with high emotional intelligence.

Leaders with high EI provide emotional and instrumental support to their subordinates. They are empathetic, listening, responsive to needs of others, provide positive feedback and support when needed.

How does one focus on the feelings of others? This can happen by being other centred. The key skills to understanding and managing others emotions is empathy and listening.

1. **Empathy**

Work context, where tasks are interdependent and has time and cost constraints, stretch of emotions in natural. An emotionally intelligent project leader, instead of making assumptions about why the other person act in the way they do, tries to explore the underlying emotional drivers of that person's actions.

Empathy is the ability to examine what it would be like to experience emotions that others are going through.

An interesting framework to understand the emotions of others is the *iceberg model*. Human behaviour can be understood using the metaphor of the iceberg. Just as in the iceberg, where only one-tenth of iceberg is visible above the water, in human behaviour, what we see 'above the waterline' is only one-tenth, the factors shaping these attitudes and behaviours lie 'below the waterline'.

Good leaders manage the emotions of team members, understanding that part of human emotions that lies below the water is important.

Self-assessment: What is your empathy quotient?[5]

2. **Active Listening**

The process to increase empathy is active listening.

Listening is an active process in which a mindful decision is made to listen to others and understand the messages of the speaker. It is a skill we need to inculcate through practice. This is because humans are not born as good listeners. Human brain works four times the speed that someone can speak. We listen at 125–250 wpm, think at 1000–3000 wpm. 75% of the time we are distracted, preoccupied or forgetful. 20% of the time, we remember what we hear. Thus, we make up our mind based on our assumptions even before we listen to others perceptive.

Listening helps to learn about the challenges that people are facing and results in the formation of an emotional connection with that person. On listening we realize that others may also be dealing with a complex emotion that goes beyond what we see on the surface. It is believed that most people do not listen with the intent to understand; they listen with the intent to reply.

Good project managers are active listeners who speak 30% of the time and listen 70% of the time. Some of the key aspects of listening constitutes a key skill to understanding emotions of others.

Some of the principles of active listening are:

1. Don't interrupt
2. Paraphrase: summarize and repeat back what you have heard
3. Clarify: If you are unsure how others are feeling, request for a clarification
4. Validate the other person's perspective by making verbal affirmations like 'I see', 'I know', 'Sure', 'Thank you', or 'I understand'

[5] https://psychology-tools.com/test/empathy-quotient.

5. Using nonverbal cues which show understanding such as nodding, eye contact, and leaning forward shows interest.

Are you a good listener? Check out.[6]

3.4 Managing Others

The characteristics of an emotionally intelligent leader are to have the ability to relate to and respond to individuals skilfully resolving conflict and executing tasks. After recognizing others' emotions, the next task for a project manager is to manage others. Effectively, developing additional social/emotional skills makes relationships more effective, fruitful, and fulfilling.

Some of the steps for managing with emotional intelligence are:

a. ***Anticipating Other's Needs***: There are different motivators (things that move us) or drivers for us: Intrinsic or extrinsic. Examples of extrinsic motivators are bonuses, recognition, promotions bonuses, among others. Examples of intrinsic motivators are passion, alignment with values, and sense of belonging or purpose. They are intangible, abstract, and self-perpetuating. Being aware and understanding the needs, desires, and skills of employees will help in building a strong, cohesive team that successfully accomplishes goals. Successful leaders can anticipate and recognize other's needs, as well as assist them in getting those needs met.
b. ***Providing Psychological Safety***: Humans are wired to connect, and one of the most fundamental intrinsic motivators is belonging. Good project leaders try to understand the ambitions of their subordinates and help them achieve their biggest goals. A study on team performance at Google,[7] called project Aristotle, revealed that the highest-performing teams have one thing in common: psychological safety. It is one's belief that one will not be penalized for mistakes and errors made. This belief allows encourages creativity and risk taking. Talking about themselves, their failures makes subordinates experience psychological safety and bolster trust. In such environment, teams become more open-minded, resilient, motivated, and persistent. Effective project leaders also mindfully build a rapport and try to understand a bit about what's going on in their team members personal life and maintain a relationship that is beyond transactional building strong rapport that almost always leads to higher productivity and better retention.

[6] https://www.thoughtco.com/listening-test-are-you-A-good-listener-31656.

https://www.trainingcoursematerial.com/free-assessment-tools/how-good-a-listener-are-you-quiz.

[7] https://hbr.org/2017/08/high-performing-teams-need-psychological-safety-heres-how-to-create-it.

c. ***Engaging in Crucial Difficult Conversations***: While on one hand good leaders open up with their team and are vulnerable, on the other hand they can have difficult but crucial conversation with their teams. They are able to identify the formation of conflict and take proactive steps to move others to a more positive interaction. They restrict to facts instead of assumptions and are also careful about their body language and words. It is well researched that 10% of conflict is due to the difference in opinion and 90% is due to the delivery and tone of voice. Managers are careful about sending nonverbal messages to others about what they think and feel. Turning to sarcasm, humour, or negative body language instead of engaging in dialogue is not productive. Besides, they do not blame or criticize but demonstrate a curious approach and demonstrate a learning mindset. John Gottman's research[8] shows that blame and criticism escalate conflict, leading to defensiveness and—eventually—to disengagement. When others get furious, get curious. Effective leaders use neutral language, engage in exploration, and ask for solutions.
d. ***Perspective Taking***: This approach helps team members to look at the situation from the lens of the other person. It reframe a negative experience and to improve future events or circumstances without blaming.

One of the ways to do so is if one of your team members is not making enough contributions in the meeting, instead of getting angry, a dialogue like this could be:

> In the past two weeks there's been a noticeable drop in your participation during meetings and progress appears to be slowing on your project. I imagine there must be some reasons. Can we discuss these? How do you suggest we can address these? How could I support you?

e. ***Humour***: Humour increases, as does solution-finding and divergent thinking—the cognitive process underlying creativity. It increases feel-good hormones dopamine, oxytocin and endorphin. Leaders with high EI have the ability to defuse stress and exhibit a positive mood, then team collaboration, creativity, and performance goes up. According to research, leaders with humour quotient are seen as *27%* more motivating and admired, and their teams are 15% more engaged and twice as likely to solve a creativity challenge.[9] The opposite is also true, if the leader radiates negativity those metrics plummet,

[8] Transforming Criticism into Wishes: A Recipe for Successful Conflict (gottman.com).
[9] https://neuroleadership.com/your-brain-at-work/neuroscience-laughter-at-work/#:~:text=Laughing%20swaps%20the%20cortisol%20in,%3A%20dopamine%2C%20oxytocin%20and%20endorphins.&text=Oxytocin%20is%20considered%20the%20%E2%80%9Cempathy,it%20creates%20feelings%20of%20relatedness.

3.5 Summary

The chapter introduces the concept of emotional intelligence and its relevance in the project environment using the popular EQ framework. The chapter elaborated on various dimensions of understanding and managing self and others. Various interventions that can be undertaken to understand and manage others were discussed.

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Making Decisions

4

Learning Objectives
After reviewing the chapter, you will:

- Understand decision-making and its importance
- Understand different types of decisions
- Make distinction among different types of decision styles
- Understand cognitive biases.

Story
Uma was assigned one of the challenging projects that were not getting fire regulatory clearance for the use of the facilities created. Uma is known to be a very effective project manager specially handling difficult situations and making decisions in such situations. To get technical details and understand the possibilities of addressing the fire regulatory requirement she consulted technical consultants, the contractors. She got very different options from each one of them.

She is looking at each of these options and wondering what decision she should take?

4.1 Types of Decisions

Have you observed your project manager keenly and your project team members during decision-making process?

Each project manager approach decision-making in many different ways. Decision-making is the selection of a procedure to weigh alternatives and find a solution to a problem. In addition, certain situations will require different approaches of decision-making in order to be effective. Snowden and Boone (2007) have formed

U. A. Agarwal et al., *Managing People in Projects for High Performance*,
Management for Professionals, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-19-8206-4_4

Table 4.1 Types of decision based on contexts

Context	Cause–effect relationship	Situation	Decision type
Simple context	Clear	Known–knowns	Simple
Complicated context	Clear	Known–unknown	Complicated
Complex context	Not clear	Unknown–unknown	Complex
Chaotic context	Not clear	Unknowable	Chaotic

a new perspective on leadership and decision-making, which helps decision maker to sort issues into five contexts and proposed Cynefin framework. This can be used to classify types of decision.

Simple decisions are the decisions taken in simple contexts. Simple contexts are characterized by stability and cause-and-effect relationships that are clear to everyone. This is in the realm of 'known knowns'.

Complicated decisions are the decisions taken in complicated context. Complicated contexts may contain multiple right answers, and though there is a clear relationship between cause and effect, not everyone can see it. This is the realm of 'known unknowns'.

Complex decisions are the decisions taken in a complex context. In a complex context, right answers cannot be searched out at all; rather, instructive patterns emerge if the leader/decision maker conducts experiments that can safely fail. This is the realm of 'unknown unknowns'.

Chaotic decisions are the decisions taken in a chaotic context. In a chaotic context, searching for right answers is pointless. The relationships between cause and effect are impossible to determine because they shift constantly, and no manageable patterns exist. This is the realm of unknowable.

Table 4.1 shows the decision type based on context and cause effect relationship. Sometimes, it is not clear in which context we are in and what type of decision to be made. This is called a context of disorder. In this context, decision maker has to break the situation into its constituent parts and assign each to one of the other four contexts/realms and take decision based on that context.

4.1.1 Classification of Decisions Based on Information and Judgement

Rangnekar (1996) observed that managers take decisions based on two aspects: one is information and other is judgement. Based on this, he has defined four types of decision.

The first kind of decision is called **programmed decision**. Programmed decisions are those decisions that can be taken purely on the basis of information- no judgement required.

The second kind of decision is the **operational decisions**. In this decision, information is collected, but in the final decision-making, some judgement is used. For example, a procurement manager has to order material for the project. Project schedule/work package schedule is vital information input—(s)he has to consider what they are going to make in next few months. But (s)he has some other inputs which are not so definite, ex: What is the price rise expected, how likely is the scarcity of the material. (S)He might hear rumour about labour trouble at the site or at the factory that would impact the supply of the material. Nobody knows the answer and yet the decision maker has to make her/his decision. In these kinds of decisions, project managers have to use their judgement. This is where each project manager may use her/his judgement in different way, and we may get different decisions where information is essentially the same. I am sure you can recall many such situations that you have observed while managing project procurement.

Let me share an experience where inputs from two project management experts were sought to take decision about how to meet the changed fire regulations with minimum structural changes in the building. The decisions were very different from both of them though the information shared with them was the same. Interestingly enough the project manager came up with a solution which was different and more practical to implement from these two experts in construction projects.

The third kind of decision is **strategic decision**. This is the decision where information is used, but judgement plays the key role. If we are thinking of a project to set up a new factory, the decisions required are:

1. What should be location of the new factory?
2. What capacity should the factory start with?
3. What products to make?
4. What technology to use.

These are four vital decisions. If these decisions are wrong, it would be difficult to achieve the objectives for which factory is built. In strategic decisions, you will require information from multiple sources, and you need to make sure that sources of information are reliable. For such decisions, you will not have complete information and have to make decisions based on judgement.

The last category of decisions is **entrepreneurial decision**. Entrepreneurial decisions are vital decisions for long-term success of project organizations. These decisions cannot be taken on the basis of information alone. In fact, information plays a very small role in these types of decision. The decision maker taking these decisions uses her/his judgement to the full extent.

4.1.2 Classification Based on Degree of Participation

One of the important aspects of decision-making is the acceptability of the decision. In project organizations, a decision has to be implemented by a number of people. It is very important that the decision is accepted to those who are going

to implement it. Rangnekar (1996) categorized decision-making based on different degree of participation involved.

A-1 Type: In this type of decision, a person makes the decision all by herself/himself. One great advantage of this decision is that it does not take very much time. However, the acceptability of such decision will be very low, unless the person making the decision has a great charisma and people believe that her/his judgement how is superior to their judgement. It is clearly autocratic decision.

A-2 Type: In this type of decision, the person making decision asks for information. (S)he collects information from those who are going to implement decision. Supplying the information creates some feeling that they are contributing to the decision. This is likely to get a little more support for the decision when it is being implemented.

C-1 Type: In this type of decision-making, the decision maker consults individually the various persons involved. (S)he listens to their ideas and advise and comes to her/his own decision. This has a greater merit in terms of acceptability because people feel they were consulted before the decision was made.

C-2 Type: In this type, the decision maker consults all the people concerned together and discusses various aspects of decision. This type of decision-making has the advantage that the decision maker is not just one person, but a group who feels that the decision comes out of their ideas. The person making C-2 type decision does not have to wait till the decisions fully evolved, as long as there is a feeling that (S)he has got the advantage of all the ideas and (s)he has now able to take decision based on various suggestions and comments. However, the final decision is made by the decision maker.

G-2 Type: In this type, the decision maker and all the people concerned sit together to discuss and arrive at the decision based on consensus. This is a difficult process unless all people involved share the goals and the values. If there is no consensus, then decision maker has to decide whether to continue with G-2 type or go for C-2 type.

We have discussed four ways of classifying projects and depending on how you or your organization classify projects you will develop your decision-making style. Next, we discuss decision-making styles of project managers/leaders.

4.1.3 Decision-Making Styles

There are two major differences between decision-making styles: how information is used and how options are developed. Some people like to consider various data sets before making any decisions when it comes to the utilization of information. Such individuals are referred to as ‘maximizers’ in management literature. The outcome is a wise choice, but it can cost in terms of time and effectiveness. Other managers just want the key facts to take the decision are called: ‘Satisficers’. As

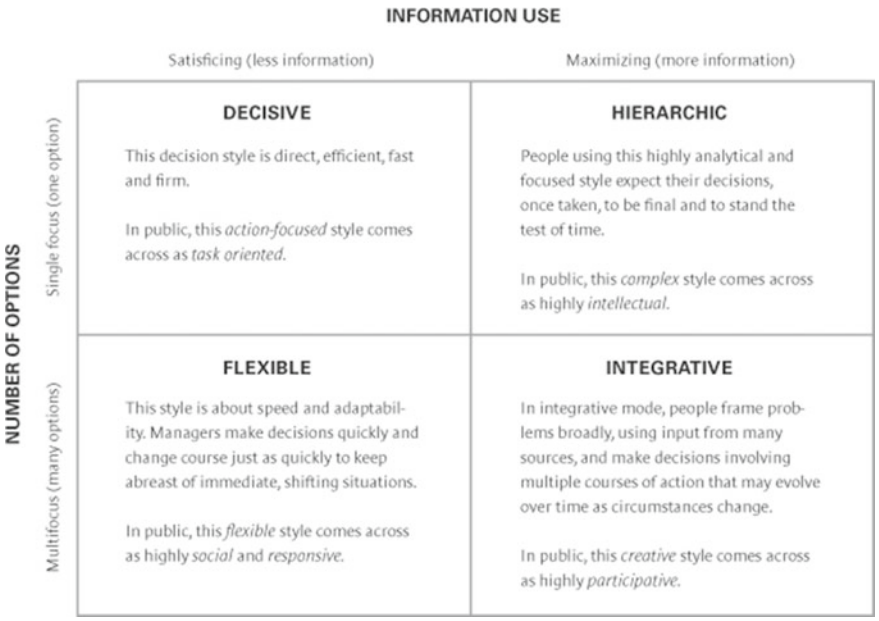

Fig. 4.1 Four styles of decision-making. Adapted from Brousseau et al. (2006)

soon as they have enough knowledge to meet their needs, they are prepared to take action. When it comes to generating possibilities, 'single-focus' decision makers have a strong preference for selecting one course of action, but their 'multifocused' counterparts may consider several options and develop lists of them. People with several foci devote their efforts towards adjusting to circumstances, whereas those with a single focus on making things happen the way they think they should.

Using the two dimensions of information use and focus, Brousseau et al. (2006) created a matrix that identifies four styles of decision-making: decisive (little information, one course of action); flexible (little information, many options); hierarchic (lots of data, one course of action); and integrative (lots of data, many options). Figure 4.1 shows these four decisions- making styles.

Not all decision makers fit neatly into little categories. A project manager must be able to use all four approaches because circumstances might also affect the best decision-making approach. For instance, in a business context, there might not be enough time or history to support in-depth assessments and consideration. While the multifocus technique may be necessary during times of relative uncertainty, stable environments tend to favour the single-focus form.

4.1.3.1 Decision-Making Styles Based on Ambiguity and People Focus

Rowe and Mason take into account two spectrums to categorize decision-making styles (1987). The first spectrum contrasts ambiguity and structure in an organization. This spectrum gauges people's preference for either ambiguity or structure

(i.e. clearly stated procedures and expectations) (i.e. open-ended and flexible). The task (technical) versus people (social) spectrum is the second. This spectrum determines whether a decision is driven more by a desire to be correct, to achieve results (technical), or to foster harmony to have a positive social influence (social). The four types of decision-making styles are analytical, behavioural, conceptual, and directive. Each approach has a unique way of analysing situations to develop alternatives and evaluating alternatives.

(a) **Analytic decision-making**

Analytic decision makers consider a lot of information before deciding. Analytic leaders rely on evidence and data to make decisions. However, unlike policy makers, analytic decision makers will seek information and advice from others to confirm or disprove their own knowledge. These decision makers are very tolerant of ambiguity and adapt easily, but they like to be in control of most aspects of the decision-making process. This approach to decision-making is well-rounded and can take some time, but it's a good way to approach the task. Analytic decision-making can help you choose the best solution in situations where there are more than one options. When faced with a problem that has a clear cause and effect, use decision-making approach to figure out the best course of action. You're using this approach to explore several options and acting based on the facts.

In this style, leaders need to analyse all the information available to them before deciding on a course of action. Having a team of industry experts to help make analytic decisions is beneficial, but leaders need to be open to conflicting advice and ideas. At the same time, decision makers need to consider non-specialist perspectives in order to make the most of analytical decision-making.

(b) **Behavioural decision-making**

Behavioural decision makers attempt to make sure all people work well together. Behavioural decision-making is group-orientated; however, in preference to brainstorming potential solutions, the group is given the alternatives available to them. From there, the group discusses the pros and cons of each preference. This style considers many different outlooks and critiques in the process.

The behavioural decision maker calls for proactive communication. A greater introspective method by discussing options that have been used in the past as opposed to trying to observe new patterns. Leaders need to open up multiple options for communication. Again, create corporations of those who can contribute their reviews and encourage democratic discussions. When using the behavioural decision-making style, don't simply impose a path of action. Instead, examine what decision creates the maximum concord inside the agency.

(c) **Conceptual decision-making**

This style is more social and considers the perspectives of others. Conceptual decision makers value creativity and collaboration, and they look at a broad range of perspectives when making decisions. These decision makers are achievement-oriented and like to think about the future when making important decisions. This style is best suited for situations where there is a lot of uncertainty. In these scenarios, there is no easy answer, but over time, patterns emerge. Using a conceptual decision-making style can help you plan for the future and consider unknown variables. For conceptual decision-making to be effective, leaders must create an environment that encourages experimentation to uncover instructive patterns over time. In addition, leaders should pay attention to increasing interaction and communication. Group together people who can contribute innovative ideas and help with the development and delivery of complex project decisions. Patience is key, and leaders need to give themselves time for reflection.

(d) **Directive decision-making**

On the basis of what they already know, directive decision makers often weigh the advantages and disadvantages of a situation. Decision makers who make directive decisions are very rational but feel uncomfortable with high degree of ambiguity. Instead of seeking for further information from others, their conclusions are based on their own knowledge, experience, and reasoning. The benefits of this technique are speedy decision-making, unambiguous ownership, and minimal additional communication. This decision-making method is effective in stable situations with known patterns and events. When making a judgement about how to act, save your decisions for situations where there is an unambiguous and evident cause-and-effect link. In other words, where everyone agrees on the correct response. A decision maker needs to be aware of the situation and determine if it calls for a direct decision. If so, they need to respond accordingly. You need to make sure you have in place specific best practices for recurring processes. As you sort through the situation, remember to ask yourself: Is this my decision? Do I have all the information I need to make this decision? When delegating work, be sure to communicate clearly and directly with your team. It is the leader's job to understand when extensive interactive communication is not required and to make immediate decisions based on the information they already have.

4.1.4 Group Decision-Making in Projects

As a project manager you have to have group decision-making capability. One of the principle difficulties with making decisions in groups is deciding how to make the decision. Group decision-making is an effective management tool in the

projects as people tend to resist what is forced upon them and support what they help to create (Kirytopoulos et al., 2010). There are four alternatives observed while making decisions in groups: get inputs from group and make the decision; delegate the decision to someone in the group; make decision through majority vote; make decision by consensus.

The Vroom-Yetton leadership model (Vroom & Yetton, 1973) suggests that the decision-making style should take into consideration: correctness of the decision, required level of commitment and the time available to make decision.

Table 4.2 shows four styles of group decision-making that are used in different decision environment along with their advantages and disadvantages.

When using the command style, the leader makes a decision for a group with very little input from the participants of that group. The members might also offer unique statistics on request, however are not requested to make contributions to find a solution. In the consultative style, the decision maker seeks input and recommendation from the group. The leader then makes the final decision by herself/himself. In consensus style, the leader seeks inputs and advice from a group and works via the decision-making process with the group, till each member of the group can 'stay with' the final decision that is made. When using the majority vote, the decision is made by means of choosing the alternative which has more votes from the participants of the group.

Table 4.2 Styles of group decision-making

Name	Description	Advantages	Disadvantages
Command	The leader decides on her/his own	The decision is made quickly	The group members have little or no commitment to the decision
Consultative	The leader decides on her/his own the leader seeks input and advice from the group	The decision is more likely to meet the need of the group then with the command style	Some or all of the group members may still disagree with the decision that has been made
Consensus	The group decides The leader acts as a guide to the group	High degree commitment to the decision by all members of the group members, as they are actively involved in the process	The time required to make a decision and the associated cost of people's time
Majority voting	The group decides The leader acts as a facilitator to the group	Simple and intuitive, brings quickly large number of people in on a single decision with minimum cost	Can lead to tyranny of the majority, a group may vote for other purposes then to resolve a substantive issue

4.1.5 Biases in Decision-Making

Decision-making is important to being successful as a project manager. It is something we do (as project manager) everyday as we juggle schedules, resources, risks, and other critical success factors for the project. We have been taught for decades that decision-making need to be rational, looking at all viable information and logically arriving at the appropriate solution. But current research in psychology has shown us how the brain truly arrives at choices, and it is not as logical as we would like to think. The more we understand how our brains arrive at conclusions, the better our capability to make greater rational choices.

There are five areas, especially where flaws in decision-making arise:

- Errors in logic.
- False assumptions.
- Unreliable memories.
- Mistaking the symptom for the problem.
- Biases.

In this section, we will discuss about cognitive biases. What are cognitive biases and how they be impacting your decision-making? Project managers need to deal with various kind of influences, including unconscious biases that could deceive them into making the incorrect decisions. As a project manager, decision-making is a big a part of your responsibilities. But how do you know that you're making the right decisions with the data which you have? Everyone has biases, no matter how shrewd, well knowledgeable, or skilled they are. These biases will often lead individuals towards making the wrong choices because of their feelings, reminiscences, or preconceptions about the way things ought to be. Being aware about your cognitive biases is step one in the direction of defeating them. Here are eight of the common biases that individuals will stumble upon, similarly to the quality ways to defeat them.

4.1.5.1 Confirmation Bias

A confirmation bias occurs when you look only at the *positive evidence* regarding a situation, while neglecting any *negative evidence.* In some situations, you may avoid looking into negative evidence altogether. Confirmation biases occur throughout project management. Project managers may only seek *positive information* that tells them they are going to meet their deadlines, while ignoring *negative news* that could indicate that they are falling behind. Our minds prefer the status quo: We don't want to have to make changes or alter our decision-making patterns, so we simply 'write out' contradictory information from our reality. This can lead to vastly different outcomes than we expect.

To defeat confirmation bias, you must always be willing to question your own beliefs, and you must be open to change. If there's something that you assume to be true, you need to be mindful, and seek out information to the contrary—no matter how certain you are of your beliefs.

4.1.5.2 Information Bias

Information bias stems from the belief that more information is always more valuable—and that every single avenue needs to be explored. One of the first steps towards investigating any change should always be to determine the scope of that change. Exploring information outside of that scope is going to be a waste of resources, ultimately leading to a costly, bloated, and time-consuming process. In a world of data, information bias is becoming extraordinarily harmful.

4.1.5.3 Self-serving Bias

We always perform well, and others always fail. This is a self-serving bias that shows us in the best light and everyone else in the worse (Boyes, 2013). It's easy for a project manager to see that their team is working hard and trying their best. Consequently, it is easy to assume that it was the team's work that led to a successful project, while it was *someone else's fault* that led to a failure.

Self-serving bias is also often seen in interpersonal relationships. Project managers may always assume the worst of their team members (they didn't do their work because they were *lazy*) while team members may assume the worst of their project managers (they moved the deadlines because *they want to look good*). In general, both work and personal relationships work best if every individual treats the other with the *best possible* interpretation of their actions. This can be achieved by creating a friendlier, more personal team culture.

4.1.5.4 Over Optimism

It is easy to be overly optimistic when it comes to project management. Project managers will often report the *best possible case* when discussing results and strategies, and this can ultimately lead to a failure to perform up to the level that was promised. Project managers need to temper their enthusiasm and remember that there are a multitude of issues that could occur that could delay or otherwise adversely impact the project.

Over optimism does not stem from an attempt to mislead clients into thinking that production will be faster, or to placate upper management. Instead, over optimism is just a natural human mechanic, by which we assume that things are going to go well. Historically, they often have not which is why estimates should usually be rendered using historical data and updating them for the current time. If projects of a certain type are frequently delayed (such as by logistics, shipping, or third-party vendors), this needs to be factored in. Over optimism bias is the reason why estimates are almost always inaccurate?

4.1.5.5 Status-Quo Bias

In this cognitive bias, it is simply assumed that whatever you are already doing is the best way to do things. Subconsciously, you may react negatively to any suggestion of change, simply because change brings risk with it. Most people prefer things to stay the same. It makes sense; change can lead to unexpected problems down the line. However, in the modern world, businesses have to change and so do project managers. New strategies and tools are constantly coming out,

and companies that do not take advantage of them and evolve are going to be left behind.

4.1.5.6 Bandwagon Effect

In psychological studies, it has been found that people will often agree to a solution that they know is incorrect simply because others have selected it. Project managers need to be conscious about the bandwagon effect and they need to note when it appears to be happening on their team. As a project manager, you need to be acutely aware of what is happening during decision-making and whether it's truly best for the project.

4.1.5.7 The Abilene Paradox

There is another, more insidious, form of the bandwagon effect, which is called the 'Abilene paradox'. In the Abilene paradox, a need to conform leads a team towards something that *none of them* want to do. It is called this due to the 'bus to Abilene' example.

In this example, a family is trying to decide what to do on the weekend. The father asks, 'Do you want to go to Abilene?' hoping that the mother doesn't want to. The mother, being supportive of the father, agrees quite readily, 'Yes, let's go to Abilene!' Soon after, the daughter and son, too, agree to go to Abilene, wishing to keep their parents happy. Once they all get to Abilene, they have a dreadful time, and each of them turns to the other stating, 'I didn't even want to go to Abilene! You did!'. In truth, none of them did.

This is an even more disastrous form of the band wagon effect—and it occurs due to a complete communication breakdown. One individual will suggest a solution to a problem that they themselves don't desire—and seeking to be a team player, another will double down on the suggestion. At this point, the true bandwagon effect kicks in, ultimately leading to a solution that absolutely no one thought was correct.

4.1.5.8 The Survivorship Bias

In survivorship bias, it becomes easy to look at successful individuals and successful projects and assume that major characteristics of them are what made them successful. In fact, looking at what is successful is not useful unless you're also looking at failures.

All the best entrepreneurs quit school—so that must mean that quitting school is the most important part of being an entrepreneur. This is an example of the survivorship bias. Many entrepreneurs made it big by taking a leap and investing everything they had into a start-up, but that doesn't mean that many people didn't do the exact same thing and fail. Without the survivorship bias, it may not be 'quitting and making a start-up' that is the commonality; it may be 'luck' or even 'having liquid funds'.

By comparing your successful projects to your failures, you get a better idea of what was truly different between them. This allows you to pare down to the most successful strategies, rather than simply assuming that your successful projects

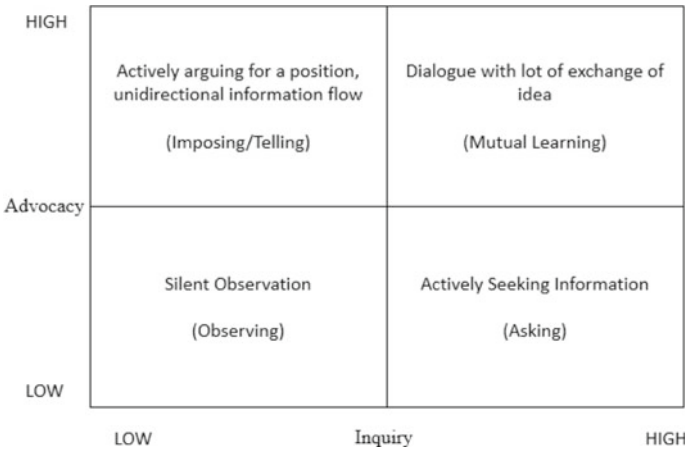

Fig. 4.2 Inquiry-advocacy matrix. Adapted from Gomez (2018)

did everything correct from the outset. There is often substantially more to learn from failed projects and failed organizations than there is to learn from successful ones, as success can simply occur due to the stars aligning and due to nothing particularly going wrong.

4.1.6 Communicating Decisions

One of the effective means of communicating is using the advocacy-inquiry matrix tool. The fundamental difference between the approach of advocacy and the inquiry stance of communicating is that the inquiry mode focuses on curiosity, open-mindedness, and willingness to listen. Contrastingly advocacy depends on confidence, assertion, and a predecided position. Figure 4.2 shows advocacy-inquiry matrix, which will help you to determine right communication style, to communicate the decision.

As a project manager, you should make a conscious effort to select appropriate communication style, to communicate the decision to the project team. It is important to move out of your comfort zone and work with your non-preferred choice of communication style.

4.2 Summary

In this chapter, we focused on understanding decision-making in a project environment. Based on the Cynefix framework, we classified decisions into four overarching types based on context: simple, complicated, complex, and chaotic. Decisions can also be classified based on information, judgment, and the degree

of participation. Different decision-making styles were discussed primarily based on ambiguity and people focus, and four styles of group decision-making based on the Vroom-Yetton leadership model. Since decision makers in the project environment may also suffer certain biases due to human limitations, we also appraised the reader with eight common biases that can befall. The art of communicating the decision is equally important as the taking decision so the chapter concluded by providing appropriate styles of communicating decisions aided by the advocacy-inquiry matrix.

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Part II
Managing Teams

Understanding Teams

5

Learning Objectives
After reviewing the chapter, you will:

- Understand the difference between teams and groups
- Make distinction among different types of teams
- Define functions of teams in organizations.

Uma's First Experience as a Team Lead…
Uma received an email message from her superior asking her to attend a meeting at 3 pm today. Uma wondered what it is about and reflected on her work with the just finished project. She was working on the project as a team member and the project attracted the attention of the senior management due to its strategic importance. Uma, as usual, was fully committed to the project. She is a good team player, takes initiative, and has an optimistic disposition to challenging and difficult problems and situations. This cooperative stance and ability to work with others impressed the project manager and earned her trust. As a result, the project manager frequently interacted with Uma seeking her suggestions and gave her higher responsibilities. Uma welcomed these changes and lived up to expectations of all the project team members and the project manager. Throughout the project execution, Uma placed a great emphasis on team harmony and worked well with internal and external stakeholders of the project.

With all these issues in mind, Uma thought that the meeting at 3 pm would perhaps be about officially recognizing her performance. Overcoming these lingering thoughts, Uma walked into the 3 pm meeting and was surprised to see a group of senior management officials greeting her with a warm welcome. While recognizing and commending her performance on the just concluded project, Uma was informed that she would be the team lead for the next project that is still in a formative stage.

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Uma was asked to select five to six team members and start developing the team to ensure that a concrete initial project plan proposal is developed that includes project goals, their alignment with the corporate strategic objectives in terms of exploring new markets and increasing the revenue.

All these days, Uma has been focusing on her job alone and now her focus is shifted to see the big picture. Furthermore, she will be managing a group of people for the first time. Uma realized that she must do a lot of things such as developing team processes, defining roles and responsibilities for all the team members, understanding the role of the team and its interdependent existence within the confines of the organization structure. It is going to be quite a challenge, Uma thought.

The basis of forming an organization is to assemble people to work together for a common purpose. Usually, any organization is managed by formation of divisions, departments, task forces, groups, and teams for efficiency and effectiveness. When referring to people working together in an organization or outside of it, these collaborative efforts are often referred to terms such as groups and teams. A study by Watson (2014) suggests that successful organizations encourage informal and collaborative relationships to promote team culture at the organization level.

Being a member of a team is the norm of work life and it is unavoidable. The ability to work with other individuals and in teams is a critical competency that employers often look for in hiring decisions. Perhaps, one may think that only discipline-specific skills are considered for selection and recruitment. However, selection on the basis of technical skills alone may be a thing of the past. Good organizations look for one's ability to work with others collaboratively and to communicate effectively. Discipline-specific skills are essential but not sufficient. Studies show that people lose their jobs often for lack of interpersonal skills.

5.1 Theoretical and Practical Foundations of Teams

We often use terms groups and teams interchangeably. However, teams and groups are different. Often, a group's purpose could be same as that of an organization, but purpose of a team may be different. A group can itself be an organization. Nonetheless, it is important to understand the difference between groups and teams before discussing various types of teams and their characteristics.

5.2 Groups

A group consists of two or more people with a common relationship. It is important to note that groups come together either in an organization or outside of it. Community groups for voluntary services, for fun, or social cause are often formed outside formal corporate structures. As you may realize by now, groups are integral to our lives to provide security, and to support our peaceful co-existence.

Groups bring people together and present opportunities to interact socially, manage complexity, and facilitate an exchange of experience, knowledge, and wisdom.

In the context of an organization, a group can also be formal or informal, official or unofficial, task oriented or relationship oriented or both, permanent or temporary, and co-located or physically dispersed. Divisions and departments are formal groups, and they are often associated with formal structures such as business organizations and associations. Informal groups such as communities of practice and informal networks, in addition to formal work groups, are often integral to organizations. In fact, informal groups are more effective in accomplishing organizational goals.

People with similar or common interests and work ethics tend to join informal networks voluntarily in organizations. They work together to help each other to increase job satisfaction and improve their productivity. Although informal social interactions are voluntary, research suggests that the organizational structure influences the structure of informal networks. National cultures also influence the structure, incidence, and cohesiveness of informal structures. It is easy and natural to form informal networks in countries like Japan and India, whereas it could be different in individualistic societies like the USA. Working groups in organizations consist of people who do not necessarily depend on each other and do not share a common goal. However, working groups share information and knowledge to do their jobs better. However, informal networks can have both positive and negative impact on the organization.

Outside the organization structure, the most natural and common informal group is the family. In general, informal groups set their own governing principles and goals. Every one of us belongs to a group or a few informal groups.

5.3 Teams

Teams are usually comprised of a small number of people with complementary skills working together with a common purpose and commitment towards a goal. A team always has a shared obligation or commitment. We find various definitions of a team in the literature (Table 5.1).

A few common factors of a team can be discerned from the above definitions. Each team are characterized with a common purpose or goal, and interdependence due to mutual accountability and collective responsibility. Teams usually represent diverse skills, share information, and make collaborative efforts to achieve their goal. A team is defined as *a selected formal group of individuals with diverse and complimentary skills who are required to work together collaboratively for a predetermined period and are collectively responsible to meet a specific purpose or goal* (Anantatmula, 2016).

Table 5.1 Team definitions

Definition	Source
A team is 'a group of individuals with mutual accountability that work interdependently to solve problems or carry out work'	Kirkman and Mathieu (2005, 701)
A team is 'a group of individuals who work together under a unity of purpose, as a united front'	Kezsbom (1995, 480)
A team is 'a small number of people with complimentary skills who are committed to a common purpose, set of performance goals, and approach for which they hold themselves mutually accountable'	Katzenbach and Smith (1993, 112)
A team is 'a collection of individuals who are interdependent in their tasks, who share responsibility for outcomes, who see themselves and who are seen by others as an intact social entity embedded in one or more larger social systems, and who manage their relationship across organizational boundaries'	Cohen and Bailey (1997, 241)
Teaming is 'an act that occurs whenever two or more people communicate with each other, formally or informally, in an enabling environment characterized by individual innovation and collective consensus'	Shuster (1999, 196)

Source Anantatmula (2016), *Project Teams*

5.4 Differences Between Groups and Teams

Unlike groups, which are formed voluntarily, teams are selected, and they are explicitly designed to meet specific goals of the organization. Needless to say, teams usually exist in formal organization structures. The organization's structure, culture, power, authority, and politics influence a team's effectiveness and efficiency.

Teams are disbanded after the goal is achieved. On the other hand, groups are usually formed on a long-term basis as compared to teams, and they last much longer than teams. It is common to find that project teams for construction, engineering, and software development are disbanded after the project goals are accomplished and team members are assigned to new projects. However, an operational unit of the project deliverable such as construction of an airport, which is formed during the final stages of its project continues to exist as a group as long as the airport is operating. Teams are distinct as compared to other groups; a team is characterized by a group of individuals for their accountability, specific roles and responsibilities, interdependent and interrelated tasks, and collective performance. Also, teams can be quickly assembled, deployed, refocused, and disbanded. The essential features of teams and groups are captured in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2 Differences between groups and teams

Groups	Teams
Focused, strong leader	Shared and collective leadership
Individual responsibility and accountability	Individual and collective accountability
Group and organization's purposes are same	Team purpose is different from organizations
Structured and efficient meetings	Open-ended and problem-solving meetings
Individual performance and outcome	Collective performance and outcome
Long-term duration	Teams are disbanded after achieving the goal

Source Adapted from Katzenbach and Smith (1993)

Groups generally places emphasis on individual performance and hence strong leadership is essential to provide guidance to integrate and enhance collective performance of the group. Another reason for leadership's crucial role is that it often is established outside the boundaries of organizational structures and associated formal norms. Teams, on the other hand, focus on collective performance, participative decision-making, and collective accountability for results. A matured and ideal team is self-managed and performs at a high level.

5.5 Types of Teams

Teams perform together synchronously or asynchronously. In other words, they perform together or perform one after the other. Time (period of performance) is the different and distinct aspect between the two. Team sports like soccer, and basketball perform synchronously or simultaneously; they help each other, and mutual support and teamwork synergy are critical for success. A classic example of synchronous team effort is surgery wherein five key team members—surgeon, anaesthesiologist, certified registered nurse anaesthetist (CRNA), operating nurse, and surgical technologist—work together while playing their roles individually to the perfection.

However, their individual skills and competencies are different, but they complement each other in fulfilling their goal. Roles and responsibilities are unique for each team member. Collective leadership and collective accountability are the norms for these teams.

On the other hand, there are teams that perform asynchronously to achieve their common goal. Individual performance of each member helps everyone, and their tasks are not performed concurrently. For example, 4X100 relay teams practice together, receive coaching together, and work together to accomplish their goal. However, they perform separately although each one's performance helps the other and supports the team goal.

In the industrial context, production and operation teams are similar to relay teams. Teams work in shifts and pass on the responsibility of their work to the incoming team who perform similar tasks. Continuous production units like power

generation, chemical processing plants, oil refineries belong to this category. Likewise, operation units like hospitals, fire stations, airports, and other transportation systems work like relay teams.

Among the synchronous teams or teams where all the team members simultaneously, some teams may have members with similar skills and responsibilities. Workload is almost equal in these teams. A few agile project teams fall in this category. Team members can substitute each other and perform any or all the tasks required to accomplish the goal.

Thus, teams can be virtual teams, project teams, production teams, and domain-specific teams in organizations to enhance productivity and delegate accountability. Of these, project teams assume greater importance as project goals or deliverables are tied to organizational objectives and strategic goals.

5.6 Importance of Project Teams

Project teams can be traditional co-located teams, virtual teams, and global project teams. Virtual teams are geographically dispersed either nationally or internationally, whereas global project teams are often virtual teams in which team members are dispersed geographically across national boundaries. In both cases, interaction and communication among the project teams take place electronically. The geographical distance in a virtual team can vary widely. Sometimes, people from different divisions of the same organization, located in different buildings, can be part of a virtual team.

Projects, by definition, are unique and are often associated with uncertainties and unknowns. Projects are managed using teams in a work environment that is complex for two reasons: first, each project is unique, and second, conditions for team selection and motivation are often far from ideal (Anantatmula, 2016). In addition to uniqueness and complexity, unfamiliarity is often described as one of

the characteristics of projects and as a result, projects are often associated with change. Consequently, successful project performance requires strong leadership, which provides vision and ability to cope with change.

Due to uncertainties and complexity, it is reasonable to assume that in project management, it is not if the plans will change, it is when, what will change, and by how much. If anything is constant in a project, it is the change. When changes are significant in a project, which is often the case, leadership role assumes greater importance. Leadership has its efforts directed towards convincing people about the need to change, aligning them to a new direction, and motivating people to work together to achieve project objectives under difficult and demanding work environments (Anantatmula, 2010).

Obviously, projects are executed in teams as they demand diverse skills, expertise, and collaborative effort to complete it successfully and to overcome challenges associated with projects. Motivating the project team involves getting the team members to do the tasks that need to be done, not because they have to do them but because they understand the value of their work to the overall success of the project, and they want to do them. If people want to do what we need to have them do, their commitment is bound to be greater, and the job is likely to be accomplished much better than if they were being forced to do the work.

Project managers must understand the personal aspirations of project team members and support them. The project manager's leadership skills play an important role in motivating and guiding the project team to grow as professionals while accomplishing project goals at the same time. In essence, project managers should ensure that both personal and project goals are accomplished and that the conflict between these two goals is minimized (Anantatmula, 2008).

The project manager's job is to get others to do what the project manager needs them to do, not because they have to but because they want to. Empowerment means providing freedom to people (not control) so that they can successfully do what they want to do. This is very different from making them do what you want them to do. Empowerment makes sense on projects. Projects typically employ a multidisciplinary approach, requiring subject matter experts from different functional areas. Each person brings unique expertise, and experience to the project team. By letting project team members make decisions and set goals pertaining to their roles and functions, the project manager can empower the team.

Global projects employ virtual teams, and the project manager must lead these teams by playing a directive role predominantly and establishing clearly defined processes. The leadership role must be established first and clearly defined processes help in establishing trust. Decision-making presents challenges due to culture-tampered varying approaches and styles. Finally, communicating electronically requires higher competency levels in written communication and reading comprehension. Global business units often have global projects comprised of individual rollout projects in each region of the world being coordinated with an overall global timeline. An example is implementing a new SAP demand

planning application in Asia, Latin America, Europe, and North America for Procter and Gamble businesses. Therefore, one must understand the global business environment, relevant cultures, legal and political environment of the host nation.

Project team size and composition vary for traditional and agile projects, as their approach, circumstances, and issues are different. Specifically, agile project teams use rolling-wave planning to refine the deliverables as they move forward and estimate their costs, which is not the case for traditional projects. Agile project characteristics demand a project team that is unconventional and different from a traditional project team. The agile project team interacts with the client frequently, and in many situations, the client becomes a member of the agile team. Agile project teams are set up as small and co-located (when practical) teams to manage rapid changes and incremental functions to the scope. The team should be receptive, flexible, and responsive to client's requirements. Needless to say, agile teams require a higher commitment and greater collaboration from team members, as uncertainties and changes are the norm for agile projects. Issues of uncertainty and frequent changes in functional requirements foster tactics that focus on flow and value generation, action perspective for execution, and scientific experimentation model for control.

5.7 Belbin's Team Roles

Belbin (1993) defined various behavioural characteristics of the team members. These characteristics are based on whether a person is self-imposed or free-spirited, introvert or extrovert, optimistic or pessimistic, and open-minded or opinionated. Belbin defined nine team roles as shown in Table5.3).

As a team lead, you should recognize these behavioural characteristics and work on their strengths rather than focusing on their weaknesses. The challenge is to change or modify these behavioural attitudes to help in accomplishing the mission of the team. Obviously, the team manager or leader is responsible to create synergy, align individual aspirations with team goals, establish trust among team members, and lead the team to high performance level. It is a challenge.

5.8 Importance of Teams

Organizations aim to meet their strategic goals of growth, innovation, expansion of business, entry to new markets, new product development, and so forth. In the current global economy, organizations are bound to deliver products and services faster, better, and cheaper due to increased competition in the marketplace. Furthermore, organizations are motivated to reduce hierarchy for productivity gains and effectiveness. Consequently, organization structures are becoming lean and flat, which compel them to delegate authority and responsibility. Also, the global economy compels organizations to deal with complex problems and increased complexity in decision-making. Under these circumstances, individuals acting

Table 5.3 Belbin's team roles

Team role	Characteristics
Complete finisher	Self-controlled introvert, submissive and worrisome person. A conscientious person who eliminates errors but refuses to delegate
Implementer	Controlled, systematics, disciplined, and efficient person. A reliable person but inflexible to new approaches
Team worker	Loyal, extrovert and likeable, submissive and supportive person. A diplomatic, cooperative person but can be indecisive in crunch situations
Specialist	Serious, disciplined, extrovert, and an expert. A self-starting and dedicated person with a narrow focus
Monitor evaluator	Dependable, introvert, fair-minded serious person. Strategic and accurate in judging the situation and options but lacks drive and doesn't inspire others
Coordinator	Dominant, extrovert, positive, and trust-worthy person. A self-disciplined person who delegates but can be seen as manipulative
Plant	Dominant, imaginative, introvert, and trustful person. A creative problem solver but most preoccupied to communicate effectively
Shaper	Abrasive, anxious, arrogant, extrovert, and emotional person. A dynamic and courageous person who can overcome obstacles but offends feelings of others
Resource Investigator	Diplomatic, enthusiastic, optimistic, and dominant person. An extrovert who explores opportunities develops contacts but loses interest later

alone may no longer have enough knowledge and skills to make decisions. These challenges underscore the importance of teams, specifically project teams.

Food for thought

- *If you are asked to choose members for your team, what are the criteria for selecting them?*
- *How do you establish trust and generate synergy in your teams?*

5.9 Summary

While groups are usually formed voluntarily, teams are developed to meet specific goals of the organization. The organization's structure, culture, power, authority, and politics influence a team's effectiveness and efficiency. Projects are essentially executed using teams which comprise of people representing diverse skills and functions. Project team size depends on the type and size of the project. Teams can be co-located, geographically dispersed or virtual. Team members are assigned

different roles and together and can accomplish more due to cohesion and coordination among the team members. Agile project teams differ from teams that manage traditional projects.

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Dealing with Diverse Teams

6

Learning Objectives
After reviewing the chapter, you will:

- understand the influence of motivation on team effectiveness
- recognize behavioural issues and their impact on team performance
- understand how to overcome negative actions and conflicts
- develop an understanding of generational differences and their impact on relations
- distinguish between management and leadership roles
- recognize the importance of leadership role to establish trust.

Uma's Leadership Challenges
Uma did not have full liberty to choose team members. She had to summon up all her negotiating skills to bargain with functional managers in selecting her team. These negotiations were not always successful. Consequently, Uma was joined by a few people whom she preferred to be on her team and a few others who were not her first choice. I will have to make the best out of resources that I have, Uma thought. There are a couple of team members who are not interested in joining this team; needless to say, they are neither excited nor interested in working with the team. Uma started thinking about some of the motivational practices that she has learned over a period of time. Uma also noticed that a few others in the team belonged to Gen Y and their approach to teamwork and the organization seem different. These generational differences, if not managed well, might impact the team harmony, synergy, and may create a few interpersonal conflicts. While team performance and efficacy largely depend on her management skills, Uma recognized that she has to employ her leadership skills to motivate the team and to establish trust among the team members. Uma is determined to resolve these new challenges.

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Nature of projects is such that its tasks demand skills and experience from multiple disciplines. Needless to say, teams are essential in planning and executing projects and collaborative and synergetic efforts of people representing multiple disciplines are essential. Ideally, a project teamwork towards unified and collective effort by creating a harmonious relation among the team members. However, the presence of a healthy conflict promotes creativity and innovation. It is easier said than done, particularly, not an easy goal in an ever-increasing diversity in workplace. As such, project teams are comprised of individuals with varying personality types, different skills and disciplines, experience, motivations, values, ethics, and attitudes. It is quite a challenge to develop effective and efficient project teams.

Prevailing work culture in the organization and the project team, individual, and organizational behavioural issues, diversity of workforce and associated divergent work ethics, and working styles influence team performance. Further, workforce in any organization comprises of people from different generations—such as Baby Boomers, Generation, X, Y, and Millennials—present divergent work habits and values like dedication, discipline, and loyalty toward the employing organization. Obviously, workplace diversity influences team effectiveness cohesion. It is important to capitalize on cultural and demographic diversities to create dynamic and productive workforce while defeating negative group behaviours and conflicts. The project manager's management and leadership roles assume great importance in nurturing individual and team growth.

6.1 Theoretical and Practical Foundations of the Concepts

Often, project teams are comprised of individuals representing diverse disciplines, work experience and skills. From a behavioural perspective, team members also comprise of different personality types, values, ethics, and attitudes. Under these circumstances, it is quite a challenge to develop effective and efficient project teams.

6.2 Motivation

It is obvious from the above discussion that motivation among the team members differs widely based on an individual's desire to excel in their professional discipline and their desire to be recognized among their peers and seniors. Therefore, motivation for an individual and a team's effectiveness and efficiency comes from two distinct and different aspects; they are task-related and people-related motivations. The task-related motivation is derived from the project goals to complete the project scope within the specified cost and time while satisfying customer and end-user needs. Additionally, an individual's task-related motivation is also driven by honing one's task-related skills for career progression. The people-related motivation is an outcome of individual's need for recognition among peers and aspiration

for harmony in workplace. Ability to work with a team is a critical attribute for an individual's sustenance and growth in the corporate world. Together, task- and people-related motivations help in developing a cohesive team that can accomplish project goals.

Thus, the project planning and team development should occur as an integrated process for project success. Needless to say, both the task-related and people-related motivations are equally important in developing project teams. The relative emphasis on people- or task-related motivations or a combination of the both will depend on individuals and the team. Nevertheless, motivating people to work towards their individual and project goals is likely to result in team success and deliver desired results.

Traditionally, project management focused on task-related aspects and organizations excelled at achieving task-related project management issues by developing and applying sophisticated project management tools, techniques, processes, and practices to develop a comprehensive project plan including scope, schedule, cost, and risk management plans. However, focus on people-related issues has gained importance in the last two decades. Past research underlined the value of a committed project team and underlined the necessity to continue team building throughout the project due to the transient nature of project teams.

6.3 Team Development

With the COVID-19 pandemic, virtual teams are in vogue throughout the world and they present different behavioural challenges. For example, research on social psychology suggests that people are inclined to classify other people and things into either *same* or *different* (Wildman & Griffith, 2015). Our innate tendency to interpret unfamiliarity (*difference*) as a threat may impact collaboration and unfamiliarity often leads to a series of undesirable attitudes and behaviours. This factor alone can manifest into a serious challenge in managing teams where diversity and cultural differences are present. Obviously, we look for and align with people of similar age group, same language, same geographical location, similar profession, and so on. It is natural because we are generally more comfortable with familiarity and tend to be on a quest for familiarity in unfamiliar situations and places. These characteristics are inherent for all global project teams and are becoming common in all virtual teams.

It is important for project managers to identify and nurture the *same* aspect among the team members during initial stages of the project team development to speed up the process of team cohesion and coordination. Understanding these social and behavioural skills is critical in developing a productive team. During the forming or initial stages of team, individuals do not instantly become cohesive and unified. Each person's personal history dictates one's self-perceptions and exhibited behaviours in social settings. Individuals use these learned behaviours to influence others and to be influenced as well. As teams mature, the emotional reactions of team members tend to synchronize eventually.

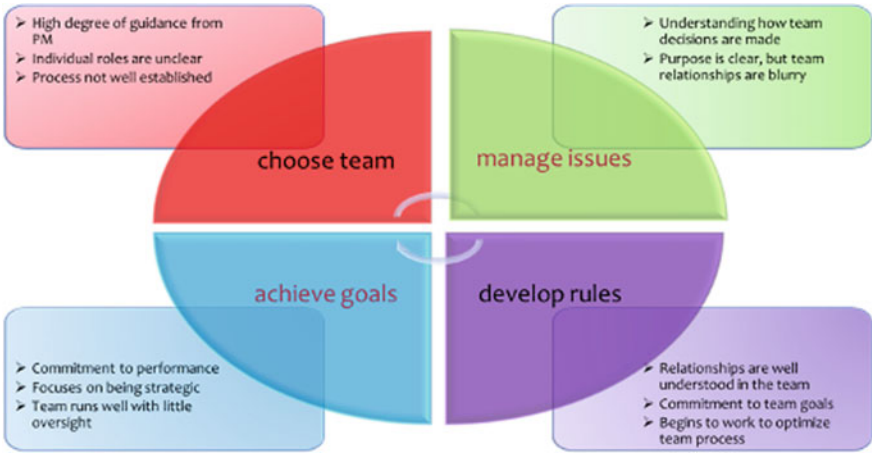

Fig. 6.1 Team development process

Before discussing the behavioural stages of a team, it is important to understand various phases of team development (Fig. 6.1). In the beginning phase '*choose team*', team members are selected but their roles are not defined yet and team processes are not developed or understood. For these reasons, project manager is required to provide high degree of guidance and direction to support the team.

In the next phase of team development '*manage issues*', the team purpose becomes clear and to some extend team members understand how decisions are made. As team members are still unfamiliar with each other, relations among the team members are hazy. The project manager will continue to provide direction and work towards team cohesion by monitoring negative emotions and controlling them and encouraging open and transparent communication within the team.

As the team moves to '*develop rules*' phase, the project manager will have a better understanding of strengths, skills, and professional aspirations of team members. It is desirable to use this information to the extent possible in assigning roles and responsibilities of all team members. Familiarity among the team members increases in this phase as the team charter is developed which state communication protocols, behavioural norms, punctuality, work ethics, workplace etiquettes, and conflict resolution. A commitment to the project team goals is a major outcome during this phase. Team processes are defined and understood. Consequently, the project manager transitions from directing the team to facilitating teamwork.

Finally, the team enters '*achieve goals*' phase wherein teams are self-managed and committed to higher levels of performance. All the team members understand the big picture and strategic direction. The project manager transitions into facilitating role and supports the team as and when a deviation from the plan occurs. The project manager assigns greater importance to leadership role rather than management role. The sooner the team reaches this phase, the better it is for the project team to accomplish its goals.

6.4 Behavioural Issues

Members join the project team at different stages of individual behaviour. Five stages are identified, which denote gradual transition for individual focus to team focus. These stages (Adams & Anantatmula, 2010) are described as under:

1. *Self-identity* of a person and the development of social skills begin at birth with family interactions. The individual strives to learn acceptable social skills, which are unique to his family structure, ethnic culture, and socioeconomic situation.
2. *Social identity* is the process of deriving one's self-perceptions from an affiliation with a group. An individual, who is associated with a strong and positive group, would internalize the positive attributes of the group as part of his self-identity.
3. *Group emotion*: Personal emotions can be elevated to a group level to transform into group emotion. Positive emotions—such as happiness and compassion—will lead to group closeness and bind the group together. Negative emotions, such as anger and jealousy, will increase anxiety and fear and lead to a desire for avoidance and a disassociation from the group identity.
4. *Group mood* is a natural extension of group emotion that moves teams to the next level. Emotions are temporary, quick, and reactive, whereas moods last for an extended period of time.
5. *Emotional intelligence*: As teams continue to mature, group mood can be elevated even further to the level of emotional intelligence. When a team reaches a state of emotional intelligence, individuals learn not only to observe and mimic but also to harness and control the team's emotions to influence their thought processes.

Many may join the team at self-identity stage, and some others may join the team at social identity behavioural stage. A few others may join the team at higher levels. A project manager must understand the behavioural stage of each team member from "choosing the team" phase to 'achieve goals' phase to develop synergy in the team. For this purpose, the style of managing and leading team members would differ at individual and team levels and every phase (Fig. 6.2).

As noted in figure above, the project manager's role and strategy in building team cohesion and improving performance changes at every stage. Finally, emotional intelligence is necessary for project teams to improve performance and success. Three essential conditions are identified for a group's effectiveness (Druskat & Wolff, 2001): trust among members, a sense of group identity, and a sense of group efficacy. As we can understand, teams are involved in multiple interactions at different levels, and hence, team emotional intelligence is intricate compared to individual emotional intelligence. Furthermore, individual emotional intelligence is focused inward, whereas a group emotional intelligence focus is outward. The project manager and team members must pay attention to emotions of all the members of the team.

Social/Behavioral Stage	Individual/Team Characteristics	Effective Management Style	Project Manager's Role
Self Identity Forming Stage	Focus on self Low team cohesion	High directive management	• Meet one-on-one to assess skill levels • Use assertive social behaviors to establish leadership • Establish clear social and behavioral rules and expectations • Encourage politeness • Demonstrate intolerance for minority bias and non-acceptance of ideas
Social Identity Storming Stage	Focus on team member Low team cohesion	High directive, low supportive management	• Demonstrate positive emotions to convey leadership • Address negative behaviors that result in power or status struggles • Maintain awareness of an individual's tendency to withdraw from team • Match the individual's social and behavioral attributes to meaningful tasks
Group Emotion Norming stage	Focus team with a shift to team process Medium team cohesion	Medium directive and supportive management	• Encourage formation of friendships • Create opportunities for increased interaction on virtual teams • Maintain personal positive emotion to maintain leadership status • Encourage positive emotions and discourage negative emotions
Group Mood Norming stage Performing Stage	Focus on team process Medium team cohesion	Low directive, high supportive management	• Monitor the team for signs of emerging negative behaviors and high/low emotional states • Intervene when negative behaviors are exhibited • Maintain awareness of social loafing tendencies
Emotional Intelligence Performing Stage	Focus on the individual's thoughts High team cohesion Team as one entity	Team is self-managed	• Monitor team behaviors and promote creativity • Maintain team awareness of project mission • Minimize intervention to allow for natural progression of team process

Fig. 6.2 Management of behavior. *Source* Anantatmula and Shrivastav (2012)

6.5 Conflict

Defining roles and responsibilities of project team members without ambiguity would encourage teamwork and reduce conflict. Clear assignments of roles and responsibilities without clarity or overlapping responsibilities are critical to avoid people-related conflicts thereby eliminating the need of conflict resolution. Consequently, the team can focus on achieving productivity gains and improving team performance. Matching skills and expertise with roles and responsibilities would lead to the effective use of project team members. It would also help functional managers in the organization to have a better understanding of the project requirements so that they can extend support to projects and project managers. Clear definition of roles and responsibilities will also help in establishing an environment of trust among the project team members. A research study (Anantatmula, 2008) showed that defining project processes and roles is the first and most important step for managing and leading project teams and projects successfully.

6.6 Culture

Teamwork culture denotes organizational behaviour, social behaviour, practices, beliefs, work ethics, and values of team members. Obviously, managing cultural differences is a challenge even when a homogenous group of people are working together due to differences in their beliefs, attitudes, and work ethics. Added to that, the corporate workforce is becoming increasingly dispersed and diverse in

the present global economy. Cultural and ethnic diversity in workforce hinder our efforts to sustain and promote an organization culture that is acceptable to one and all.

Several past studies identified culture as a cause of project failure. It is true for global projects where one will have to deal with multiple cultures. The project manager must be aware of and understand how culture can and will impact the project performance. If cultural differences are not managed well in teams, they will become dysfunctional.

It is common knowledge that culture begins at home for current and future generations to develop shared values, perceptions, customs, and behaviours. So, within the same geographical region culture could be different as the origin for culture is family. However, some common cultural values exist at a society level. Also, differences in race, religion, gender, and even age can create cultural differences, and such differences can be found within the family and among neighbours.

Culture can be defined as the behaviours and beliefs of a particular social, ethnic, or age group. From project management perspective, it is the work culture of the project team, which is a subset of the culture of the organization in which the project team is functioning. An organization work culture is shared beliefs, values, and practices of individuals or groups in an organization that influence norms and behaviour of both individuals and groups of that organization. Organizational culture is developed over a period of time, and it is a gradual and slow process but once developed, it is equally slow to change.

Past research classified culture of various countries as high context and low context (Hall, 1984). In a *high-context* culture, contextual elements help people to understand the unwritten and unspoken rules. One cannot take the literary meaning of what people from the high-context culture say. First, you must understand unspoken and unwritten rules are. Countries with a long history and traditions such as China, India, Japan, France, Germany, Spain, and France fall into this category. In a *low-context culture*, what you say is what you mean; there are no hidden messages and the chances of misunderstanding are minimal. Countries like the USA, Canada, Australia, and the Netherlands fall into this category.

A variant of high- or low-context culture is the language of a society and its history. Almost every language influences the communication style and it might fall within the range of either explicit or implicit communication style. People in the USA communicate explicitly, that is, characterized with low-context messages, whereas people from some of the ancient societies such as Spain, India, and Japan communicate implicitly, and messages are to be understood in the context.

In the project management context or while managing a global project team of diverse cultures representing heterogeneity, it is preferable to assume low-context culture to avoid miscommunication. In other words, what you say is what you mean and there are no code words or hidden meanings for what you say. However, when managing a project team that is co-located and culturally homogeneous, you may embrace the resident culture that could be either high or low context.

These cultural differences also manifest in the form of nonverbal communication and listening skills. To be an effective communicator or a successful project team lead in this global economy of diverse cultures and many languages, it is important to learn about the context culture of the context or work site and how your verbal and non-verbal communication will be perceived. It is worth investing your time and effort in developing a comprehensive understanding of the multiple nations. Obviously, you need to build relations before understanding these nuances.

Another aspect of work culture is the importance that a culture assigns to time. The time aspect of cultural differences among nations and regions led to defining monochromic time (M-time) and polychromic time (P-time) (Hall, 1984). M-time is about doing one thing at a time and requires careful planning and scheduling. Industrialized societies adapted to this time scale. For them, time is specific and real. In P-time culture, human interactions and relations are valued over time and materialistic things. Work gets done at one's own pace, which is often unpredictable. People may not take appointments seriously and often come late. When managing projects, it is preferable to adopt M-time as projects are time bound, and as the project manager, you should train and realign all the team members to M-time.

6.7 Generational Differences

It is commonplace that people from four generations work together in project teams. Their work-related differences and approaches deserve attention. As projects are conceived and executed to meet strategic goals of an organization, it is critical that we engage people of different generations productively and effectively. Generation is an identifiable group that shares years of birth, location, and significant life events at critical stages of development (Kupperschmidt, 2000). However, several studies identified different time periods and characteristics. We acknowledge that differences exist among studies in the precise years of birth that define the different generations. However, the general consensus narrows down to four generations. These four generations, ranging from oldest to youngest, are the Veterans, Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Generation Y (Fig. 6.3).

Veterans prefer job security and are loyal to organizations. They have a good work ethic, discipline, and loyal to their superiors and the employer. Veterans are formal in their attire and use formal style of communication. On the other hand, *Baby Boomers* are considered optimistic and team-oriented. They usually possess good communication skills in impacting organizational change, and building consensus. However, they are often considered as workaholics and competitive.

	Veterans	Baby Boomers	Generation X	Generation Y
Time period	1922 – 1945	1946 – 1964	1965 – 1979	1980 – 2001
Also known as..	Traditionals Matures Silent Generation GI Generation	Boomers	Post Boomers Baby Busters	Millennials Nexters Me Generation
Workplace Traits	Strong work ethic, Respect Authority	Team oriented Optimistic Relationships Sacrifice Loyal Hard work	Practical Pessimistic Work-life balance Technical Independent Adaptable	Ambitious Self-esteem Narcissism Technical Independent Multitasking
Leadership Style	Military Chain of Command	Influencing Having high-expectations Mentoring	Practical Goal-oriented	Flexible Adaptable Lack of social grace Ambitious
Motivation	Value of experience Value of loyalty Value of perseverance	Demonstration of their ability Bonus and other incentives Value of their contribution	Work-life balance non-hierarchical structure Time-off as incentive Loyalty	Higher Position Monetary gains Lower need for social approval Innovation
Learning style	Classroom On-the-job training	Classroom instructor focused	Technology focus Mentors	Creative thinking Visual

Fig. 6.3 Generations at work. *Source* Anantatmula and Shrivastav (2012)

Generation X people invest their efforts for their personal and professional growth. They are adaptable to technology, which has taken its roots in the formative period of Generation X. They bring a realistic and practical approach to solving problems and enthusiastic to add value. However, they do not prefer organizations that are hierarchical. *Generation Y* people are ethnically diverse, global, independent, confident, and adaptive to various situations and multitasking. Loyalty towards their employers is not high on their agenda. They tend to take chances and may easily switch to other jobs. Members of Generation Y demonstrate higher self-esteem, personal admiration, anxiety, depression, and lower need for social approval. They are technically savvy.

Past research suggests that the generation gap is an issue, specifically between Generation Y and Baby Boomers (Anantatmula & Shrivastav, 2012). However, these results showed that Generation Y has fewer issues in dealing with Generation X. Attributes such as work values, traits and attitudes, preferences in workplace, communication styles, approach towards technology, leadership style, and motivation will have an impact on team performance when the team is represented by various generations. For instance, Generation Y people are visual learners compared to others and prefer technology use. To manage these challenges, project managers must address potential issues associated with the generational differences as part of the project charter, and the subsequent kickoff meeting. Clearly defining roles and honing people skills, inclusion, and recognition for younger generations would help in improving team cohesion.

6.8 Management Versus Leadership

The distinction between management and leadership is not always obvious. Management has its focus on classical functions such as planning, organizing, and controlling. Further, management is concerned with making decisions about processes and functions to improve efficiency and effectiveness. Leadership, on the other hand, is about motivating and guiding people to realize their potential and achieve tougher and challenging organizational goals. Project manager assumes leadership role in guiding and directing the team when the project experiences major and unexpected changes to its plan.

As discussed earlier, project teams are comprised of people from multiple disciplines, as project tasks require expertise and skills in several disciplines. Additionally, projects are associated with risks, unknowns, uncertainties, and complexity. Uncertainties and unknowns often compel us to change the project plan. When projects are complex, the project manager's emphasis will be on the management role of planning and controlling. When the project experiences major changes, the leadership role assumes greater importance. As a leader, the project manager makes effort towards convincing people about the need to change, aligning them to a new direction, and motivating people to work together to achieve project objectives under difficult and demanding work environments.

Food for thought

- *How will you analyse cultural differences among the team members?*
- *How do you plan to resolve cultural differences?*
- *When do you switch role from manager role to leadership role?*
- *Do you have a plan to deal with generational differences in the project team.*

6.9 Summary

As project teams are comprised of individuals representing different skills and disciplines, varying experience, motivations, values, ethics, and attitudes, working together effectively and efficiently is quite a challenge. Understanding these differences in social and behavioral skills is essential to develop synergy and improve team performance. Teams go through different stages of development; leadership and management styles must be different at each stage. Undoubtedly, clarity in defining the roles and responsibilities of team members would reduce conflict. It is equally critical to develop a work culture that every team member can relate to.

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Enhancing Team Performance

7

Learning Objectives
After reviewing the chapter, you will:

- understand different types of organizational structures
- analyse strengths and weaknesses of various organizational structures
- recognize the role of team in developing a learning organization
- define roles and responsibilities of leadership in enhancing performance.

The Organizational Context in Which Uma's Team Has to Perform
After becoming a project manager, Uma gained a detailed understanding about the structure of the organization, its advantages in promoting productivity, and performance. She has also realized some of the weaknesses associated with the organization structure. However, Uma has no option but to work within the bounds of the norms, policies, and practices of the matrix structure of her organization. It was obvious to her that organization structure plays an important role in knowledge sharing and knowledge transfer among the team members. Realizing the facilitating roles and constricting rules of the organization structure, Uma has been actively thinking about adapting some of the knowledge management practices, tools, and techniques to overcome weaknesses of the organization structure. She understands that she should take a formal leadership role in improving the team performance and should overcome a few limitations by making use of informal structure of the organization. But devil is in the details, Uma realized.

Teams are integral to any organization, and they are formed to operationalize an organization's strategic plan and accomplish strategic goals. Among various teams within an organization, project teams assume greater importance as they are essential to achieve both strategic objectives and to improve operational efficiencies. Teams play a significant role in planning and executing projects by harnessing

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efforts of multiple disciplines, and a productive team is essential for project success. However, harnessing collective productivity of multiple disciplines is not an easy goal to accomplish in an ever-increasing diversity in workplace. This diversity is inevitable as employees in organizations represent different personalities, skills, disciplines, and experience. Consequently, their motivations, values, ethics, and attitudes differ from each other in teams and it is a quite a challenge to develop teams that are effective and efficient.

7.1 Organization Structure

With the growth, a business enterprise hires more people to manage the work. And with the increase in the number of employees, it is necessary for an organization to have a formal structure to manage people and engage them productively and meaningfully. Otherwise, it becomes unmanageable. Structuring an organization has been in existence for a long time, be it in a kingdom, an administration of a small local or national government, military, or a private enterprise. Usually, the organization structure is an outcome of grouping people based on functional or technical skills and they are labelled as departments. However, in some cases when these functional departments become large and a long-term function is a norm, divisions such as marketing, production, and research and development come into existence. The size and complexity of an organization structure increase with the increase in the number of employees.

Organizational structure is 'the sum total of the ways in which the organization divides its people into distinct tasks and then achieves co-ordination amongst them' (Mintzberg, 1979, p. 66). A prominent example a medical hospital and its divisions based on specific medical disciplines such as cardiology, ophthalmology, general surgery, and paediatrics. Organization structure divides its employees into distinct groups for coordination among all of them. It is an easy and simple methodology to manage people with diverse skills and different functions/disciplines.

Many a time, experts in various disciplines and functions will have to come together to resolve an issue or achieve a goal that requires expertise from different disciplines. This necessitates forming a team of people from different disciplines, and a project team is a classic example. A project team structure represents a mechanism to assign project tasks to project team members and define interdependency among team members to achieve collaborative and coordinated effort to meet its project objectives.

Teams perform in organization structures can be broadly classified as functional, projectized, and matrix structures. We can find variations to these three basis types of structures, specifically projectized organizational structures.

7.1.1 Functional Structure

When nurturing and enhancing functional expertise in the organization is important for its growth, an organization adapts functional structure, wherein each functional department maintains a strong concentration of technical or discipline-specific expertise. Functional managers maintain absolute control (unity of command) over their resources (people and tools), and they even enjoy complete decision-making authority in budget matters. Multifunctional teams are formed by assigning people and resources from functions that are necessary for the team. This power (of assigning resources) is bestowed with the functional managers. A clearly established communication is a characteristic of functional structure. Communication channel is within the function and it is vertical. Each person reports to only one individual, i.e., functional manager, and most of the communication is simple and structured.

In a functional organization, each team can benefit from the most advanced knowledge, thereby making this organizational structure best suited for mass production. As this organization set-up has the flexibility with people and a broad base from which to work, teams are usually more successful in completing their projects within budget. In functional organizations, both formal and informal networks are well-established and levels of authority and responsibility are clearly defined. From a project management perspective, functional organization assures continued employment after the project is complete as project team members return to their functional department. Additional motivating factors are that they report to the same manager and it also helps them improve their functional expertise.

However, the functional organization results in slow communication when information from multiple functions is required to make an informed decision. Consequently, decision-making tends to be slow due to vertical communication structure and it also delays response to a change. As projects are executed in teams and demand expertise in various functions, all project decisions must flow through the functional departments. Project team leads will have to depend on functional managers to obtain people for the project, and they will have to lobby with functional managers. Negotiation skills for project managers are very important in this organization structure. Further, project teams experience challenges as there is no strong central authority or an individual responsible for any project. Consequently, project managers will have to deal with integrating activities that cross functional lines, which is not easy. It necessitates top-level executives to involve in managing and resolving conflicts. Senior management may also be required to make important decisions.

As is often the case, power struggle among various functional groups is a common occurrence, and functional managers tend to support what is best for their functional department or division rather than for a team or a project. Also, the functional organization structure with its silo mindset makes the decision-making process slow and tedious; often, ideas will remain functionally oriented. Further, it is the responsibility of the team lead or project manager to work with all the team members and is responsible for their work performance without a role in

assessing their performance review; a team member's performance review and promotion recommendations are within the authority of functional managers and not with the team lead or the project manager. This leads to responsibility without accountability.

7.1.2 Projectized Structure

There are many organizations in the current global economy that mainly survive on executing projects. Rather, project management and projects are their main business functions. Many IT consulting organizations fall into this category. However, this approach is not limited to IT alone. Even engineering and manufacturing organizations such as Boeing, General Electric, and R&D organizations thrive on projects only. These organizations are devised based on a projectized structure or a combination of projectized and functional structures.

In a projectized organization structure, the organization is based on types of projects and not based on functional expertise. In a way, it is completely different from a functional structure. In projectized structure, employees, collocated, or not are grouped based on a project or types of projects they are part of and the project manager may have complete authority over the over the project team and the project division. Every project division consists of members representing various functions and disciplines that are necessary for the type of projects the division executes. Each division is self-sufficient in terms of resources, and it will have no dependency on other project divisions. However, a few functional divisions such as human resources and finance will serve as supporting functions for all the project divisions.

The project manager often enjoys complete authority in making decisions about budget, people, and other related issues in this organization structure. This provides adequate time and autonomy for the project manager to make decisions. Further, this organization structure provides an opportunity for a project division to maintain expertise on a given project or type of projects. People from different functions work together and report to the same project manager and as a result, functional barriers are eliminated. The response time to a change and decision-making tend to be swift. Usually, teams are co-located in this structure which improves a team's performance, collaboration, and coordination. It also improves customer focus and yields better customer satisfaction. The main advantage of this structure is that the project manager or the team lead maintains complete line authority over the entire project and the team. Further, the project manager assigns work and conducts performance reviews. Strong communication channels can be developed in a projectized organization, and it would help in getting a quick response. A projectized structure makes sense when a steady stream of projects are executed and project work is stable, continuous, and conflicts in managing resources are minimum (Table 7.1).

Table 7.1 Projectized structure

Advantages	Disadvantages
Project manager has the authority	The structure might cause replication of efforts
Team members report to the project manager	Team members may be retained after the project is complete
Structure provides strong communication channels	Discipline-specific competency suffers
Opportunity to maintain expertise on a given project	Lack of opportunity for interaction with functional groups
Decision-making process could be efficient	Lack of professional growth for project team

Source Adapted from Kerzner (2009)

While a projectized structure works well with organizations that are primarily engaged in planning and executing projects, this structure has its issues. Each project division or department develops its own work culture and a developing common work culture in the entire organization is a challenge. One major issue is the cost of maintaining this organizational structure as it often ends up having duplicity of resources as individuals among project divisions are not shared. Also, team members focus on learning more about the broader project issues and they may not have an opportunity to keep up with the discipline-specific competencies and new developments. Often, project team leads tend to keep project team members assigned to a project longer than they are actually required for the fear of losing the member if shared with another project or with a project from another division. The project manager may believe that she would not get the employee back again.

Also, after project completion, people may not have an assignment in the organization. As a result, motivating people to stay with the organization is not easy. Likewise, equipment, tools, and facilities also present concerns and may lead to conflicts among project groups. Loyalty towards the project tends to be more than the loyalty towards the organization itself.

7.1.3 Matrix Structure

As both functional structure and projectized structure have significant disadvantages, and as such both these structures may not work well in every situation, some organization prefer a few aspects of both the structures. The matrix structure is a combination of both the functional and the projectized structures to varying degrees, and the relation between the two structures would depend on the dominance one of the two or a good balance of both the functional and projectized structures. The project manager shares responsibility and accountability for the

Table 7.2 Matrix structure

Advantages	Disadvantages
PM has maximum project control	Multidimensional information flow
Policies and procedures can be set up for each project separately	Dual reporting
PM has authority to commit resources	Continuously changing priorities
Rapid response to changes, conflicts, and project needs	Management goals are different from project goals
Each team member has 'home' after project completion	Balance of time, cost, and performance must be monitored

Source Adapted from Kerzner (2009)

project with functional managers. Obviously, project team members report to both the project manager and functional manager and unity of command is not possible. Needless to say, the matrix structure is more complex form compared to the other two (Table 7.2).

Usually, matrix structure is preferred when an organization often manages challenging or complex projects, projects that demand innovation or where several sophisticated skills are needed, or when projects are executed in a rapidly changing marketplace. In a matrix structure, delegation and responsibility work well even when no one has complete authority. Dual accountability is a norm, and project team members must take instructions from both the project manager and the functional manager. Performance reviews generally remain with the functional manager. The project and the functional structures cannot be separated, and they interact constantly. Depending on relative strength of a projectized structure or functional structure in a matrix organization, its structure is considered strong matrix or weak matrix.

The matrix organization structure is considered better and flexible than other two forms of structures as it provides benefits of both functional and projectized structures. One advantage is that it promotes good understanding and visibility as both the project and functional managers are involved. Together, they decide on assigning resources and resources can be shared among departments and projects. Cooperation among functional divisions and project groups would be better and decisions tend to improve. This reduces possible duplication—a major advantage in this age of lean thinking and agility in business. Under conditions of high uncertainty, a more decentralized structure such as project matrix or projectized structure is preferred and project team (projectized structure) was the most effective, followed by project matrix and the functional organization was considered least effective (Hyväri, 2006). Obviously, a projectized structure is the most preferred organization structure because projects are often associated with uncertainty

and unknowns. Project managers seeking efficient use of resources and benefit from interproject cooperation prefer functional matrix (Laslo & Golberg, 2008).

One disadvantage of a matrix organization is that team members will have to report to two managers simultaneously, and they often deal with competing and conflicting demands. Another disadvantage is that more people provide the necessary information, and it may result in more sources of conflict, meetings, and challenges to deal with. Therefore, decision-making may not be quick and priorities may change routinely. While both project managers and functional managers share authority in this structure, the extent of this authority can vary. Often, the project manager has authority to determine what work needs to be accomplished and by when. The functional manager often retains authority to determine how the work is accomplished. Often, the two managers engage in negotiations to determine who will be assigned to a project as their goals are different in using available resources and a project manager often prefers to have the most skilled and experienced person in her team. Another issue that can result in a conflict is a team member's performance review, in terms of differences in assessment and who will do the assessment.

7.2 Team Structure

A project team's effectiveness and efficiency is determined based on the team's task-related and people-related approaches. The task-related approach focuses on the project purpose, which is to complete the project scope within the specified cost and time while satisfying customer and end-user needs; if one manages task-related issues such as scope, cost, and schedule issues properly, the people-related issues will be taken care of themselves. The people-related approach focuses on developing a cohesive team and address behavioural issues to accomplish project goals; if one manages the people-related issues properly, the project objectives or task-related issues such as cost/schedule/scope/quality will be taken care of themselves. These two different approaches underscore the importance of motivation in accomplishing the purpose of the project team. Needless to say, both the task-related and people-related approaches are considered important in developing project teams. Depending on the project at hand, the emphasis on one approach or the other or a combination of both the approaches is likely to lead to project team success (Fig. 7.1).

Research studies have identified several characteristics of a team that can help us identify attributes of team structures. These characteristics, their descriptions, and recommendations for teams are presented in Table 7.3.

Of the characteristics listed in the table above, task interdependence encourages project teams to work together collaboratively. Distributed leadership assumes importance for mega projects, whereas focused leadership and directive role of the project manager are of great importance for global projects, specifically during the initial phase of the project. Selecting, structuring, and developing project teams for traditional and global projects employ different concepts. In general,

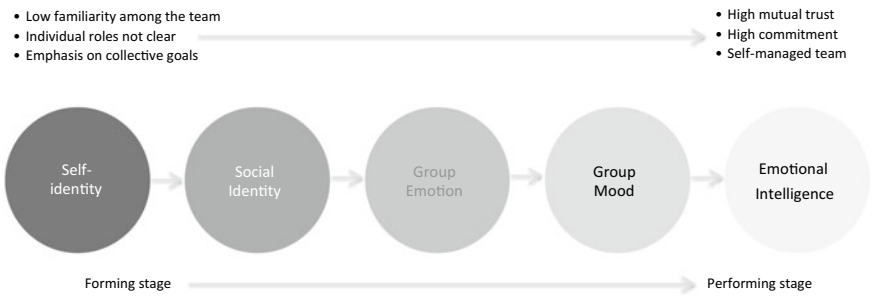

Fig. 7.1 Team and behavioral development process

Table 7.3 Team structure

Characteristics	Description	Discrete category
Task interdependence	The extent to which tasks and outcomes of individuals' tasks depend on actions of others	• Pooled—no direct interaction • Sequential—assembly-line type task relation • Reciprocal—one-on-one relation • Intensive—collaboration among all
Role structure	The extent to which • Roles are fundamentally different • Capable of performing independently	• Functional—distinct role, not interchangeable • Divisional—perform any piece of overall task
Leadership structure	The patters or distribution of leadership functions	• Focused—single leader • Distributed—two or more share leadership role
Communication structure	Flow of communication and information sharing among the team members	• Hub and wheel—flow through one person • Star—free flow among team members • Chain—hierarchical flow of information
Physical dispersion	Spatial location of team members with respect to others	• Co-located—physical proximity • Distributed—geographically dispersed • Mixed—subset of team co-located
Team duration	Time period of team's existence	• Ad hoc—specific task completion • Long term—unlimited number of tasks

Source Adapted from Miloslavic et al. (2015)

the project teams for plan-driven projects are traditional and will have opportunities for social and informal interactions to understand individual and team roles and responsibilities, and to develop cohesion and collaboration. Global and virtual project teams, on the other hand, depend on technology for their formal interactions, which are mostly task focused. From the perspective of task-related project management issues such as scope, quality, cost, and time, team structures can be

broadly divided as the proposal team, proposal portfolio team, project team, and project portfolio team (Tables 7.4 and 7.5).

The project team is mainly focused on planning and executing the project and is the most important one as team dynamics are challenges are plenty. In general, project management discipline is focused on task-related aspects of the project team. It is based on the belief that organizations excel at project management issues by developing and applying sophisticated project management tools, techniques, procedures, and practices for task-related issues such as requirement analysis and specifications, development of scope, schedule, cost, and risk management plans. However, focus on people-related issues has been gaining importance in the last

Table 7.4 Team structure characteristics

Characteristics	Description
Self identity	Self-identity is a person's way of defining who he is as a unique individual in relationship to the rest of the world
Social identity	Social identity is developed from interactions with a team wherein both individuals and the team influence each other
Group emotion	Personal emotions can be elevated to a group level to become group emotion. Individuals may perceive the group emotions as being larger and more important than their individual emotions
Group mood	Group mood is a natural extension of group emotion. Emotions are temporary, quick, and reactive, whereas moods last for an extended period of time
Emotional intelligence	Emotional intelligence is a state where individuals learn not only to observe and to mimic but also to harness and control the team's emotions to aid in their thought processes. Complete Trust is established at this stage

Adopted from Adams and Anantatmula (2010)

Table 7.5 Emotional intelligence team

• Aware of individual team members' emotions and is adept at regulating them
• Team members do not hesitate to confront one another if norms are broken
• Demonstrate a high level of self-awareness by seeking feedback from within and outside the team
• Work very closely with clients and customers
• Aware of the needs and concerns of people outside the team and use them to develop relations
• Solve problems proactively
• Create resources and allocate time to work with emotions and related issues

Reference Druscat and Wolfe (2001)

two decades as it is evident that people-related issues present greater challenges (Figs. 7.2 and 7.3).

In any event, project management underlines the value of a dedicated and effective project team and deployment of organizational processes and structures to facilitate effective and efficient functioning of project teams. It is essential to make efforts towards team building throughout the project because project teams are transient (Tables 7.6 and 7.7).

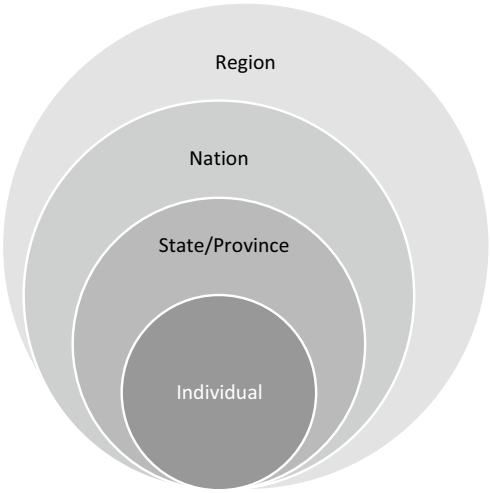

Fig. 7.2 Culture—levels of difference among people

Fig. 7.3 Culture—levels of difference based on association

Table 7.6 Definitions of culture

Definition	Source
Shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that (cultures) result from common experiences of members of collectivities that are transmitted across generations	Gabrenya and Smith (2015) citing the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavioral Effectiveness project's definition
"the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another."	Hofstede (1997, p. 5)
"… the shared ways groups of people understand and interpret the world."	Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998, p. 3)
The *culture of a group* is a set of shared basic assumptions based on learning by solving problems that proved to be valid over time and therefore, passed on to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems	Schein (1993)
National culture is broadly defined as values, beliefs, norms, and behavioral patterns of a national group	Hofstede (1980)

Table 7.7 High-context and low-context cultures

Factor	High-context culture	Low-context culture
Openness of message	Covert and implicit message	Explicit, simple and clear message
Attribution for failure	Personal acceptance	Blame others
Non-verbal communication	High	Low
Expression of reaction	Reserved and inward	Visible and outward
Cohesion and groups	Distinction of in-group and out-group. Strong sense of family	Flexible and open groups. Changing as needed
Bonding with people	Strong bonds with affinity to family and community	Fragile bonding with people with little sense of loyalty
Commitment to relations	High commitment to relationships. Relations over tasks	Low commitment to relationships Tasks over Relations
Flexibility with time	Open and flexible Process over product	Organized and inflexible Product over process

Adopted from Hall (1984)

7.3 Team Role in Learning Organization

Individuals learn when they are working either independently or together in a group executing interdependent tasks. Team structure and processes facilitate valuable experience and learning which ultimately lead to individual professional growth. This learning is enhanced when teams work together harmoniously. At individual level, a measures of team success is professional growth resulting from experience and knowledge gained by individuals while working with other team members collaboratively. This opportunity for professional growth helps organizations reduce employee turnover, and people will have a greater focus on tasks and overall performance of the team. This individual learning is often known as tacit knowledge.

It is widely recognized that knowledge is a key economic resource. Specifically, knowledge sharing and the resultant new knowledge creation and innovation are critical for organizations to become and remain competitive. Projects provide opportunities for team members to learn from each other and share knowledge. Learning from each other to enhance the capabilities of the enterprise and at individual levels is desired for potential growth opportunities. Project managers must encourage such knowledge sharing practices and capture the tacit knowledge of all project team members through lessons learned exercise on a daily basis. Acceptable tacit knowledge is then transformed into explicit knowledge in the form of revised project management practices, processes, and procedures. Ultimately, these efforts transform an organization into a learning organization. Trust plays an important role in sharing and managing knowledge (Table 7.8).

Past research has shown that social capital is comprised of shared vision, trust, and social ties in an organization. Social capital plays an important role in knowledge sharing and knowledge transfer. Both are essential to promote synergy and team performance. However, trust cannot be built in a project team without

Table 7.8 GLOBE'S definitions of culture

Uncertainty Avoidance: reliance on rules and norms to alleviate unpredictability
Power Distance: expectation for power to be distributed unequally
Individualism and Collectivism: organization and society encourage collective action (institutional collectivism); individuals are loyal to organizations and families (in-group collectivism)
Gender Egalitarianism: collectively minimized gender equality
Future Orientation: individuals delay gratification, plan, invest in future
Performance Orientation: performance improvement and excellence is encouraged and rewarded
Humane Orientation: individuals are rewarded for being fair, altruistic, generous, caring, and kind

Table 7.9 Influence of context in communication

What the British say	What the British mean	What the Dutch understand
I hear what you say	I disagree completely	He accepts my point of view
Very interesting	I don't agree	He likes my idea
I almost agree	I don't agree	He almost agrees
I'm sure it's my fault	It's not my fault	It's his fault
This is an original point of view	You must be crazy	They like the idea
With the greatest respect	You must be a fool	He respects me/my view
I would suggest	Do it as I want to	An open suggestion
Not bad	(very) good	Average or poor
By the way	The primary purpose is	Not very important

Adopted from Rottier et al. (2011)

good leadership if the team comprises of people with diverse background and experience. On the other hand, the diversity of knowledge is likely to enhance creativity in problem-solving and tends to improve communication. Communication is critical for knowledge sharing, problem-solving, and decision-making in project teams. With the increase in team social capital, knowledge sharing becomes more effective and helps teams to be more productive (Table 7.9).

Knowledge sharing in project teams is not always easy, specifically with international collaborations and in global projects. From an enterprise standpoint, organizational knowledge that is proprietary—a critical resource for creating and sustaining competitive advantage as competitors cannot easily replicate it—will no longer be confined within the organization. From an individual standpoint, businesses would not like to share proprietary knowledge unless the rewards outweigh the perceived value of the knowledge. Thus, it becomes a challenge to retain the competitive edge of organizations while participating in global projects. Organizations will have to make the distinction between the core competitive knowledge that needs to be retained and other relevant knowledge that is necessary to share for effective collaboration and successful completion of global projects. The project manager and project teams must recognize this distinction in sharing knowledge.

7.3.1 Role of Technology in Knowledge Sharing

Technology plays an important role in project management. Technology tools are routinely used these days for collaboration, communication, and the deployment of project management practices. A well-known capability of technology is to capture and store information that can accessed easily. Further, technology can be used for developing and deploying project management processes and performance monitoring systems. In the project context, technology plays a major role to develop and formalize project processes and establish channels of open communication. With

Table 7.10 Scheduling challenges

Factor	M-time action	P-time action
Actions	Do one thing at a time	Do many things at once
Focus	Concentrate on the job at hand	Easily distracted from work
Attention to time	When things must be achieved	What will be achieved
Priority	Put the job first	Put relations first
Respect for property	Seldom borrow or lend things	Borrow and lend things often and easily
Timeliness	Emphasize promptness	Base promptness relationship factors

Adopted from Hall (1984)

the appropriate use of technological tools, the project team can access organizational and tacit knowledge of past projects and historical data. This information can help project teams improve their project performance (Table 7.10).

Technology can help project managers in managing teams effectively by promoting open communication, learning, knowledge transfer, and productivity. Project managers may also choose to develop electronic yellow pages that list project experts in specific interest groups, such as scope definition, scheduling, cost estimating, and risk management. These technologies help project managers communicate effectively with their virtual project teams and integrate project tasks effectively.

7.4 Leadership Role in Team Performance Development

Project managers perform multiple roles such as manager, leader, change agent, facilitator, innovator, negotiator, and communicator. In performing these roles, it is important for the project manager to maintain a positive image to influence the project team and stakeholders.

Mainly, the project manager has to play both the roles of manager and leader. Management is usually focused on classical functions such as planning, organizing, and controlling. In general, management is concerned with making decisions about processes and functions in order to improve operational efficiency and effectiveness. Leadership, on the other hand, is about motivating and guiding people to realize their potential and achieve tougher and challenging organizational goals (Table 7.11).

The project manager's leadership role is to create an effective working environment for the project team. Project leaders are required to assign appropriate importance to relationships and to communicate core values of the team. As the leader and project manager, one must ensure that every member of the team is committed to improving the team performance and no one is doing more work than others.

Table 7.11 Generations at work

	Veterans	Baby boomers	Generation X	Generation Y
Time period	1922–1945	1946–1964	1965–1979	1980–2001
Also known as	Traditionals Matures Silent generation GI generation	Boomers	Post boomers Baby busters	Millennials Nexters Me generation
Workplace traits	Strong work ethic, Respect Authority	Team oriented Optimistic Relationships Sacrifice Loyal Hard work	Practical Pessimistic Work-life balance Technical Independent Adaptable	Ambitious Self-esteem Narcissism Technical Independent Multitasking
Leadership style	Military Chain of command	Influencing Having high-expectations Mentoring	Practical Goal-oriented	Flexible Adaptable Lack of social grace Ambitious
Motivation	Value of experience Value of loyalty Value of perseverance	Demonstration of their ability Bonus and other incentives Value of their contribution	Work-life balance non-hierarchical structure Time-off as incentive Loyalty	Higher position Monetary gains Lower need for social approval Innovation
Learning style	Classroom On-the-job training	Classroom instructor focused	Technology focus Mentors	Creative thinking Visual

Adopted from Anantatmula and Shrivastav (2012)

Team cohesiveness and productivity largely depend on mutual trust. Establishing trust is an important leadership role of a project manager. Openness and transparency in communication instil trust among the project team members. Trust can be developed by defining individual roles and responsibilities; communicating expectations; identifying training needs for task-related skills and professional growth; and helping team members to build competencies through training, mentoring, and other learning opportunities.

The project manager must delegate the responsibility among the team members, specifically for complex and mega projects. Delegation of authority must accompany delegation of responsibility without which micro-management could become a reality. In the context of project teams, delegation of authority amounts to sharing the organization's position power so that team members take the lead in fulfilling their roles and responsibilities without waiting for the approval of the project manager. Requiring multiple signatures for any approval suggests the absence of delegation of authority.

A project team's effectiveness and its leader's success would largely depend on the value and impact of their decisions. Leaders often are made or broken by their decisions (Garvin & Roberto, 2001). Research has shown that viewing decision-making as a process leads to better decisions. It is desirable to have an open process to identify and evaluate all alternatives, encourage participation to foster the exchange of ideas, and develop a valid decision that solves problem at hand. This approach is likely to encourage open, objective, creative, innovative, and quality solutions.

A project manager should guard against some of the issues that hinder making decisions, and they are: lack of accurate and real information, and unrealistic assumptions, opinions, and biases. The group decision-making approach, if developed well, can minimize or eliminate some or all of these weaknesses. Group decision-making has the advantage of collective wisdom, analysing the problem from different perspectives, and healthy and detailed discussion of the issue at hand. Furthermore, group decision-making makes sense in project teams as team members represent multiple disciplines and diverse experiences. In addition, global project teams represent different cultural perspectives and associated diversity in expertise and experience in making effective decisions, if interpersonal conflicts are managed well.

In a typical functional organization, project managers have very little power or actual authority. Even in the projectized and matrix organizational structures, negotiations, in obtaining organizational priority, resources, and funds, are of similar importance. These concerns make it all the more important for a project manager's ability to influence others and to negotiate successfully. Influencing and negotiating skills are the project manager's strengths to obtain project resources, cooperation, and support of all the key stakeholders. Influencing is the less obvious, more indirect path of the two skills, yet both are indispensable strategies for effectiveness in managing projects.

- define roles and responsibilities of leadership in enhancing performance
- recognize the role of team performance management in developing a learning organization.

7.5 Summary

Teams exist and perform in an organization, and its functional style and performance are influenced by the organization's structure. In general, organization structures can be broadly classified as functional, projectized, and matrix. Each organization structure presents varying advantages and disadvantages on project team performance. Furthermore, a project team's effectiveness and efficiency are based on the team's approach which can be either task-related or people-related. These approaches also influence knowledge sharing among the team members. Knowledge sharing is also influenced by the team size and type (co-located or

virtual). Project manager plays an important role in managing influences of the organization structure and knowledge sharing practices.

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Developing Productive Teams

8

Learning Objectives
After reviewing the chapter, you will:

- understand important traits of productive teams
- Identify negative behavioural issues
- Discuss desirable attributes of traditional and virtual project teams
- define guidelines and directives to improve effectiveness of the team.

Meeting Expectations of Team Performance
Uma has realized that in spite of her optimism and collaborative stance, she could not completely eliminate negative behaviours in the team. These negative behaviours often lead to both people- and task-related conflicts, which are detrimental to a team's productivity and performance. Team diversity has its benefits and disadvantages. As a manager and leader of the team, Uma must curb negative emotions during initial stages of the team development. Uma was introduced to a new process called 'team charter' wherein both formal and informal rules, guidelines, and practices are outlined for monitor and enhance the performance of the team. She realized the value of it and decided to call for a meeting to develop the team charter. Uma opined that in developing the team charter, she should ask all the members of the team to participate, discuss and formulate the team charter. Uma is convinced that the team charter developed in this manner will be more effective as the rules and practices are proposed and accepted by the team. While developing the team charter, Uma recognized differences in work culture, communication styles, and commitment due to diversity in her team. Team charter alone will not be sufficient, Uma thought; the entire team should also develop performance goals, and their measures for monitoring team performance. Uma called for a team meeting to discuss all these issues.

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From a team member's perspective, participation in teams gives an opportunity to gain benefits such as increased work satisfaction, sharing and gaining knowledge, and overall quality of work life. As teams work together to share and solve problems together, team members learn to work collaboratively, support each other in completing tasks, make decisions collectively, and learn how to deal with and resolve conflicts. However, we cannot derive these benefits if trust among the team members is absent. However, establishing trust among the team members and with the leader is a gradual process. Several motivating and hygiene factors must be present to establish trust; a few critical factors are: defining roles and responsibilities, establishing open and transparent communication system, defining formal and informal team processes and practices, communicating expectations and developing mutual support.

Forming a team by bringing people together as a team may not always lead to desired outcomes. Team manager must help develop teams and avoid or eliminate inhibitors through collective leadership, reward systems, team structure, and processes. The literature (Whetten & Cameron, 2011) suggests that effective teams: (1) are interdependent, (2) are more efficient working together than individually, (3) function well to create their own magnetism, (4) do not always have the same leader, (5) care and nurture one another, (6) cheer for the leader, who—in turn—cheers them, and (7) have a high level of trust.

Teams are expected to perform better than individuals working on a task. In other words, teams are designed to improve performance. However, certain indicators suggest that a team is ineffective and the team lead should be vigilant about these signs of ineffectiveness, which prompts immediate remedial action. Some important indicators that demand immediate attention are withdrawal, complaints, grievances, apparent low morale, people-related conflicts, unclear work assignments, absence of initiative, lack of commitment, ineffective coordination, low trust, and perceived unfairness in reward systems. In this chapter, we will focus on process and practices of teams that are effective in delivering high-level performance.

8.1 Negative Behavioural Issues

Productivity of project teams faces challenges from different fronts. At a macrolevel, the organization's structure, culture, and its policies related to human resources influence the team performance as every team including project teams work under the confines of an organization's characteristics; a major aspect of the organization's impact is delegation of the responsibility. At a micro-level, these challenges are aplenty that affect individual performance. They often manifest in the form of conflicts, absence of discipline and punctuality, loyalty, lack of transparency in communication, lack of appreciation, recognition and rewards. In this section, delegation and conflicts are discussed in detail. Resolving other negative issues is discussed through the development of performance measures of individuals and the team.

8.1.1 Delegation Versus Micro-management

The issues of micro-management and trust, or lack thereof, are closely tied to each other. When an organization structure is hierarchical, teams also adopt a similar structure. Consequently, team management tends to lean towards micro-management. Micro-management could be an advantage when an organization is in its infancy and it is essential to bring order to the chaos. However, as the enterprise grows, this form of management should be abandoned in favour of delegation with responsibility and accountability. The same holds true for teams.

In the context of projects and project management, micro-management will stifle creativity of the project team members. As one can realize, projects—due to uncertainties and unknowns associated with it—demand creativity and out-of-box thinking. If delegation is absent, the burden of innovations and day-to-day problem-solving directly rests on the proverbial shoulder of the project lead or senior management. The team members will be compelled to either ask the team lead what should be done in the face of an emerging situation or, worse yet, wait to be told what to do.

In the delegation management style, the team members will either recommend and then take action or, better yet, solve the problem and then advise the project manager and senior management of the novel solution that remedied that emerging problem. If and when the hierarchical approval process was to be eliminated, or at least tempered, it would provide symbolic evidence that the senior management trusts the judgement of, and appreciates the sacrifices of, the project team.

Delegation comes with authority and accountability. Senior management extends the authority to the project manager and the team for planning and executing the project while holding them accountable for the project success. The project team is directly responsible for the success of the project through detailed planning and skilful execution. Needless to say, the project team members would be empowered to take innovative actions to solve emerging problems, and to improve project processes continually. The organization has its role in facilitating project success by creating a work environment that is conducive to loyalty and trust.

8.1.2 Managing Conflicts

It is natural that each team member is armed with unique attributes such as experience, knowledge, intellect level, and personality type that are different from every other team member. These differences are likely to be manifested either as people-related or task-related conflicts. It is considered natural for people to have a general instinctive tendency to avoid all conflict and prefer harmony because confronting an issue or a person due to differences is an unpleasant experience.

The personal differences would obviously lead to people-related conflicts as team members often look at a task or an issue from different perspectives and may not agree with each other. Additionally, conflict occurs due to incompatible goals, thoughts, or emotions between individuals in the team. Obviously, any team or a

group of highly skilled and exceptionally creative individuals will interpret facts and events differently. If the intellectual diversity is communicated and debated properly, the most appropriate solution can be identified easily and amicably. However, it may not always happen.

Conflicts can also happen due to differences in work experience, education, and technical expertise and they are known as task-related conflicts. Often project teams require people with different disciplines, diverse experience, different generations, and different cultures. These differences influence their approach to analysing, problem-solving, and decision-making. On the other hand, intellectual diversity generates creative solutions and innovation. Intellectual diversity is a mild form of conflict, and it usually results in innovative deliverables; and, therefore, it leads to increased team cohesiveness.

Transparent and open communication among the team members can forestall the vast majority of disagreements and conflicts within the team. Therefore, it is crucial for the organization to foster an environment that promotes open and constructive discussion among team members. An enlightened and constructive approach is to view a minor difference as a potentially positive component of the project team experience, and as a catalyst for innovation and creativity. This is particularly true if these differences are controlled and are not allowed to become serious disagreements.

If minor differences in viewpoint are identified early and resolved properly, conflicts can be avoided. One must remember that poor communication will cause or exacerbate conflicts while negotiations and compromises will remedy or minimize major conflicts. If the intellectual diversity, with respect to people or task-related issues, is allowed to emerge as a serious disagreement and possibly evolve into major conflicts, project performance will suffer. In such cases, the project manager will be left with no option but to employ formal conflict management techniques and intense negotiations.

8.2 Performance Measures

The success of a team is measured by the outcome of the desired attributes of the respective deliverable of the team. For example, the success of the project team will be judged based on the measurable values of scope, cost, and duration. Likewise, the success of a portfolio team is measured by the attributes of the projects or proposals that are considered to be the most appropriate for the strategic and financial direction of the enterprise. Further, matured organizations pay special attention to the people attributes of teams, with the presumption that fostering harmonious teamwork favourably impacts the performance of the teams in subtle but significant ways.

The project manager plays an important role as a leader and manager to foster synergy. A successful project manager, with a clear understanding of the vision, values, and beliefs of the organization, is likely to possess competencies such as situational leadership, emotional intelligence, effective communication, and

savvy at organizational politics. In addition, the project manager must skilled at multitasking, problem-solving, and decision-making.

8.2.1 Team Charter—Performance Measures of Team Members

Articulation of the ultimate goals of the team and formal approaches by which those goals will be achieved is the fundamentals of managing the attributes of projects and project team members. Team member measures include both behavioural and goal-oriented attributes such as level of effort, reporting, and punctuality, dedication, commitment to a unified goal, team spirit, harmony, and trust, communication, conflict management, level of effort, reporting, and punctuality.

One of the effective means of assuring the repeatable success of a team is to provide guidelines for accomplishing the mission of the team. The key is to get rid of the ad hoc norms with detailed and formal norms, and processes as they would recognize, promote, and reward that illusive concept known as team spirit. Team charter captures all these performance measures succinctly.

Team norms are either written or unwritten rules that govern the behaviour of team members. These norms include but are not limited to work ethic, honesty, integrity, respect, conflict management, decision-making, and communication protocols. A preferred practice is developing a team charter to define these norms for common understanding and agreement (Table 8.1).

Table 8.1 Team charter

Basic performance • Reporting processes • Elemental data reporting • Responsibilities and assignments • Set consequences of non-conformance • Timeliness (attendance and delivery) • Work hours	**Specify** • Time spent • Obligations • Reporting • Deliverables • Knowledge sharing • Tracking (plan versus actual)
Personal behaviour expectations • Civility • Meeting protocols • Social graces • Decision protocol • Receiving/offering assistance	**Attitudinal expectations** • Cooperative stance • Honest communication • Conflict recognition • Negotiations • Teamwork
Desirable norms • Demeanour • Communication • Conflict management • Negotiation	**Expected outcomes** • Trust • Team spirit • Harmony • Cohesiveness • Rare major conflicts • Commitment

Source Anantatmula (2016)

8.2.1.1 Behavioural Measures

The team charter specifies and defines the personal behaviour of the team members with a reasonable expectation of achieving harmony, team spirit, and dedication in achieving team performance goals. Usually, a team charter begins by defining specific performance expectations, such as timeliness in delivering promised outputs, e-mail etiquette, and phone protocol. Expanding it further, the team charter will then highlight the standards for behaving as members of a unified and cohesive team in the difficult-to-define areas of communication, cooperation, conflict management, and civility. The unspoken hope of the team charter is that it will invoke the desired team attributes such as trust, respect, and commitment.

The team leader and the team members create the team charter, which serves as a roadmap. It is mainly used to provide direction for both explicit and implicit behaviours, attitudes, and responsibilities of the team members to achieve its performance goals. This includes some of the norms for working together as a team and what the expected behavioural and attitudinal outcomes should be. The format and content of the team charter vary depending on the team type (virtual or traditional), team size, project complexity, and constraints with which the team has to perform. Adhering to the team charter norms is likely to establish trust, improve team spirit, cohesiveness, and reduce incidence of conflicts.

The letter and spirit of the team charter should also become topics of the orientation for new team member and internal transfers of project team members. It helps inform new employees of the intricacies of managing specific team performance attributes, interaction attributes, and attitudinal attributes of the team members.

8.2.1.2 Professional Performance Measures

The basic professional performance aspect of the team charter focuses on individual and team activities such as identifying specific tasks or deliverables and responsibilities of each team member to complete all the deliverables. We should be mindful that behavioural issues influence the professional performance actions and results of the team members.

The basic performance aspect of the team charter specifies the project work breakdown structure (WBS) components and the team member(s) responsible for each work component. The specific details for project planning, execution, monitoring, control, and closeout of the project will outline the responsibility of each team member and the team to meet specific performance measures of cost, duration, scope/quality, and risk. A team member might be assigned to several components. Conversely, a component might require the efforts of several team members. If more than one person is assigned to a component, one of them would be assigned as the lead person who is mainly responsible for completing the work component.

To sum up, the intent of the team charter is to mandate work performance and recommend personal behaviour of the team and then measure the results of that performance through team professional productivity and project success. The presumption is that it is precisely the immeasurable attitudinal attributes of respect and teamwork that are at the core of a team's success.

8.3 Traditional and Virtual Project Teams

A traditional project is a familiar and routinely employed in organizations. As defined in Chap. 5, a team is defined as *a selected formal group of individuals with diverse and complimentary skills who are required to work together collaboratively for a predetermined period and are collectively responsible to meet a specific purpose or goal* (Anantatmula, 2016) and this definition is apt for any traditional project team.

A global project is a transnational project, and it is a time-bound endeavour with a project team consisting of individuals from multiple countries with working in different cultures and possessing expert knowledge to manage the project and resolve strategic issues therein (Anantatmula & Thomas, 2010). A global virtual team is the one which may not have a common past at work, represents diverse work cultures, geographically dispersed, and employs virtual communication tools. However, global project teams, by default are managed in virtual mode and therefore, they are invariably virtual teams. However, not all virtual teams work on global projects.

Pure virtual teams are probably relatively rare, although pure traditional teams still exist. The commonality between virtual and traditional teams should always be defined and enhanced. Furthermore, providing detailed and appropriate formalized procedures will ultimately result in bona fide team spirit and teamwork in both team structures (Table 8.2).

In traditional project teams, communication and information sharing take place through face-to-face communication mode. However, conceivably all of the interactions among virtual team members are managed through impersonal means using technology tools. The bulk of the communication is done asynchronously and virtually. However, occasionally, traditional projects use virtual team tools such as e-mails, portals, and teleconferencing to free up the team members from travelling to remote sites for project work. Furthermore, team members who live in reasonable proximity of one another form a virtual team for the purposes of convenience and operation efficiency.

Many of the people skills that work well with traditional teams may not work as well with virtual teams as opportunities for non-verbal communication literally do not exist, and it is difficult to establish effective communication quickly in the virtual environment. Therefore, traditional team-related processes might have to be modified for use with virtual teams. When developing, or adapting, processes for virtual teams, one would need to address how and when the traditional team

Table 8.2 Traditional versus virtual teams

Traditional teams	• Assistance of body language in communications • Assistance of personal charm in relationships • The effectiveness of charismatic project managers • Ease of personal debates and clarifications
Virtual teams	• Reliance on written communications • Reliance on – Formal planning – Formal change management – Individual competencies • Careful matching of – Team members to team – Team members to their duties

Source Anantatmula (2016)

procedures are suitable for virtual teams. Sometimes, new guidelines might have to be created for those issues that are specific to virtual teams.

The mode of communication and tools of communication of the virtual team are commonly identified as the root causes of the success or failure of virtual teams. However, one of the frequent reasons for the failure of some of the virtual teams is not necessarily a shortfall in information flow or in technical competency and physical performance issues, but rather the fact that virtual teams are denied the bulk of the traditional modes of person-to-person communication. As it is for traditional teams, a comprehensive set of processes and guidelines for behavioural attributes and professional performance is the critical first step for virtual team norms.

In summary, mode and effectiveness communication is the major difference between a traditional team and a virtual team. Furthermore, global projects face additional challenges such as unfamiliar work culture, social norms and values, political and legal environment, and logistic challenges and all of them can impact performance of the team.

8.4 Team Effectiveness

A team charter, as discussed above, helps a team's performance and effectiveness as it brings order to team's interactions and collaborative efforts. But a team charter is good enough to set ground rules for the team. Beyond the chapter, the team lead and the team must work together to develop team process, make use of knowledge management concepts and technology that facilitates coordination and collaboration among the team members. A team's processes and models—for sharing knowledge, use of technology, and performance models—help improve the team effectiveness.

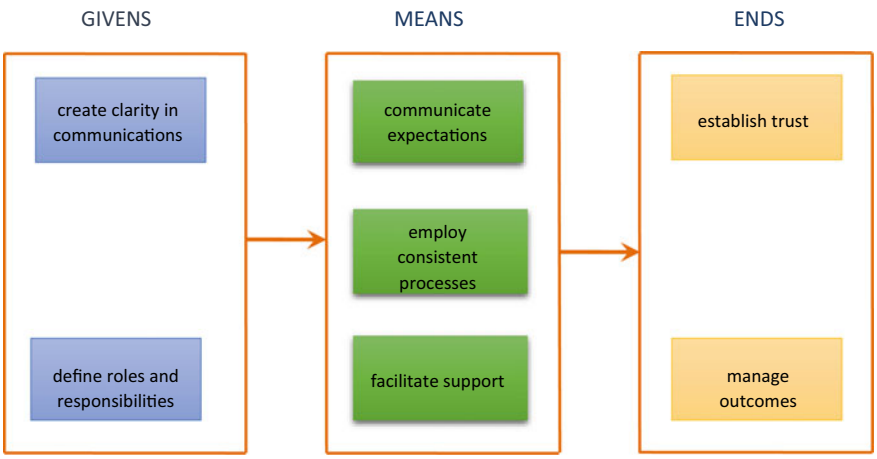

Fig. 8.1 Team performance model *Source* Anantatmula (2010)

Clearly defined processes and roles help project teams to establish both predictability and openness with all the team activities. This environment will foster clarity and transparency in communication, which will in turn set the stage for a successful project (Fig. 8.1).

It is important to address personal and professional aspirations of team members by presenting opportunities to build competencies through mentoring, training, knowledge sharing, learning, and education. With that in mind, the project team lead may assign roles and responsibilities of team members to motivate and get their commitment to the project. Moreover, addressing individual needs for growth promotes mutual trust and respect. Another prerequisite of a team performance is to design a team communication model that is clear, open, and transparent with little scope for ambiguity. Predictability, openness, and transparency are important factors in establishing trust among the project team members. Establishing trust is a gradual process that demands continuous openness, transparency, and clarity in communications and accountability from individuals in performing their roles and responsibilities.

Trust encourages project team members to collaborate, network, and innovate. By establishing trust, leaders can manage changes, mitigate conflicts—a deterrent to project performance—and transform project stakeholders into a cohesive project team. Given that establishing trust usually takes time and projects are time bound, the task of building trust among team members becomes even more challenging. This model (Fig. 8.1) facilitates the leadership behaviour necessary to develop effective teams and to create synergy among the team members.

The means to improve team performance are: employing formal and consistent processes, facilitating support from key functions and senior management, and communicating expectations. All these three factors must be in place prior to developing a system of monitoring and managing outcomes. Communicating

expectations would help define project outcomes for monitoring, formal processes and support from the organization external to the project team would support in managing these outcomes.

8.4.1 Knowledge Sharing

Knowledge is a key economic resource for sustenance of growth. Specifically, knowledge sharing and the resultant new knowledge creation and innovation are critical for organizations to become and remain competitive. Learning from each other to enhance the capabilities of the enterprise and at individual levels is desired for potential growth opportunities. Projects in general and global projects in particular provide opportunities to learn from each other and enhance knowledge sharing.

However, knowledge sharing in global project teams presents a few challenges. An organizational knowledge that is a critical resource for creating and sustaining competitive advantage cannot be shared with team members external to the organization. Also, organizations would not like to share proprietary knowledge unless the rewards outweigh the perceived value of the knowledge. Thus, it becomes a challenge to retain the competitive edge of organizations while participating in global projects and knowledge sharing is definitely not an option. Organizations will have to guard the core competitive knowledge and share only other relevant knowledge that is necessary to promote effective collaboration and successful completion of global projects. The project manager and project teams must recognize this distinction in sharing knowledge.

8.4.2 Technology and Team Effectiveness

Technology facilitates capturing and storing information effectively and efficiently for easy access and use. Technology plays an important role in developing and deploying project management processes and performance monitoring processes. Project management software tools manage project management tasks such as developing schedules, estimating cost, allocating resources, assessing and managing risk, monitoring progress, and measuring project performance. Specifically, technology plays a significant role in supporting the project manager to develop and formalize project management processes and establish channels of open communication. With the appropriate use of technological tools, the project team can access organizational and tacit knowledge of past projects and historical data. Lessons learned information can be captured and stored for easy access and retrieval. All this information can help project teams improve their project performance.

8.5 Summary

Project teams face several negative influences that hinder team performance. The sooner the project manager resorts to delegation with responsibility and accountability, the better it is for the team's performance. Micro-management is undesirable as it kills innovation and initiative of team members. Another negative influence is conflict which can either be people-related or task-related. Transparent and open communication among the team members can, to a great extent, nullify disagreements and conflicts within the team. Finally, most of the negative influences can be eliminated by developing a common understanding of roles, responsibilities, and behavioral norms of the team. Developing a team charter and adhering to it is a good practical approach to resolve many performance issues.

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Part III
Managing Organizations

Understanding Project Culture

9

Learning Objectives

- Understand the relationship between national culture, organizational culture, and project culture
- Appreciate the impact of culture on projects
- Identify strategies to establish an appropriate culture in your project
- Discuss desirable behaviours in your projects to support project culture
- Evaluate the importance of cultural intelligence in managing projects.

9.1 Introduction

'Uma is a project manager at a firm building software for a firm called Control Systems Asia in Singapore. The outsourcing of software is a new strategy for Control Systems Asia to improve its cost performance. The hardware for the whole systems is manufactured in Singapore but only the software, which used to be built in Singapore, is outsourced Control Systems India. Both Control Systems Asia and Control Systems India are subsidiaries of a Japanese firm called Control Systems located in Tokyo. Control Systems Asia, being a regional headquarters, has several Japanese managers who follow the Japanese way of designing, building, and delivering systems to Japanese Contractors who place orders on Control Systems Asia. Control Systems India is mainly managed by Indian managers with one Japanese expert stationed in India. Control Systems India deliver systems only to the Indian market and only familiar with interacting with Indian customers. Both Control Systems Asia and Control Systems India are accredited to the same ISO 9000 standards and use

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similar checklists to verify that the systems are tested. Control Systems India received their first order from Control Systems Asia and develop the software and test it with a set of prototype hardware they keep in India. The software is tested and sent to Singapore after all checks are done.

The software does not work as expected when it is used in the actual hardware in the Singapore factory. Shekar who heads the Engineering Department in Singapore travels to India to find out why the systems did not work as intended. During the conversations, it becomes clear that while the software is tested individually with each hardware in India a whole integrated systems test is not carried out when several pieces of hardware are linked together. In Singapore after individual tests, a whole systems integration test is carried out.

When queried Uma explained to Shekhar that Indian customers often make several changes during the factory testing an integrated test is a waste of time and leads to rework at the factory. However, the customers of Control Asia who are normally Japanese contractors do not do that. So, the Singapore office tests everything completely and only a few changes are necessary at the factory. Hence, the final testing takes only a very short time.

Uma and Shekhar realize that while the standards and practices adopted are the same in the two offices the nature of the customer is different which has to do with the national culture of customers. Uma decides to change the culture of the project team in India to cater to the needs of Controls Asia Singapore and its international customers.

If you were Uma, what would you do to change the culture of Software Teams in Controls India?

9.2 What Is Culture?

We all have our own view of what culture means as it a multifaceted and complex concept and there are multiple definitions. According to *The Dictionary of Anthropology* (Barfield, 2000 p. 98), an early definition of culture is by Taylor (1871, p. 1) as a 'complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, laws, custom and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man or a member of society'. Several of these facets–knowledge, belief, morals, laws, customs, and habits–also apply to organizational culture, which is of interest to us as projects are considered as temporary organizations.

From an organization behaviour perspective, Jeanes (2019) observes that culture is often recognized through visual artefacts (e.g., how space in an organization is planned and set up or how people present themselves) but you need to dig deeper to understand the underlying assumptions that drive organizational culture.

9.2.1 Stop and Think: Can You Think About Visual Artefacts that Made You Form an Impression About an Organization You Visited Recently?

Before we address organizational culture, it is good to have a look at dimensions of national cultures as project teams often have people from different nationalities working together. Often projects are also carried out by organizations from different countries.

9.3 National Culture

Two prominent views on national culture that will be discussed in this section are those of Hofstede (2011) and Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (2021).

> Author's reflection: I was working in a Japanese firm when we interviewed an Australian engineer, Frank, to help us expand our international business. Frank was interviewed by two Japanese managers, Shishido and Takagi. I had introduced him to the organization as I had worked with him on a project in Australia and felt that he had good communication skills. Frank came in and said 'G'day' in a relaxed manner, smiled, sat down, and chucked a business card towards Shishido and Takagi, saying, 'You can have one of these'. I could see the shock in the faces of Shishido and Takagi. Japanese executives usually proffer their business cards in a deferential manner so that the other person can read their name and job title, then bow, state their name, and say 'pleased to meet you' (https://www.thoughtco.com/formal-introductions-in-japanese-2027970). Frank was still hired, since personal recommendations are also important to the Japanese.

9.3.1 Stop and Think: Have You Had a Similar Experience When You Met Someone from a Different?

Geert Hofstede (2011) investigated common belief systems that are attributed to countries around the world during his work as a management trainer with IBM International, which had offices around the world. Although his work was done in the 1970s, it is still used to study intercultural issues as it has been updated to include cultures that were missed out in his original research.

The six dimensions of culture according to Hofstede (2011, p. 8) are shown in Table 9.1.

These dimensions could give a clue to cultural beliefs of dealing with people in intercultural situations. Such stereotyping of people based on national cultures needs to be treated with caution as the world is changing rapidly. As people migrate to another country their children may not follow the traditions of the country of their parents' origin. However, these dimensions may be useful for resolving conflicts in organizations and projects. For example, power distance is small in countries like the USA and Australia, whereas it is large in countries like India and Japan. Orders by superiors may be obeyed in India while they would

Table 9.1 Hofstede's cultural dimensions

Cultural dimension	Example
Power distance	Subordinates expect to be told what to do (large) versus being consulted (small)
Uncertainty avoidance	Being comfortable with ambiguity and chaos (weak) versus a need for clarity and structure (strong)
Individualism versus collectivism	Speaking one mind's freely versus attempting to maintain harmony
Masculinity versus femininity	Work takes precedence over family versus work–life balance is considered important
Long-term versus short-term orientation	Traditions are sacred (short-term) versus traditions are adaptable and change with circumstances (long-term)
Indulgence versus restraint	Freedom of speech is important (indulgence) versus it is not of primary concern (restrained)

After Hofstede (2011, p. 8)

not be an acceptable way of getting things done in the USA. Intercultural differences can also become a barrier during negotiations between cultures that are individualistic (e.g., the USA) versus those that are collectivist (e.g., Japan). During negotiations, people from Japan may want to discuss issues together to achieve consensus before agreeing. This can be deemed a waste of time by the other party. Having a knowledge of such differences can therefore be useful when working on projects with international partners.

Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (2021) have proposed ways to understand cultural differences and how they impact on carrying out business. This is relevant to managing projects to solve problems and to resolve dilemmas. The five orientations proposed by them are shown in Table 9.2.

9.3.2 Stop and Think: Can You Think of Circumstances Where You Have Observed Some of These Differences?

Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (2021) also point out cultural differences with respect to time and the environment. Attitudes regarding time may differentiate between what was achieved in the past as opposed to what can happen in future. Time is also looked upon as a linear sequence of events by certain cultures while some cultures may have a view of time moving in a circle linking the past and present to the future. Decisions made in projects may be influenced by the time orientation of a project manager. Project managers who are focused on the here-and-now may take decisions to solve problems as they arise, which could have a detrimental impact after a project is delivered. Others may think more deeply and consider the impact of their decisions in future. Cultures may also differ based on

Table 9.2 Hampden-turner and Trompenaars's cultural orientations

Cultural orientation	Example
Universalism versus particularism	In universalist cultures, good and right can be defined and stay stable whereas in particularistic cultures obligations and circumstances can change the norm
Neutral versus emotional	Dependant on whether any interaction should be objective (or detached) or if it is all right to display emotions. This could be interesting in negotiations
Individualism versus communitarianism	This is somewhat like Hofstede's individualism and collectivism. It depends on whether people want to be part of a community or prefer to act as individuals
Specific versus diffuse	Whether a relationship is based on personal contact rather than following an established contract. Diffuse relationships have become more used by businesses due to the increasing importance of stakeholder engagement
Achievement versus ascription	Achievement is based on what one achieved personally rather than by ascription which is based on birth, age, gender, or connections

After Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (2021)

whether they believe they can control their environment, or if they should adapt to live in harmony with it. This is useful in thinking about stakeholder engagement that will be discussed in Chap. 11 of this book.

While there have been criticisms about the cultural dimensions and orientations proposed by Hofstede (2011) and Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (2021), an article in the *Global Leadership Magazine* compares the two and suggests that the benefit of these models is by trying to understand cultural differences by using a combination of these dimensions to go beyond stereotyping cultures based on specific dimensions (GLM, 2022).

9.4 Organizational Culture

Smith et al. (2021) refer to Deal and Kennedy's (1983) definition of an organization's culture as 'we do things around here' and add that an organization's culture is about 'attitudes, values and beliefs that employees share' (p. 165). A metaphor often used to depict an organization's culture is an iceberg with some aspects of the culture being visible while others are not easily seen.

Schein (2010), whose work on Organizational Development (OD) is well-known, developed a model of culture identifying three distinct levels as shown in Fig. 9.1.

Level 1 is where physical artefacts such as office layout, language used in conversations, technology used, products of the organization, practices adopted, how people dress, and even stories that are known about the organization can inform

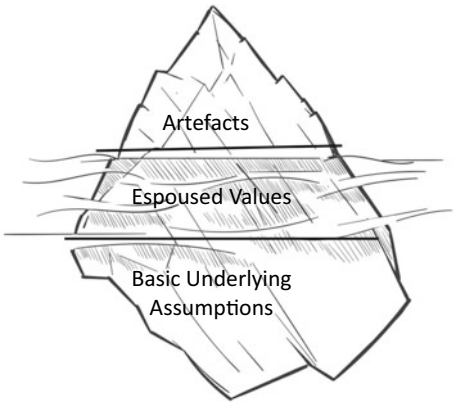

Fig. 9.1 Levels of culture. Adapted from Schein and Schein (2017, p. 18)

us about organizational culture. Examples are, Toyota's Kanban scheduling system for lean manufacturing, Google's open office plans, Apple's casual wear dress code and Amazon's supply chain management technology. The meaning of these artefacts would become clearer if you worked in an organization for a while to know why they are important.

At the next level are espoused values based on the beliefs and values often attributed to founders or prominent people who led the organization to differentiate it. American Jack Welch of GE, British Richard Branson of Virgin and Anita Roddick of Body Shop, and Indian Ratan Tata of Tata Group are some examples. The values also become more evident as you hear statements made in the organization by people with influence such as managers. For example, Multiplex, which is known to build iconic buildings, states on its website that its purpose is to 'create a better future'. Rolex is often associated with quality and uses high-profile personalities like tennis champion Roger Federer to advertise its products. However, Schein and Schein (2017) warn that values and beliefs also need to be socially validated by the group (members of the organization) as they could contravene their personal beliefs and values. For example, cutting costs on a project that could affect its outcomes may not be seen as an appropriate value by team members working on the project.

The last level is underlying assumptions that are taken for granted and are often embedded in organizations for successfully implementing beliefs and values. An example is the importance paid to safety in construction firms. Lend Lease, a major construction firm, states on its website, 'We aim to eliminate incidents and injuries across all our operations and sites because we want our people to return home safely' https://www.lendlease.com/au/media-centre/our-view/safety/. This level provides a sense of identity to people in the group and helps to increase their self-esteem (e.g., an organization that refuses to take on projects that may have unethical outcomes). It is at this level that the culture has an impact on behaviour, thoughts, and feelings.

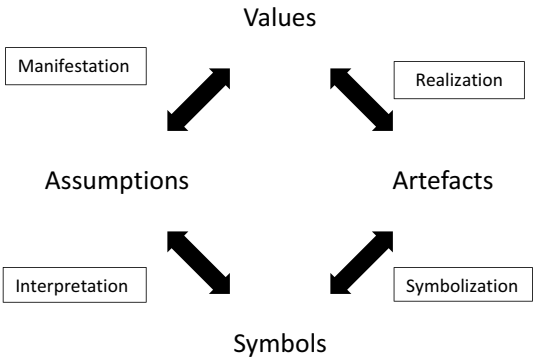

Fig. 9.2 Hatch's cultural dynamics model. Developed from Hatch (1993, p. 660)

Hatch (1993) expanded on the work of the Schein and suggests that their work 'leaves gaps regarding the appreciation of organizational culture as symbols and processes' (p. 657) and proposes a cultural dynamics model in processual terms. Her dynamic view of culture connects artefacts, values, and assumptions that result in symbols through a cyclic process of realization, manifestation, interpretation, and symbolization. She states that her model builds on Schein's model by representing 'a continuous production and reproduction of culture in both its stable and changing forms and condition' (p. 661). See Fig. 9.2.

Management scholars have proposed classifications of culture that could also be useful for us to discuss how a project culture might look like. Charles Handy is a popular writer on management and organization who advocates that before a manager tries to change the culture of an organization it is good for them to understand what it is. To do this, he proposes four types of cultures (Handy, 1976, 2020) using Greek gods as metaphors. His classification is based on (1976, p. 68):

- The relationship of individuals to the organization
- Motivation of people working there
- Job of the leader
- Priorities set at work
- Sources of influence.

The cultures proposed by Handy (1976) are:

Power Culture (Zeus, who ruled by whim and impulse): Where decision-making is centralized with few set rules. Power radiates from the centre. Such organizations tend to hire people who think alike. This is typically family firms and small businesses in a tough competitive environment where mistakes can be costly. These organizations can react quickly during a threat or danger.
Role Culture (Apollo, who is the Greek god of reason): This organization is typically a bureaucracy and gets its strength from its functions and specializations

that act as pillars. The organization has clear rules and procedures, and people have clear role descriptions. Selection and promotion are based on performance. The source of power is position and rank, and not expertise. Influence is through rules and procedures. This generally suits organizations in a stable environment where the focus is on economies of scale rather than flexibility.

Task Culture (Athena, the goddess of strategy and action orientation): This is the culture that is often found in project organizations where power lies with experts and the emphasis is on getting the task done and a mission accomplished. The right number of resources with the necessary expertise is brought together to complete the given task. The culture is adaptable and can be formed, reformed, and abandoned. This culture is favourable when the market requires flexibility, and the organization is affected easily by the environment. Control is difficult and is primarily done through allocation of resources. Both individual and group performance become important as teamwork is expected.

Person Culture (Dionysius, the existentialist who is self-oriented): This culture is dominated by individuals who work together due to a common interest like lawyers and consultants. In such an organization, the influence is shared and power is based on expertise.

Although the task culture seems most suitable for projects, the bureaucratic culture could be relevant to large government-sponsored projects. The role culture may suit small projects that are carried out within a functional department and person culture on innovations or start-up projects.

Another classification is the 'Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument' (OCAI) https://www.ocai-online.com/, based on Cameron and Quinn's (2011) competing values framework. They classify organizational culture into:

Clan: Resembles a family organization where the orientation is to collaborate, the leadership style is facilitative or empowering, and drivers of value are commitment, communication, and development. The organization believes in human development and expects high commitment from its staff.

Hierarchy: This culture has a control orientation, and the value drivers are efficiency, timeliness, consistency, and uniformity. The leadership style is monitoring and coordinating. It uses processes and procedures to ensure efficiency and effectiveness.

Adhocracy: In this culture, the orientation is to create to deliver innovative outputs. The drivers of value are transformation and agility to drive innovation. The leadership is visionary, entrepreneurial, and fosters innovation. The organization is comfortable with constant change and possesses an innovative outlook.

Market: The orientation of this culture is to compete. The leader is expected to be a hard driver and competitor. The value drivers are market share, goal achievement, and profitability. This organization is effective when it is aggressive and focused on customer needs.

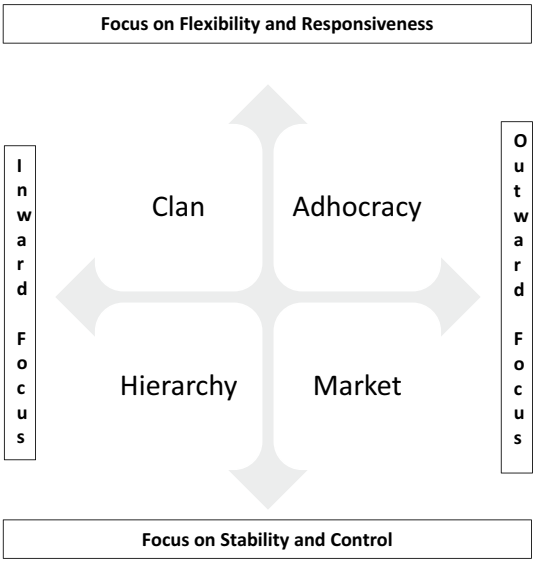

Fig. 9.3 Cameron and Quinn's culture model. Based on Cameron and Quinn (2011)

The competing values of this model are illustrated in Fig. 9.3.

Table 9.3 compares the classifications by Handy (2020) and Cameron and Quinn (2011) with Trompenaars and Woolliams' (2002) framework, to highlight similarities that could assist in looking at cultures suitable for project types. The reason why Trompenaars's work is included here is that it is linked to the cultural dimensions of the Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (2021) discussed earlier in this chapter. The Trompenaars and Woolliams' classification distinguishes culture across two dimensions as opposed to the cultural orientations discussed before. The dimensions used are equality—hierarchy and person orientation and task.

9.4.1 Stop and Think: Do Any of These Classifications Resonate with the Culture of an Organization You Are Working in or Familiar with?

Organizations also may not have a uniform culture due to competing interests. For example, in an organization where one of the authors worked had different cultures between sales, engineering, manufacturing, and service. The primary culture in this Japanese organization was the manufacturing culture as most of the profits were made from products. Sales and marketing were responsible for selling systems that had to be engineered and then components of the systems manufactured using a Just-in-Time (JIT) production method. For JIT to work well sales had to be clear in their specifications from customers but this was not often the case as sales were not technically proficient to specify systems clearly. It was up to Engineering to fix that but this often resulted in renegotiating with the customer without having to bear additional costs causing friction between departments. All these delays held

Table 9.3 Comparison of culture models

Handy (2020)	Cameron and Quinn (2011)	Trompenaars and Woolliams (2002)
Power culture (Zeus) Decision-making concentrated at the centre, e.g., family firms/small entrepreneurs	Clan Like a family organization where leaders are revered	Family culture Power-oriented with people being treated as members of a family. High status for parent figures. Aligns with a collaborative culture
Role culture (Apollo) Power and authority are based on hierarchy, e.g., bureaucracy	Hierarchy Bureaucratic with clear lines of decision-making	Eiffel tower Hierarchical with structures rules and processes. Aligns with a control culture
Task culture (Athena) Control through resources and people. Team-based, e.g., projects		Guided missile Project-oriented to get the job done with people treated as experts. Adapts to goal changes. Aligns with compete culture
Personal or cluster (Dionysius) Individual freedom, e.g., partnerships, self-help groups	Adhocracy No central power. Emphasizes individuality and creativity, e.g., software development (agility) teams and think tanks	Incubator Egalitarians and person-oriented that breeds creativity. Aligns with a create culture
	Market Competitive businesses with a customer focus Organizations that developed in the information age	Some aspects of guided missile culture proposed by Trompenaars also include a compete culture

Based on King and Lawley (2016), Cameron and Quinn (2011), Trompenaars and Woolliams (2002)

up the JIT process and the factory was not happy. The CEO tried to apply Japanese TQM principle using Hoshin Kanri (Akao et al., 2020) to improve coordination and tried to drive the message that the next process is your customer to build harmony despite different cultures and minimize conflicts.

9.5 Project Culture

Do projects have a specific culture? Do such cultures improve performance and ensure projects success? These are some questions that will be explored in this section. We have already had a taste of classifications of organizational culture that point to some favourable cultures for projects. But what do project management scholars think about a culture that works for projects?

Pinto (2016, p. 58) suggests that 'for successful project management, the *organizational setting* matters, its culture, structure and its strategy each play a part, and together they create the environment in which a project will flourish or flounder'. He adds that an understanding of how organizational cultures have a specific impact on projects and how they are managed is important. Structure is discussed in Chapter 20 of this book and strategy is discussed in Chap. 10 in the discussion on leadership.

According to Pinto (2016), culture can affect projects in the following ways:

Relationship with other departments such as functional organizations as resources are often shared between the two in matrix organizations. The willingness of functional organizations to help the project organization can help to make projects more successful. However, this would depend on the organization's culture, based on what importance it pays to projects. It would be expected to be more supportive in project-oriented organizations but less so in process-oriented organizations (Miterev et al., 2017). Relationships are discussed in Chap. 11 of this book, when this issue will be discussed further in the form of stakeholder engagement.

Commitment of employees to project goals, as projects are created to achieve specific goals. In the classifications discussed in the last section task culture and the metaphor of a guided missile are considered important in projects. This would require that the project team is dedicated to achieving project goals.

Processes such as planning where projects teams are expected to provide estimates of costs and time in project plans. Honest estimates instead of padding them up would be more productive to develop realistic plans.

Performance evaluation where appropriate reward systems can reinforce a project mentality. As projects may succeed or fail, a tolerant culture to taking initiatives on time is more favourable in projects.

An early article about project culture (Firth and Kurt, 1991) is a good starting point to look at project culture as it compares hierarchical culture versus project culture. The authors suggest that a flatter culture rather than a hierarchical culture could help a project organization to be more flexible to adapt to a changing environment. 'A flat project-based culture emphasizes speed, flexibility, and lateral communication, and reduces the distance between itself and the clients' (Firth & Kurt, 1991, p. 438). They suggest the following characteristics as being suitable to a project culture:

Structure: An open system with a customer focus where information flow is bottom-up, across, and top-down as required.

Power structure: Web-based, focused on task where the leaders depend on teamwork.

Infrastructure: Clear processes and methodology suitable for projects,

They also suggest that organizations where projects are carried out should make project-based work attractive to staff. Some organizations have dual career paths that make project managers as important as general managers.

Kendra and Taplin (2004) explain how culture can help a project to succeed based on structure and design. Their research, based on stories collected from the information technology division of a large manufacturing organization (General Motors), confirms that a project culture did exist based on project management practices, project manager competencies, supporting processes to motivate cross-functional teams, and performance evaluation at individual and project levels. They also emphasize that an organization should be supportive of project activities to help projects succeed.

An operational framework for project management culture has been proposed by Du Plessis and Hoole (2006a), based on a comprehensive literature review, questionnaire, and concept mapping process. Figure 9.4 shows their development of dimensions for a project management culture.

Table 9.4 expands on the questions to ask to identify suitable dimensions based on the context of the project and type.

Du Plessis and Hoole's (2006b) study found that project environment was not as highly regarded as the other three factors. This may be because the internal environment is under the control of the project, but the external environment is not. However, it is also important to consider how to influence the external environment even if you cannot control it.

A recent study on project culture as a key success factor (Moczydlowska & Sadkowska 2021, p. 826) put together a list of elements of project culture which has similarities to the work of Du Plessis and Hoole (2006b) from a review of project management literature.

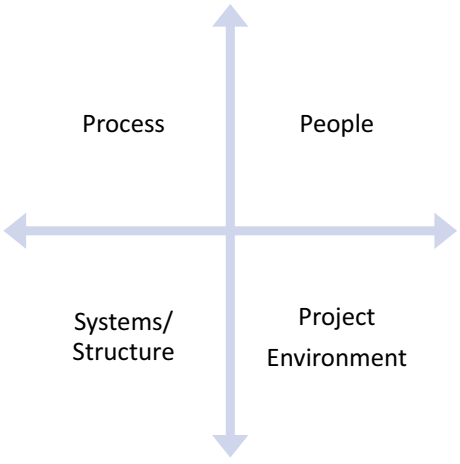

Fig. 9.4 Project management culture dimensions. Adapted from Du Plessis and Hoole (2006b)

Table 9.4 Project management culture framework

Questions to ask	Elements to consider
How?	*Project processes*: project management philosophy including processes, customers, and results orientation with provision for continuous improvement and learning
Who or whom?	*People in projects*: mindsets, competence, interrelationships, ethics, and trust
What?	*Project management methodology*: knowledge areas, monitoring and control, allowing flexibility
Where?	*Environmental elements*: both internal and external: link with strategy, external, and internal stakeholder support

Adapted from Du Plessis and Hoole (2006a)

People: Emphasis on teams and interpersonal relationships.
Processes: Support from management and stakeholders, opportunities for learning, open communication, and appropriate project management methodology and processes.
Relationships: Interdependence, control/discipline, and conflict tolerance.
Orientation: Results and risk orientation and open systems focus.

The study identified five main elements of project culture that contributed positively to project outcomes:

Openness: Ability to scan the environment to get information, being comfortable with uncertainty and adaptability
Involvement: Provision of adequate resources, communicating well, and collaborative problem-solving
Positive approach: Viewing threats as opportunities and building trust
Alignment stability: Effective use of lessons learnt, organizational support from top management and the Project Management Office as contributing to project outcomes

Both these studies have provided some clues on how we can set up an enabling project culture.

9.6 Organizational and Project Culture

One characteristic of projects being carried out within a functional organization is the loose coupling between the functional organization and projects. The culture of the permanent organization may not align with the emergent nature of projects which are considered temporary organizations. Sometimes projects may be located separately located from the permanent organization due to the context which creates a physical distance. Even otherwise there is likely to a social distance between

the project and functional organization due to the nature of the tasks being carried out by the respective organization. Often in projects the team is made up of people from different organizations including people contracted for the duration of the project from outside or specialists from other organizations located inside the project. In such instances, the project manager may have to work towards establishing a team culture aligned with the mission of the project.

Next, we discuss cultural intelligence, which is associated with working across culture that is becoming increasingly common in projects.

9.7 Cultural Intelligence

A study of cultural differences and project success in construction projects (Kivrak et al., 2009) showed that managing cultural differences were viewed as very important to deliver international projects successfully and mismanaging them could lead to failure. This brings us to the concept of cultural intelligence (CQ), which has gained prominence due to globalization.

Earley and Mosakowski (2004) explain that CQ and emotional intelligence (EQ) are related. While a person with EQ can understand human differences, a person with CQ is able to decipher features of individuals as well as the group they belong to. Earley and Mosakowski (2004, p. 138) define CQ as an 'outsider's seemingly natural ability to interpret someone's unfamiliar and ambiguous gestures the way that the person's compatriots would'. Their CQ has three components: cognitive, physical, and emotional motivational, and it resides in the body, heart, and head.

Based on these components, they have developed a classification of six culturally intelligent profiles:

Provincial: These are people who can work comfortably with people of similar background but are at sea with people from vastly different backgrounds.
Analyst: This is someone who tries to learn about a foreign culture's norms and expectations using a variety of means. He or she would buy a phrasebook as soon they are ready to travel to another country.
Natural: These are people who possess an intuitive talent to learn about culture without using a systematic learning process.
Ambassador: These are people who can communicate with other cultures easily and make others in that culture comfortable without knowing much about the culture. Political appointees are usually good ambassadors and possess these traits.
Mimic: These are also people who put guests at ease, build trust easily across cultures, and are good at picking up cultural cues. You will find them imitating expressions or sounds used by other cultures easily. In India, there are cultures who often ask: Did you follow me? After stating a fact. Mimics engaged with that culture may use that to end their sentences as well.
Chameleon: This type is rare, but they are good at all three components of CQ and could even be mistaken to be a native of another country.

Ang et al. (2015) have also proposed a means to measure CQ based on extensive research. They define CQ as 'a person's capability to function effectively in intercultural environments' (Ang et al., 2015, p. 278). Thus, CQ is not specific to cultures, but it is the capacity to work effectively in intercultural environments. The dimensions used by van Dyne et al. (2012) are metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural. Table 9.5 compares the dimensions proposed by Earley and Mosakowski (2004) and van Dyne et al. (2012).

The dimensions are not equivalent but can give you an idea about how to gauge CQ.

9.7.1 Stop and Think: Have You Come Across People with Some of the Abilities Described in Table 9.5?

We have covered a lot of ground on understanding culture in this chapter. However, it is also important to consider alternate perspectives so that you can develop a balanced view of culture and apply it wisely in your projects. We will discuss some of these in the next section.

Peters and Waterman's book titled *In Search of Excellence* (1982) suggested that excellent companies had strong unified cultures and promoted shared values, and those that had a strong customer focus produced excellent results. Other authors such as Deal and Kennedy (1983) also promoted the idea that organizational culture and business success are related. This view has prevailed and even books written by highly successful companies like Google (Schmidt & Rosenberg, 2015) continue to promote the idea that culture and success are related. Such views present an attractive view of culture that can be manipulated and controlled.

However, organizational studies scholars like Martin et al. (2006) are sceptical about this seductive view of culture, which they call an integrative culture that believes that shared values lead to better performance. Martin et al. (2006, p. 731) suggest that we need to look at two alternate views of culture. A differentiation view that suggests that organizational culture is not unitary and influenced by the environment that can result in overlapping subcultures. Hence, consensus is only within these cultures.

As an example, in an IT project, system architects, software developers, and testers may have different subcultures and are often managed by a generalist project manager who is an expert on managing time, cost, and quality. Martin et al. (2006, p.732) also suggest a third culture called fragmented culture often found in knowledge-intensive firms. It is important for project managers to realize that he/she may have to manage projects where the three cultures—integrated, differentiated, and fragmented may coexist.

Table 9.5 Dimensions of cultural intelligence

Dimensions Earley and Mosakowski (2004, p. 143)	Example	Dimensions Van Dyne et al. (2012, p. 301)	Example
Cognitive	Set goals for interactions with another culture, and plan to relate to people. Able to sense if something is going well or wrong and learn from unexpected occurrences	**Metacognitive** (planning, awareness, checking)	Develop action plans to deal with people from other cultures, keep track of interactions to become more aware, and adjust own interaction
		Cognitive (general and specific)	Ability to describe value frameworks across cultures as well as adopt a leadership style that suits other cultural settings
Emotional/motivational	Confident about ability to deal with other cultures even in unfamiliar situations and ability to make friends with people in other cultures and can adapt to the lifestyle of another culture	**Motivational** (intrinsic, extrinsic, and self-efficacy)	Enjoy interacting with other cultures and aware of value gained by working in other cultures and developing confidence to cope living with other cultures
Physical	Ability to change body language, expression, and speech style in cross-cultural situations. Ability to also change the way to act as the situation demands	**Behavioural** (verbal, non-verbal, and speech)	Able to pause and speak in different cultural situations and maintain adequate distance and modify ways to disagree to fit a cultural setting

Adapted from Ang et al. (Earley & Mosakowski, 2004; van Dyne et al., 2012)

9.8 Conclusions

In this chapter, we have covered a lot of ground that can provide an overview of the culture relevant to projects. It is important for project managers and teams to understand the various manifestations of culture so that their projects can perform better and be successful. National culture is important to work in projects

where people from different cultures must interact so that cultural differences are considered. Organizational culture can provide clues as to what type of culture is useful in a project's context. The discussion on project culture can help to establish values, routines, and practices so that a project embraces the right performance culture. Developing CQ can help project teams to work effectively across cultures that affect a project's context. The critical perspectives can help to realize that culture has many forms, and it is not always easy to establish or control culture.

9.9 Summary

An organization's strategy and culture are closely related as culture supports an organization to be successful. What about projects that are temporary organizations? That is what we discuss in this chapter. Creating a culture that supports the mission of the project is not easy as team members who are assigned to projects may come from different organizational, cultural, national, and religious cultures. Project managers who can develop a cohesive culture despite these differences will find managing such a project easier. This chapter will help project managers with tools and strategies to enable a culture of performance in their projects.

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Leading Projects

10

10.1 Introduction

Uma is a project manager in Control Systems India. Her firm is an established software outsourcing firm that follows the waterfall methodology using the systems development life cycle. Recently, her firm started developing software products for the Indian market where the timelines are short, and it has become important to engage the customer closely in the delivery which was not possible in the outsourced projects. The sales and marketing staff in the company advise Uma that other firms supplying software products in India have switched to agile delivery methods. Uma consults with her boss Raju, who has several years of experience in the firm and was responsible for setting up its development processes. Raju does not see a need for change. However, he suggests Uma talk to Manohar, another experienced project manager who has been using agile, to mentor her on how to introduce agile in some projects as a trial to keep sales off her back. Uma attends a talk about agile project management at the local Project Management Institute (PMI) chapter and is impressed with agile's possibilities. The speaker, who is a certified scrum leader, tells Uma that she needs an agile coach to guide her rather than just an in-house mentor on how to introduce agile in a few projects. Uma then consults with her friend Vasu in Energy India, one of Control Systems India's customers which has undergone a large-scale transformation project due to the privatization of the power sector. Vasu tells her that she needs to think big and bring in an experienced change management consultant to develop a strategy for the organization to become expert in both waterfall and agile methods and develop ways in which decisions can be made on when to use which by establishing a project management office as advisors. Vasu tells Uma that he has access to senior people in Control Systems India above Raju's level and hints that he can contact them help her. He also asks her to develop alliances with senior managers in marketing and sales to influence upwards that

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change is urgently needed. Vasu also tells Uma that Raju will retire soon, and this is her opportunity to demonstrate her leadership capability to be promoted to the next level.

If you were Uma, what steps would you take? Mentoring, coaching, or large-scale transformation? After reading this chapter, return to the case and review whether you have changed your opinion.

10.2 What Is Leadership?

When you think of the term leadership, several images of people who we thought of as leaders come to our minds. We may think of political leaders, religious leaders, CEOs of major corporations, freedom fighters, and community leaders. We also often wonder about the difference between a manager and a leader and when each is needed, or whether the same person could be both.

Traditionally, project management in organizations has focused on project managers who are often considered agents who carry out a time- and cost-limited task for a principal or owner. This is the called the principal-agent view of a project manager as explained in agency theory (Eisenhardt, 1989). This view treats the project manager as a transactional agent who gets the job done using rules and rewards. Recently, the visionary and motivational role of a project manager as a leader has emerged calling for a more transformational leadership in projects. In addition, other forms of leadership are also expected of a project leader. Before we get into discussing leadership, it is good to distinguish between a manager and a leader as we are used to the job title of project manager since the time project management bodies of knowledge were established in the 1990s. In fact, Gaddis (1959) wrote about the project manager as a special kind of manager in the 1950s as someone between the management and the 'technologist' thus differentiating the role from that of a 'project engineer' (p. 93). However, over the past two decades, the leadership aspect of project managers has emerged. In fact, a recent article in the *Harvard Business Review* (Pedersen & Ritter, 2017) portrays project managers as prophet, gambler, expert and executor, and the prophet role is that of a leader whose weapon of choice is 'a persuasive vision'.

10.3 Management Versus Leadership

One of the frequently debated topics about leadership is 'What is the difference between managers and leaders?' Abraham Zaleznik clarified this in a *Harvard Business Review* article by emphasizing that they are different in 'what they attend to and in how they think, work and interact' (Zaleznik, 1990, p. 9). He also suggested that the personality of leaders is different from that of managers, and they develop in different ways. Kotter (2001), another prominent scholar of management, found that leaders are not special but differ in how they act. Kotter goes on to say that 'not everyone can be good at both leading and managing' (p. 103) and

clarifies that 'management is about coping with complexity' while leadership 'is about coping with change' (p. 104). Managers in organizations are normally found to plan, budget, organize, and staff their department, and monitor and control the work that is carried out. One of their key tasks is to solve problems. Leaders, on the other hand, set direction, align people towards the set direction, motivate and inspire people to move in the direction set by them. In summary, as Bennis and Nanus (1985) explain, 'managers do things right while leaders do the right things' (p. 19). Current thinking in leadership research is that both leadership and management are necessary: while management works better to maintain stability, as it resists change; leadership is necessary for creative change, especially during a crisis (Sitkin et al., 2006). This was clear in handling the impact of COVID-19 where leadership was required to contain the spread while management became essential during the administration of the vaccine.

10.3.1 Stop and Think

What do you think based on your own experience of working with managers and leaders in organizations? Do they seem different? If so, why?

10.4 Leadership Theories

The *trait approach* to leadership tried to identify specific characteristics and qualities of leaders. These studies focused on studying great leaders and examining their qualities and personalities. Examples that come to mind are Winston Churchill and Jawaharlal Nehru in politics and Johan Cruyff of Ajax in football and Clive Lloyd in cricket in sports. Trait theory failed to survive as there was no agreement on the traits, and it did not explain why traits do not work in all situations. However, reading about leaders and their traits is still popular as you can see from books about leaders displayed prominently in bookshops. Examples of such books are those on Richard Branson of Virgin, Anita Roddick who created Body Shop and Steve Jobs who made everyone excited when a new Apple product was released in the market. An example of a book on a project leader is the book on India's 'Metro Man' Elattivalapil Sreedharan titled Karmayogi by Ashokan. These books focus on leaders' values, ability to inspire and charisma. The focus on traits and characteristics seems to have a made a return recently with the Big Five-Factor Model of Personality Traits discussed in Chap. 1 of this book.

10.4.1 Stop and Think

Have you read any stories of great leaders that you admired or were curious about, and what made them tick? What were some of their traits that appealed to you?

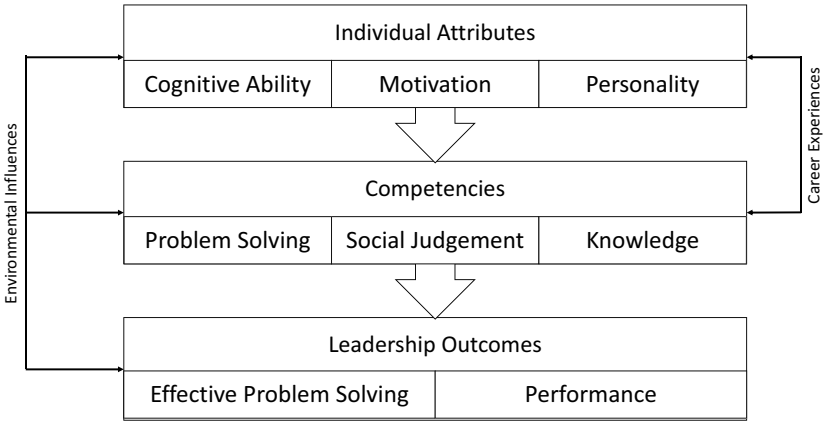

Fig. 10.1 Model based on skills approach. Adapted from Mumford et al. (2000)

The shortcomings with the traits approach led to the skills approach to identify what skills make a good leader and whether these can be developed. A useful model arising out of this research is proposed by Mumford et al. (2000) which shows how individual attributes of a leader (cognitive abilities, motivation, and personality) can be developed into competencies (problem-solving skills, social-judgement skills, and knowledge) to deliver outcomes (effective problem-solving and performance). This model helps us to understand how appropriate training and work experience can develop competent leaders (Fig. 10.1).

The behavioural theories of leadership identified different leadership styles based on how leaders act. One such approach led to examining a leader's attitude towards followers and the way power is used to get things done by followers. Authoritarian leaders were directive and expected their followers to obey orders using a command-and-control approach. Democratic leaders shared power with their followers and were seen to be involved in consensual decision-making. Leaders who used a laissez-faire approach were found to leave all decision-making to the followers. The behavioural theory of leadership arose from some key studies carried out by Ohio State University (Stodgill, 1974) that also suggested when the different approaches could be effective.

10.4.2 Stop and Think

Think of situations where each of these styles would be most effective? Have a look at Blake and Mouton's Leadership Grid @ https://makeadentleadership.com/blake-and-mouton *where you can identify your own style of leadership using the grid.*

It was found, however, that specific styles could not be applied to all situations, which led to the development of situational or contingency theories of leadership. These theories proposed that the leadership approach used should match the situation. Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) suggested that the approach used by a leader is contingent upon characteristics of the manager, subordinates, and the situation. For example, when the leader believes that subordinates have creative ideas and valued freedom, and the situation demanded an innovative approach, the leader would encourage subordinates to come up with new ideas to resolve the problem. On the other hand, if the situation required urgent action, and the subordinates were good at following orders, the leader may use a more directive approach to move forward.

Hersey and Blanchard (1988) proposed a model of leadership based on the situation that included telling, selling, participating, and delegating. If followers were not capable of carrying out a task, a telling style was suggested, whereas a delegating style was used when followers were ready to perform a task. Situational leadership helped to develop a prescriptive approach but was dependent upon whether the leader could analyse the capability of the followers in a specific context and lead them towards a desired goal by adopting an appropriate style. Although limited by lack of research, this approach helps to train leaders.

10.4.3 Stop and Think

Think of situations where the four situational leadership styles could be suitable

1. *Telling, directing, or guiding*
2. *Selling, coaching, or explaining*
3. *Participating, facilitating, or collaborating*
4. *Delegating, empowering, or monitoring.*

Why do you think so? Think of both the situation and the type of followers where this would be effective.

10.5 Project Leadership

Let us now try to understand what theories are useful for project leadership. Currently, it is important to know that leader and leadership mean different things. A leader is usually an individual or a group of individuals, when they may be called as the leadership team, whereas leadership is the process used to lead others. Bearing that in mind let us look at leadership in projects.

10.5.1 Transactional and Transformational Leadership

We mentioned earlier that project managers have been viewed as transactional leaders in the past but recently they are expected to be transformational leaders as well, especially when the project complexity increases; in other words, when the situation is ambiguous and uncertain. This is situation will come up later in this chapter. Therefore, let us start by trying to differentiate between transformational and transactional leaders.

Transformational leadership is considered one of the newer approaches to leadership, which emerged in the 1980s, and urges leaders to articulate a vision or higher purpose to inspire followers and develop strategies to achieve that vision. Bass (1985) proposed a six-factor leadership model using a Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) that was then developed into a short form MLQ-5X to get a 360° view of a leader's behaviour. The higher order construct of transformational leadership measured by this instrument are (Bass et al., 2003, p. 208):

> *Idealized influence*: Transformational leaders need to be admired, respected, and trusted by followers and take their needs into consideration. These leaders are also expected to be ethical, principled, and value oriented. Idealized influence expects leaders to build trust by acting with integrity.
> *Inspirational motivation*: Here, the transformational leader provides meaning and challenges to work carried out by followers. The leaders use optimism and enthusiasm to inspire. Essentially, a leader encourages followers to look at a future state that they aspire to.
> *Intellectual Stimulation*: A transformational leader encourages new ways of thinking to find novel solutions to problems by questioning taken-for-granted assumptions. Ridiculing and criticizing followers is avoided. The leader's role here is to encourage innovative thinking.
> *Individualized consideration:* A transformational leader is expected to take into consideration individual followers, and coach and mentor them to reach higher levels of potential. Leaders provide a supportive climate to make this to happen as well take an active role in coaching and developing people.

In the MLQ Questionnaire, transactional leadership is characterized by

> Recognition through rewards (*rewards achievement*): how transactional leaders reward followers for achieving expected performance.
> Taking corrective action (*monitors deviations and mistakes*): how transactional leaders take corrective action when they find that a follower has deviated from performing as expected or has committed a mistake.

In other words, Northouse (2016, p. 162) transactional leadership focuses on 'the exchanges that occur between leaders and followers', whereas transformational leadership creates an engagement that 'raises the level of motivation and morality in both the leader and the follower'.

10.5.2 Stop and Think

The characteristic of a transformational leader seems quite idealistic. Do you think it is achievable? Can you think of a leader you have read about who might qualify to be a transformational leader? How and why?

Is a transactional leader being more of a manager? What is the difference between the two?

So, what is project leadership?

Traditionally, the leadership role of a project manager has been described as the ability to 'achieve a project's goals' (Briner et al., 1996, p. 6) while facing several challenges to do so due to their lack of authority in the organization. Pinto (2016, pp. 138–146) explains how a project manager leads through acquiring project resources; builds and motivates teams; has a vision while fighting fires; and communicates extensively. Reviewing effective project leaders through studies on leadership traits of project managers, Pinto (2016, p. 146) concludes that while project leaders are like managers who are good communicators, they also need to be flexible and adaptable to ambiguous situations without being stressed too much; work well with and through their project teams; and be skilful at various influence tactics as they lack authority in a functional organization. Research in project leadership has also emphasized the importance of emotional intelligence (EQ) to lead projects successfully (Müller & Turner, 2010). Using a Leadership Development Questionnaire (LDQ), Müller and Turner (2010) concluded that a higher level of critical thinking associated with intellectual competence in project managers, and a higher level of three emotional competence subdimensions (influence, motivation, and conscientiousness), can contribute to project success. They also had specific recommendations for a variety of projects in different contexts.

10.5.3 Stop and Think

In your experience working in projects, which EQ factors (self-awareness; self-regulation; motivation; empathy; and social skills) are likely to inspire you to achieve project goals?

Several new theories of leadership are also finding a place in the project management literature. Some of these are discussed briefly next.

Recently, authentic leadership has found a place in the discussions on project leadership. Authentic leadership is used to describe leaders who through their own example foster 'healthy ethical climates characteristic by transparency, trust, integrity, and high moral standards' (Avolio & Gardner, 2005, p. 344). Toor and Ofori (2008) suggest that authentic leadership has a role to play in construction projects and add that authentic leaders:

> … possess positive values, lead from the heart, set highest levels of ethics and morality, and go beyond their personal interests for well-being of their followers. They capitalize on the environment of trust and are able to motivate people and accomplish challenging

> tasks. Authentic leadership possesses high potential for development as well as veritable performance of construction project leaders. (p. 620)

In research carried out on megaproject leadership, the leaders' authenticity also played a part in leading the projects well (Drouin et al., 2021).

The basic idea behind servant leadership is how leaders can serve their followers by putting the followers' welfare and development over their own interests and exhibit a strong moral behaviour towards their followers as well as stakeholders (Northouse, 2017). In the project management context, servant leadership is often associated with agile projects where the scrum master's servant leadership can enhance team effectiveness (Holtzhausen & de Klerk, 2018). Following van Dierendonck (2011), Holtzhausesn and de Clerk lists eight characteristics of servant leaders: empowering and developing people; humility; authenticity; interpersonal acceptance; providing direction; and stewardship in their investigation. These characteristics are also found in other leadership theories that we have discussed in this chapter.

Recently, it has been suggested that project leaders also need to be responsible leaders, a quality that has become important due to the scandals that have rocked organizations like Enron, Paramalat and Worldcom. Pless (2007, p. 438) states that responsible leadership is concerned with 'leadership dynamics in the stakeholder society and includes the ethical perspective—the norms, values, and principles' and suggests that multinational corporations that can demonstrate responsible leadership can contribute to the betterment of the world. A study sponsored by the PMI on responsible leadership (Clarke et al., 2018) concluded that responsible leadership is relevant in the context of projects. A study carried out by Sankaran et al. (2019) on the relevance of responsible leadership to projects involving public private partnerships with mangers in Australia, China and India indicated that responsible leadership is relevant but is likely to be interpreted differently in different countries.

10.5.4 Stop and Think

Do you think that responsible leadership is relevant to projects or just organizations? In a business sense, this is making decisions that considers stakeholders, such as workers, clients and suppliers, the environment, the community, and future generations.

If so, how will this type of leadership be evident in actions taken by the project leader?

10.6 Leaders and Followers

The relationship between leaders and followers has also received some attention in the leadership literature and is relevant to leading teams in projects. Jackson and Parry (2008) explain that one reason why followership may not have received as much attention is that it has been viewed as subservient to leadership.

One of the early investigations linking leaders and followers is the Leader-Member Exchange Theory (LMX). According to this theory, research into the relationships between leaders and followers revealed that there could be followers who are assigned more responsibilities by the leader and become an in-group, while those who perform normal duties expected of them form an out-group. This differentiation of followers has also been noticed in the balanced leadership theory that will be discussed later in this chapter.

Another leadership theory that links leaders and followers is House and Mitchels' (1974) Path-Goal theory. This theory explains 'how leaders can help followers along the path to their goals by selecting specific behaviours that are best suited to followers' (Northouse, 2017, p. 116). What this theory proposes is that leaders can adopt one of four leadership styles: directive; supportive; participative; or achievement-oriented, depending on the characteristics of the task and the followers. Followers who have a strong need for affiliation would appreciate a supportive leadership style. If supporters believe that they have an internal locus of control (that they can take control of events in their life), they will need participative-oriented style. A directive style is suitable for followers who are dogmatic and may need clarity on tasks. In addition to follower characteristics, the style of leadership may also depend on whether a task is ambiguous or repetitive. One can easily relate this to a project context where tasks are sometimes repetitive and at other times ambiguous or complex. An achievement-oriented style could also be expected to motivate high-performance teams.

Some other theories of leadership where followers play an important part have also found to be relevant in projects. The first of these is distributed leadership.

Lindgren and Packendorff (2009) propose that we need to investigate the role of distributed leadership in projects as leading and following are 'two sides of the same set of relational skills that everyone in an organization needs to work in a context of interdependence' (Fletcher, 2004, p. 648). This means that even if formal positions remain unaltered, project leadership roles depend on the situation and individuals are required to move fluidly between the two roles (Lindgren & Packendorff, 2009, p. 300). Thus, distributed leadership could facilitate sharing of leadership between the project leader and team members based on the situation.

Shared leadership is similar theory. Clarke (2012) argues that one of the shortcomings in research in project leadership is its focus on a vertical style of leadership that rests on the capability of the project manager to lead. She suggests that leadership in projects should consider sharing leadership where 'no individual performs all leadership but rather that within a project, there may be a set of individuals who collectively perform this activity' (p. 198). Therefore, leadership

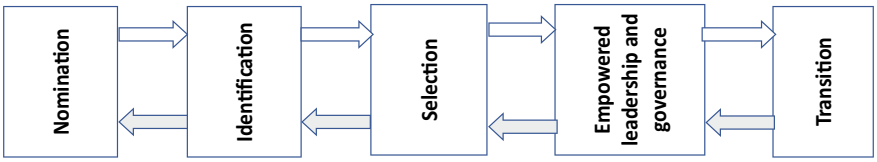

Fig. 10.2 Events linked with balanced leadership

tasks could be shared between a project manager and a member of the project team. How can this be facilitated?

To answer this question, we look at the work of Müller et al. (2021), who proposed a balanced leadership theory to explain how the leadership can shuttle between project managers and team members depending on the task. After investigating the sharing of leadership in nine different countries in a variety of projects, they proposed a theory of balanced leadership.

According to this theory, balanced leadership is linked with five events as shown in Fig. 10.2.

Nomination is when team members are assigned to a project. Once team members are assigned, the project manager (or vertical leader) identifies members who are suitable to lead certain tasks during the project as horizontal leaders. Once they are identified, the project manager selects those who are likely to lead and then prepares them to lead tasks when the situation arises. While the tasks are being performed, the project manager continues to empower the horizontal leader and governs the execution of the task. The extent of governance will depend on the trust the vertical leader has developed with the horizontal leader. Transition back to a team role takes place in two ways. If the team leader was found incapable of leading the task, the project manager may terminate the leadership role. If the leader is successful, the completed task is handed back to the project manager. A successful completion may bring more leadership opportunities to the horizontal leader.

10.6.1 Stop and Think

In your experience in projects, have you found examples of the sharing of leadership between a project manager and a team leader or member? How does this take place? What type of tasks are usually handed over to the team member? Do you find that this takes place differently in projects using waterfall or agile methodologies?

10.7 Competencies

The importance of leadership to projects has been also recognized by several peak bodies which have proposed a set of competencies that cover leadership-related competencies. Examples of such competencies are those designated by the International Project Management Association (IPMA).

The IPMA competency standards classify the competencies into technical, behavioural, and contextual competencies. The behavioural competencies are an area where leadership is emphasized. The leadership competencies expected are providing direction and motivating team members to achieve the project's goals. While the competency baseline does not specify a leadership style, it expects the project manager to be familiar with a style that is relevant to the project. Leadership tasks include types of behaviour, communication, the way people are encouraged or critiqued, how conflicts are dealt with, and decision-making.

The Global Alliance for the Project Professions (GAPPS, 2021) has also published A Guiding Framework for Leadership in Complexity. The framework provides descriptors for units of competency applicable to leading complex projects:

Thinking holistically which includes an ability to apply systems thinking approaches, and exercising personal mastery by being self-aware, resilient, and open to new ideas.
Providing conditions to enable decisions and actions by maintaining strategic direction and acting sustainably. This also expects project leaders to establish a data management framework and control systems to deal with complexity.
Responding to the environment by sensing and responding to volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous environments.
Engaging collaboratively by enabling collaborative communication and culture to work towards a shared vision and meaning.

10.8 Leader Development

An investigation by Berg and Karlsen (2016) into how project managers practised a coaching leadership style revealed that coaching can help project managers to acquire necessary skills, achieve desired results and contributes to career development. The study investigated the use of the GROW (goal, reality, options, will) model of business coaching (Alexander, 2010), which starts with establishing a goal, examining the current reality, exploring options to understand obstacles, and establishing the will to find a way forward.

Another investigation into evaluation of the use of executive coaching (Ballesteros-Sanchez et al., 2019) showed that coaching had an impact on the PMI's competency unit of managing, leading, and cognitive ability.

These results seem to indicate that coaching can contribute to competencies associated with project leadership, but further investigation is warranted.

10.9 New Perspectives

Some new perspectives on leadership may be relevant to the project management context as projects are growing bigger and more complex. Recently, adaptive leadership has been promoted as a means of managing interorganizational projects. Such projects are being recognized as new breed of projects that require special attention (Kalinina & Abebe, 2012; Söderlund, 2000). Coulombe (2015) defines adaptive leadership as 'the capacity of the project leader to embrace the project complexity while maintaining a multitude of stakeholders' motives and objectives in parallel' (p. 227). This describes the situation often found in in megaprojects and complex projects. Coulombe (2015) argues that stakeholder management in interorganizational projects would benefit from using adaptive leadership to enable collective innovation to co-create value.

Some work by researchers studying a psychological perspective of leadership may be relevant to the future of research into project leadership. Haslam et al. (2020) point out that much of leadership research focused on leaders and followers is based on their 'motives, needs and aspirations' (p. xvii). However, leadership also occurs in a social space making the social group important. They argue that social identity is important to consider when investigating leadership. If the parties in a leadership process reorient their focus on what 'unites them as group members' and 'that there is a basis for both leaders to lead and followers to follow' (p. xv), it can help to direct their energies towards a sense of direction and purpose. To do this, they suggest that four essential principles: (1) first, leaders must be seen as one of us; (2) next, they should be seen to do it for us; (3) then, they must craft a sense of us; and (4) finally, they must make us matter.

10.10 Conclusions

In this chapter, we have explored a variety of topics to give you an overview of leadership, its theories, and its relevance to projects and differences between management and leadership. We have also discussed how projects have started using newer leadership styles based on the context, illustrating research carried out recently on project leadership. We provided some guidance on competencies required of a leader as well as ways to develop yourself as a leader as it is becoming more and more important to be able to demonstrate management and leadership in projects depending on their context, nature and the point in a project life cycle. In summary, project managers need to know how to be both managers and leaders and use these skills appropriately to guide a project to success.

10.11 Summary

Traditionally, project managers were considered agent who managed a transaction for a project owner or client. But this has changed as projects have become more complex and need more attention to social and relational aspects. The leadership literature has many theories. What new leadership theories are relevant to different project contexts? While the project manager directs projects, he or she is also required enable people in the projects to perform. What competencies could help project managers to be leaders? These are some of the questions we try to answer in this chapter.

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Relationship Management

11

Learning Objectives
After reviewing this chapter, you will

- Understand the importance of managing relationships in projects
- Identify strategies to engage with internal, external, and peripheral stakeholders in projects
- Discuss the behavioural issues of conflicts and negotiations in projects including situations which require a knowledge of intercultural differences
- Evaluate appropriate influencing skills to deal with political influences on projects
- Appreciate the importance of psychological contracts in organizations and projects.

11.1 Introduction

'Uma is managing a software project to simulate a power station for operator training for Energy India for a new power station. Energy India want operators trained earlier on a computer-based control system being used in their new power station for the first time. The software has to simulate the operations of both the boiler and turbine used in the power station. Turbine Systems has been contracted to supply the turbine for the power station by Energy India. For the simulation of the software the characteristics of the turbine are required. When asked for details, Turbine Systems provides a model of the turbine to Energy India early in the project. Midway through developing the simulation software Turbine Systems convinces Energy India that the new model of the turbines is a better fit and more efficient. Uma's team has already built the software based on the older model of the turbine and the software needs a lot of additional work to simulate the new model.

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Management for Professionals, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-19-8206-4_11

When Uma requests Michael, the senior project manager in Energy India, for change order for the software he refuses to entertain her claim. He is a mechanical engineer and unable to validate the claim made by Uma as he does not understand the nature of software development and does not believe the number of extra hours in the claim. He also says that they gave the order to Systems India because they had built simulators before for power stations, and they should be able to make the changes more easily without charging so much for the change. Uma learns from Vasu her classmate working in Energy India that Michael has a reputation in Energy India for being able to control project costs within 10%. Uma's claim is nearly 50% additional cost. Michael is very senior in Energy India and Uma is not able to convince him despite a few meetings. Energy India is also an important customer of Systems India.

Meanwhile, Uma's manager Vasu is upset with her for the extra cost and questions her capability at management meetings. Uma is frustrated and consults with a senior project manager Chopra in Systems India who has been mentoring her. Chopra advises her that she will not be able to convince Michael as he is a very senior officer in Energy India. He advises her that this has to be escalated to the CEO of Systems India, Thapar, who often plays golf with Michael. Thapar is also responsible to maintain intercompany relationships between Energy India and Systems India. Uma is afraid Vasu will be angry if she approaches the CEO Thapar directly. Uma is wondering what she should do now.

If you were Uma, what will you do under these circumstances? Jot down your thoughts and review them after you finish reading this chapter.

11.2 What Is Relationship Management?

Relationship management is the 'management of interpersonal and inter-organizational relationships' (Smyth, 2014, p. 2). In a project context interpersonal relationship focuses mainly on how people in a project work together such as in project teams. Interorganizational relationship is about how people in the project work with people in other organizations who are also involved in the projects. They could be people from other units in the organization where the project is being carried out such as the functional organization as well as external organizations that have a relationship to the project such as clients, suppliers, and others who may have a stake in the project.

11.3 Stakeholders

It is also important to classify stakeholders of a project as internal, external, and peripheral to determine the extent and frequency of engagement based on stakes they hold. Figure 11.1 shows types of stakeholders.

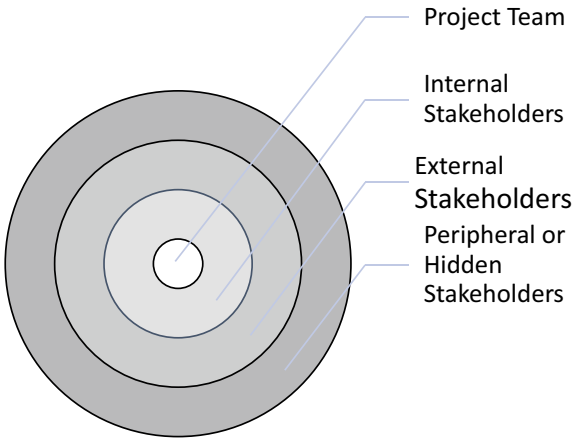

Fig. 11.1 Types of stakeholders

Stop and Think: Let us think for a moment about a project you are working on. Can you list the stakeholders? Who do you think are internal and who are external? Who are the peripheral stakeholders? Whom may you be missing?

One of the important aspects of managing projects is stakeholder engagement. Sometimes the term stakeholder management is used. We use engagement as you may not always be in a position to manage them. A stakeholder is anyone who has an influence (positive or negative) on the project. The engagement with different types of stakeholders is important to ensure that a project performs well and successfully. Sometimes stakeholders are not evident early in the project and may suddenly come into play and could affect the project. So being on the lookout for such stakeholders is important.

It is important to list the key stakeholders at the start of a project and update the list as the stakeholders and their importance may change over time. For example, regulatory authorities who grant permission to start work could be more important at the start of the project.

> One of the authors of this book was working in a construction project building a petrochemical complex in India in the outskirts of Mumbai. To get all the plants in the complex start commissioning activities after construction plant builders needed steam to be generated from the central boiler of the complex. The boiler could go into operation only if the boiler was certified to be safe and this needed a boiler inspector to drive down from Mumbai and inspect the boiler. On the day this inspection took place the boiler inspector was the most important stakeholder, and everyone was keen to look after his needs. If the boiler was not certified commissioning would be delayed costing the project crores of rupees.

An example of a typical list of stakeholders is given in Table 11.1. You may decide to place them in a different column based on the project context. The Project Management Office (PMO) could be located inside a major project and may turn out to be an internal stakeholder. Similarly, media may become a more important stakeholder in a metro project being built in a busy city.

Table 11.1 Stakeholder classification example

Internal	External	Peripheral
Project team	Sponsors Project management office (PMO) Project board/steering committee Programme manager Contractors/subcontractors Suppliers Labour unions Client/end users Functional organization and its departments	Government Regulatory authorities Financial institutions Media Insurance firms

To evaluate the interests of the stakeholders, it is often useful build this list with the project team and sponsor early in the project. A power versus interest matrix is often used to classify stakeholders and develop a strategy to engage with them.

Figure 11.2 shows a typical power-interest matrix that can be used to discuss the interests of the stakeholders and develop strategies to manage them (Adapted from Slabá, 2014).

For example, the following could be a classification in an infrastructure project:

Key Players: Customers, owners, project team, media, contractors, suppliers
Context setters: Government, banks, regulatory bodies, labour unions
Passive opposition: Environmental groups, interest groups, property owners
Passive apathy: Community groups not affected by the project.

However, this classification needs to be validated. So, questions to ask in a group session discussing power and interest of identified stakeholders are

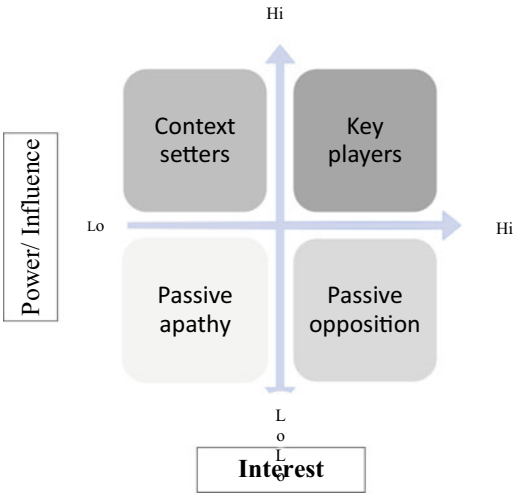

Fig. 11.2 Power-interest matrix. Adapted from Slabá (2014, p. 1371), Turner (2014, p. 172)

- How much confidence do we have in placing them in the quadrants of the matrix?
- What information do we now have that makes us confident?
- If our confident level is low, how do we get more information?

The power-interest matrix is not a one-off exercise as the power and interest may change during the project to change the strategy towards a particular stakeholder. Sometimes stakeholders who may be hidden at the start may become active during the project and their influence needs to be examined.

11.4 Engaging with Stakeholders

Turner (2014, p. 169) suggests a set of steps to plan and engage with stakeholders. We have already covered the first step—Identification: The next steps are

Develop a strategy for each stakeholder and communicate accordingly.
It is important to develop a stakeholder influence strategy that is monitored and kept up to date. Projects should also develop communication and reporting strategies for each stakeholder to determine the frequency and extent of communication with each stakeholder based on their current position in the power-interest matrix. Key players need to be managed closely. If key players happen to oppose the project, then strategies need to be put in place to reduce their influence on the project. Context setters need to be kept satisfied with periodic reports. People who exhibit passive apathy need to be monitored and informed only when asked to. Passive opposers need to be monitored as well as informed to keep them on side.

A point to remember is that engagement may stimulate opposition too, so some risk assessment is needed prior to commencing the project.

A process for stakeholder analysis in a change program proposed by Dick (2001) can be used in projects which are usually a vehicle for change.

Table 11.2 shows the tool (Dick, 2001, p. 73) that is available online.

The process suggested by Dick (2001) is

1. List stakeholders in column 1

Table 11.2 Shows the tool (Dick, 2001, p. 73) that is available online

Name of stakeholder	Orientation or interest	Confidence	Likely influence or power	Confidence	Actions
Government	+	??	M	??	• Set up meeting with government agency to identify interest • Consult with project board on likely influence

2. In column 2 record their orientation towards or interest in the project
   (a) ++ Strongly supportive
   (b) + Supportive
   (c) – Opposed
   (d) – Strongly opposed
3. In column 3 assess your confidence of your estimate in the previous column
   (a) 4 Confident (Scale of 1–5) (5 is very confident)
   (b) ? Some doubt
   (c) ?? Considerable doubt
   (d) ??? Wild guess
4. In column 4 assess the likely influence or power wielded by the stakeholder
   (a) High (Power to veto or stop project)
   (b) Medium
   (c) Low or none
5. In column 5 register your confidence of the estimate in the previous column
   (a) 4 Confident (Scale of 1–5)
   (b) ? Some doubt
   (c) ?? Considerable doubt
   (d) ??? Wild guess
6. Record actions to be taken to check your estimate or confirm your strategy.

The next step is to monitor stakeholder satisfaction.

If stakeholders are kept satisfied it can contribute towards a successful project. However, this may not always be the case. If it is found that stakeholders are not behaving as expected a change of strategy is needed. Sometimes stakeholder attitudes may also change during the project. For example, negative tweets in social media might be an indication that something is not right, and the media may become aggressive in reporting bad news that can stop the project. One way to manage this is to make regular announcements in the media to gain support for the project as a marketing and branding exercise is reported by from the Chennai Metro project in India (Ninan et al., 2019) where the social media was used strategically to create a positive message of the project despite its disruptions and negative feelings created by land acquisition.

Among the key stakeholders the relationship between a sponsor and the project manager and team is an important one. The sponsor has a dual role—most of the time external to the project but also sometimes internal to the project. Therefore, a brief discussion on the sponsor's role is warranted. A sponsor is often an internal salesperson of a project. If project sponsors are clear about the needs of a project, it makes it easier for a project manager and team to spend more time on executing the project rather than dealing with other stakeholders within the organization.

A sponsor often carries four types of roles (Bucero & Englund, 2015; Englund & Bucero, 2016; Trentim, 2015, Ch. 2.):

Salespersons: Getting approval for the business case from the organization, facilitating relationships with external stakeholders, and dealing with political issues that may impact on the project.
Governance: Ensuring that the project can deliver the benefits expected through monitoring of project results and suggesting changes when needed.
Taking care of the view of the business or organization: Ensuring projects are aligned to the strategic direction of the business, ensuring long-term benefits, appropriate resource allocation, and managing contingencies.
Leadership: Protecting the project from unnecessary interventions, setting boundaries within which project managers can take decisions.

Another important relationship is the good relationship between the project manager and his/her team which has been discussed in detail in Module 2 of this book.

So far, we have discussed ways to enrich relationship management with stakeholders that has been discussed widely in books on project management and articles.

We will leave you with some thoughts on where the ideas of stakeholder management and engagement in projects are now heading. Martina Huemann and Pernille Eskerod, who have been writing books about stakeholder management and conducting research on the topic have provided some insights into how stakeholder engagement is advancing (Eskerod & Jepsen, 2013).

Eskerod et al. (2015) suggest that while earlier work on stakeholder engagement has focused on identifying their interests and influence towards the goals of a project, recent thinking suggests that stakeholders should be considered using a broader viewpoint. This will help to develop a win–win attitude towards all stakeholders which has long-term implications for the project beyond its life cycle and its benefits/disbenefits to the society. Second, that current ways of stakeholder analysis tend to focus on securing resources for the project as well as to mitigate any opposition to the project to smoothen the way to complete the project. This dyadic view, they argue, could be limiting as some of the stakeholders may have interests that extend beyond this and some of them may have relationships with other stakeholders and could collude to the detriment of the project. Therefore, a network approach to stakeholder analysis beyond a dyadic approach is warranted, which requires systems thinking tools to consider interrelationships and behaviour over time (Videira et al., 2017).

11.5 Power Politics and Influence

Several researchers have pointed out to an authority gap of a project manager to gain resources for their projects (Hodgetts, 1968; Pinto, 2000). Other researchers have suggested that some project managers do possess expert power that can ease the way for them to overcome the authority gap (Singh, 2009). This leads us to a discussion on the impact of power, politics, and influence on relationship

management in projects. Pinto (2000) points out that project managers, who often have a technical perspective towards projects, have a reluctance to use power and influence in projects. He suggests that power and influence are required to manage projects successfully, especially in matrix organizations, where power rests with the functional mangers who have resources needed by a project. Therefore, it is important for project managers to have an appreciation of the impact of politics on projects. Pinto (2000, p. 876) advocates that project managers should 'cultivate other methods of influence' to overcome hurdles placed by power and politics on projects. Peled (2000, p. 27) explains that 'political skills refer to the manager's ability to use his/her interpersonal relationships with employees, colleagues, clients and supervisors'. One of the authors of this book played cricket in the client's team to gain an easier path to get work permits during a construction project in India in which he was a project team member.

What is influence? Keys and Case (1990, p. 38) define it as 'a process by which people successfully persuade others to follow their advice, suggestion, or order'. Influence can be exerted upwards, downwards and laterally—upwards to influence the sponsor or project board, downwards to persuade the project team, and sideways or laterally to influence the functional organization. All three influences will come in useful in projects.

One of the seminal works on managerial influence is by Kipnis et al. (1980) and has been used in project management research to find ways to get the right people assigned to projects (Sankaran et al., 2020). Kipnis et al. (1984) proposed seven ways to exert influence in organizations. Yukl and Falbe (1990) then added two more tactics to help with influencing.

Table 11.3 shows nine influence strategies that can be used in projects.

It has been found that people may not use the same strategy in every situation but choose the most effective one based on context and prior experience (Higgins et al., 2003). When project managers lack legitimate power or authority influencing tactics can be helpful to securing resources for the project.

Table 11.3 Influencing tactics used in organizations

Tactic	How to use
Reason	Use facts and data
Friendliness	Impress, praise/flatter and create goodwill
Coalition	Mobilize others to join you to add strength to your cause
Bargaining	Negotiate through exchanges and favours (you scratch my back…)
Assertiveness	Be direct and forceful to get your own way
Higher authority	Escalate to someone with more power
Sanctions	Through rewards and punishment
Inspirational appeal	Use emotions and ideals to raise enthusiasm
Consultation	Include others in joint decision-making on an issue

Adapted from Kipnis et al. (1984) and Yukl and Falbe (1990)

11.6 Creating Social Capital with Stakeholders

Huemann et al. (2016) suggest a rethink on stakeholder management/engagement by turning our attention to managing *for* stakeholders instead of managing *of* stakeholders to add economic, ecological, and social value from projects. They urge us to think of using stakeholders as a source of ideas and concrete value to deliver creative and innovative solutions for projects. Therefore, dealing with stakeholders with a value-creation perspective can help create social capital rather than erode it by managing stakeholders to deliver projects successfully with a longer-term perspective.

Working collaboratively with such stakeholders builds social capital and typically provides opportunities to co-create valuable inputs and improve the value of the project once it is used (Fuentes et al., 2019; Vargo & Lusch, 2004).

Maak (2007) argues that responsible leadership, discussed in Chap. 12 of this book, has the potential to create social capital and contribute to common good. Social capital is created 'through a network of relationships' (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998, p. 242) through social activities. Such capital is created in the social space of projects where relationship plays an important role. Maak (2007) suggests that responsible leaders use value networks to create social capital through a dialogue with stakeholders who may have different perspectives. Maak (2007, p. 331) adds that social capital from stakeholder relationships is established by brokering 'sustainable, mutual beneficial relationships with stakeholders, to create stakeholder goodwill and trust and ultimately a trusted business in society—that is one of multi-stakeholder benefit'.

Stop and Think: As the need for creating social value from projects is increasing, should project managers, sponsors and project teams think about stakeholder relationships differently with a view to creating social capital?

11.7 Dealing with Conflicts and Negotiations

There are several models available to effectively deal with conflicts and negotiations, some of which are based on commercial transactions. In this section, our focus will be mainly on psychological and intercultural aspects of conflicts and negotiations from an organizational behaviour point of view.

De Dreu and Gelfand (2008, pp. 4–5) point out that resolving conflicts in collaborative work (which is typical of situations in projects) is requiring increased attention due to four reasons:

1. Pressure to change, adapt and innovate arising from increased workload and role conflicts due to economic pressures faced by businesses
2. Diversity of organizations due to globalization and immigration resulting in improving ways in which diverse people can work together
3. Virtual ways of working that can create misunderstandings

4. Teamwork that undermines hierarchical relationships. This requires teams to self-manage increasing the possibility for conflicts to occur needing conflict resolution and negotiation skills.

All four trends are becoming important to project organizations as well.

Stop and Think What are the causes of conflicts in projects you have worked on?
Conflict management skills are important to address conflicts arising at individual, team, organizational, and national levels in projects. Some of the major sources of conflicts in projects are resource scarcity and differences in opinions and beliefs. Lack or inadequate communication can also exacerbate conflicts.

A commonly used model called Circle of Conflict (Moore, 2014, p. 110) points to eight sources of conflict:

1. History and relationships
2. Information
3. Procedures
4. Power and influence
5. Structural factors
6. Beliefs, attitudes and values
7. Communications
8. Emotions.

All these have the potential to create conflicts in projects and need to be considered while establishing a project culture, processes, and routines.

Table 11.4 shows some useful techniques proposed by Garden (2018) for strategies to resolve conflicts, which vary between different types of conflicts. This could be useful in considering a conflict resolution approach in projects.

Negotiation is closely related to conflict as it is a process often used to resolve conflicts. Therefore, the discussion regarding conflicts is also useful while considering negotiation or mediation. In this section, we will focus on negotiation from an intercultural perspective following up on our discussions on project culture in Chap. 9. Therefore, our discussions in Chap. 9 on cultural dimensions and orientations would be useful to recall at this point.

> One of the authors was present when negotiations were going on between a European organization and a Japanese organization in an IT project. A change was being proposed to the work done by the Japanese firm that had implications to the cost and duration of the project. The negotiation took place at the European firm's office. The European firm was represented by two members from the project – the project manager and the operator who was to use the system being supplied by the Japanese firm who initiated the change. The change affected several parts of the IT project on the Japanese side that included hardware, software and system integration. The Japanese team came to the meeting with a representative from each of the disciplines affected by the change, the project manager and a salesperson. The European firm explained the need for the change in English. The Japanese team listened carefully and then huddled together speaking in Japanese. They then used the whiteboard to draw aspects of the systems and each member the team expressed their opinion after which there was a

Table 11.4 People models to resolve conflicts

Name of model	Reference	Used for
Partner-Ally-Friend	Garden (2018, Chap. 2)	For conflicts arising between organizations Example: between organizations in projects with different attitudes to project mission versus maintaining relationships
Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)	Myers et al. (1998) Garden (2018, Chap. 3)	For conflicts within organizations Caused by structure Example: resource allocation between functional and project organizations
Inclusion-Control-Openness	Schutz (1984) Garden (2018, Chap. 4)	For conflicts in teams. The model can identify which of these dimensions is the biggest contributor to the conflict Example: teams of experts trying to pass the buck when problems arise without discussing openly all the facts at hand
Gestalt	Nevis (2001) Garden (2018, Chap. 5)	For interpersonal conflicts Conflicts arising from behavioural patterns with a focus on energy and awareness. Clashes that can occur in projects through different behaviours, for example, a main contractor using a waterfall approach and a subcontractor using an agile approach
Carl Jung	Jung (1971) Garden (2018, Chap. 6)	During an inner conflict Examines psychic space and explains irrational origins of a conflict Example: conflicts arising from personal ethical standards when corruption issues arise in projects
Life conflicts	Bandura (1977) Frankl (2000) Garden (2018, Chap. 7)	Constructive approach to addressing conflicts when an individual feels a sense of hopelessness or is dispirited. This situation can arise in projects during chaotic situations causing a lot of anxiety

Adapted from Garden (2018)

final round of discussions. Then the Japanese project manager came back to the table and addressed the European team and said 'Yes!'. The European project manager then asked: 'Do you accept the change?' The Japanese project manager replied apologetically: 'Yes, we understand what is required. We will get back to you. after consulting with our factory.' The author took the European project manager aside during a coffee break and asked: 'How did you know that the Yes did not mean a real Yes?' The project manager replied that he had spent several years on international projects and knew that it was not a confirmatory Yes, but the chances were that it could be accepted after a negotiation on price. He added that if the Japanese had said 'Maybe', he would have interpreted it as a 'No'. He pointed out that the Japanese think it is impolite to say No directly.

According to Adair and Brett (2004, p. 158), 'Culture affects the goals people have for negotiation, what they strive for in this interdependent social situation, and what they think is important'. People from Western cultures tend to be independent, have low context (meaning is in words and acts) and negotiate on distribution of resources while those from the East are more interdependent, have a high context (meaning is constructed in the context in which communication takes place) and believe in relationship building (p. 160).

Bazerman et al. (2000) report that in research on cross-cultural issues the most important cultural dimensions highlighted were individualism-collectivism, power-distance, communication context and conception of time, with individualism-collectivism being dominant. Bazerman et al. (2000) found that using cultural dimensions in negotiations is helpful in terms of predictability. They found that mental models are useful in negotiations across cultures. Bazerman et al. (2000) define a mental model in the context of negotiation as a 'cognitive representation of the expected negotiation' (p. 287), which includes 'understanding of the self, negotiator relationships, attributions about the other and perceptions about the knowledge of bargaining structure and process' (p. 287). They add that while the mental models held by the parties preparing for a negotiation may differ (and even be diametrically opposite), a shared mental model emerges during the negotiation as the two parties get to know each other better.

There are several excellent resources available on how to handle negotiations such as the book published by Fisher and Ury (2011), Ury (2015) and Lewicki et al. (2020).

We will elaborate on the work of Brett (2014), who has provided some practical advice on negotiating across cultural boundaries.

Stop and Think What preparation have you undertaken to prepare for a negotiation in your project?

Brett (2014, pp. 41–47) lists five building blocks to negotiation in general:

Parties: Identifying the parties whose goals are in conflict, requiring negotiations. In some cases, the negotiation could be carried out by a third party representing the parties.

Issues: Important to both parties including intangibles such as loss of reputation.

Position, Interests and Priorities: This requires an understanding of each other's positions on the issue, their interests and priorities.
Power: Determining the Best Alternative to a Negotiated Agreement (BATNA) that can help to optimize your gain. BATNA is a point where the negotiating parties decide to walk away.
Targets: Setting a reasonable target for yourself on what you want to get out of a negotiation.

Brett (2014, p. 83) provided some specific recommendations on dealing with intercultural issues. She points to two types of strategies that she calls '*question and answer* (Q&A) and *substantiation and offers* (S&O)', which are relevant in specific situations. Q&A involves seeking more information to find out interests and priorities to generate mutual value through negotiations. This can help in making a variety of offers. For Q&A to succeed time must be spent to build trust between parties.

Parties that use S&O are normally focused on creating value for themselves to try and secure concessions using influence and pressure tactics. In such situations, time need not be invested in building trust.

Therefore, the strategy to be used in negotiations depends on the level of trust and the expectation that trust can be built. The capacity to build trust is dependent on whether parties have different cultural beliefs—tight cultures have institutional controls that establishes clear norms and practices. Here trust tends to be institutional. In loose cultures there is more flexibility to be innovative and the trust is interpersonal. Building trust is difficult in tightly controlled situations, which makes S&O more useful. In situations where controls are loose there is time to use a Q&A approach.

Another difference to consider in intercultural situations is whether the parties in a negotiation possess an analytic or holistic mindset. People in holistic cultures tend to think broadly focusing on both the problem and the context in which it exists, while people in analytic cultures try to focus on goals and the underlying interests in the situation.

Brett (2014, p. 95) proposes a model that is useful in negotiations in intercultural situations, as shown in Fig. 11.3.

A word of caution. Following this model can get into a stereotyping mindset that has to be avoided. Remember that a shared mental model is likely to develop during a negotiation and this can result is changes in trust levels and mindsets.

11.8 Psychological Contract

An aspect of relationship in projects is the notion of the psychological contract and its impact on members of a project based on their perception of how leaders of the organization on whose behalf the project is being carried out expect them to behave. According to Agarwal et al., (2021, p. 250), a psychological contract is a 'person's perception regarding the reciprocal relationship that exists between an

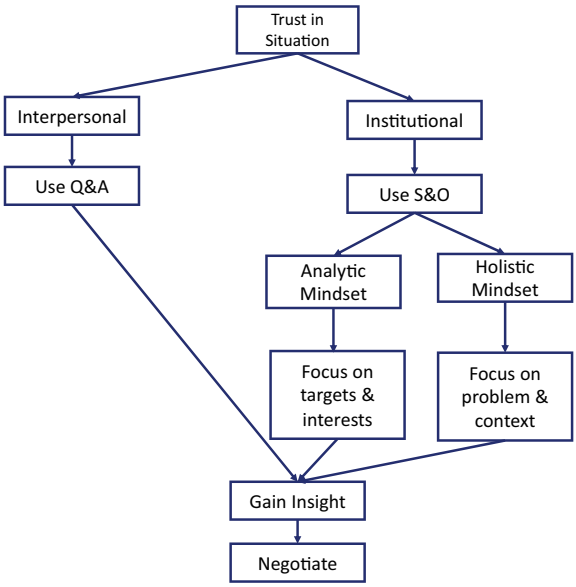

Fig. 11.3 Negotiation model for intercultural situations. Adapted from Brett (2018, p. 95)

employee and an organization'. Members of an organization feel that their organization has made some promises regarding what is expected of them, which is not written down in their formal contract of employment. These expectations are confirmed by observing the behaviours of senior managers of their organization. This influences on how they carry out their own work. If senior managers' espoused values match with their behaviour in practice, the employees believe that the psychological contract with their organization is fulfilled. A psychological contract breach occurs if there is a mismatch as perceived by the employee. The study by Agarwal et al. (2021) found that perceptions of psychological contract fulfilment or breach had an impact on the effectiveness of distributed leadership in projects carried out in organizations. While Agarawal et al.'s (2021) research was focused on the relationship between an organization and its projects, similar issues can occur between the project organization and its subcontractors where a breach of a psychological contract can result in conflicts and poor performance.

While project managers could manage certain relationships by themselves, they would need organizational support to manage relationships that are beyond their sphere of influence. For example, government influences may be difficult to manage in certain contexts and the sponsor or senior management involvement may be needed. In such situations project managers should be able to escalate the issue to get support. Systems and procedures should be made available in the organization that enable them to do so. Psychological support may also be required when relationship issues turns out to be difficult at the level of the project manager. Senior management should develop consistency across projects they have an interest in to give support when needed to help the project manager and the team to maintain and improve relationships.

11.9 Conclusions

This chapter covered a variety of topics that are impacted by relationship management in projects. The most important relationship discussed was relations between the project and its stakeholders. However, the other issues discussed can also be created by not managing the internal and external relationships well in projects. These are conflicts, negotiations, and the effect of psychological contracts. We have also covered new perspectives of stakeholder engagement that are emerging from project management research that have the potential to create social capital from projects by paying more attention to social value created from projects.

11.10 Summary

As they say no project is an island. It is not a closed system but open to the environment in which it is conducted. This means that when viewed as a system the relationships inside and with other outside need proper attention. The outside includes both the near environment which is the functional organization if the project is situated within a functional organization and immediate stakeholders who have power and influence on the project. The farther environment within which the project is taking place also needs good relationships especially in politically sensitive projects. Project managers often do not have power or authority to get resources by themselves but need the support of the sponsor and managers in other part of a functional organizations. This will require project managers to exert influence laterally. This chapter provides you some practical ideas to build good relationships to succeed.

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Ethics in Projects

12

Learning Objectives

- Understand ethical theories and perspectives
- Identify ethical issues that can arise in projects
- Appreciate ethical issues that can occur during interpersonal and intraorganizational dealings in projects
- Discuss the growing need for considering societal and ecological responsibilities of projects and ethical obligations they can give rise to
- Evaluate the relationship between stakeholder orientations and control forms in projects which can give rise to ethical issues
- Make use of appropriate tools to make ethical decisions in projects.

12.1 Introduction

'Uma is working for a contractor in a power station project for a new power plant. The project owner is, Energy India, a major power supplier in the country. Uma's organization ProjectConsult has good relationships with the project due to past relationships. Uma knows the design manager of Energy India Raghav and who has confidence in her work. In this contract, though, an overseas contractor Steam Gen is supplying the main boiler for the power station. Steam Gen has subcontracted part of the design work to ProjectConsult, and Uma is an engineering lead. Uma has been preparing drawings for the project that need to be approved promptly by the owner. However, the newly hired engineers for the project at Energy India are inexperienced and delay the approval of the drawings. Even when they are approved, the comments are very minor. This is holding up the design work that is upsetting Steam Gen who have many years of experience in supplying boiler to power stations around

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the world. They advise Uma to send only insignificant drawings first and hold back important drawings and submit them together just before drawing approval dates are reached. They can then put pressure on Energy India to approve them quickly to avoid delay to start works. Steam Gen's project manager Kim tells Uma that it is obvious that the engineers at Energy India are incapable of providing any worthwhile comments. Uma reports this to her department manager Vasu who advises her to follow the instructions of Kim as Uma's firm ProjectConsult is a subcontractor of Steam Gen. Uma feels unhappy about keeping Steam Gen in the dark. She is unsure if she should speak to Raghav at Energy India who she studied with at the university and knows him well.'

If you were Uma, what will you do? What are some ethical issues here? List them down to review your thoughts after reading this chapter.

12.2 What Is Ethics?

According to the Ethics Centre (https://ethics.org.au/), ethics comes into play whenever we make decisions about actions, we need to take in a situation that could have ethical implications. 'An assessment of what we know, what we assume and what we believe, helps us choose a course of action most consistent with what we think is good and right' (Ethics Centre 2016). What is good and right raises questions of our ethical perspectives that will take us back to consider our morality. Some definitions to help us to analyse and evaluate ethical decision-making are summarized in Table 12.1.

Table 12.1 Definitions of terms useful in ethical decision-making

Terms	Definition (Wernaart, 2021)	Reflect on your thinking in a negotiation context in your own project
Morality	'Someone's perception in what is right' (p. 17)	What are some things that matter most to you to get them right in a negotiation?
Norms	'A rule that contributes to the realization of value' (p. 17)	What are some norms that are important for you to follow in a negotiation?
Value	'Ultimate goal we seek to achieve by acting in compliance with a norm' (p. 20)	What would you normally consider as a goal in a negotiation where you aim to achieve value?
Virtue	'A certain characteristic that is required to successfully to comply with a norm' (p. 22)	What are some virtues that you are likely to adhere to in a negotiation?
Interest	'Combination of tangible and intangible things we use to comply with a norm' (p. 23)	What are some tangible and intangible outcomes you would expect out a negotiation?

Next, we discuss some theories in the context of business ethics as projects are often carried out in a business environment. We look at normative ethics to learn about these theories before discussing their forms in a project context (King & Lawley, 2016; Ethics Centre https://ethics.org.au/knowledge/ethics-explainers/).

Teleological ethics: In this view, the judgement to make an ethical decision is based on the consequences that could arise from that decision. An important point to consider in such situations is the cost vs benefit of a decision to determine whether it delivers more good than bad. This is also known as a utilitarian view in ethics. From a business point of view, this could result in making decisions to increase shareholder value. One problem with this view is—who decides what is good and bad? It is also based on the premise that the ends justify the means, which may not be always morally appropriate.
Deontological ethics: This is a view that advocates ethical decisions should be fair, honest and right, and should not be based on the circumstances or context. Decisions here are governed by expectations of human behaviour that everyone should follow. Decisions are expected to be made based on fairness and what is normally believed to be the right thing to do. While a deontological view provides consistency, it is viewed as inflexible.
Virtue ethics: Virtue ethics advocates decisions should not be based on ends but on the means (unlike teleological ethics) and on an individual's character rather than follow specific rules (unlike deontological ethics). The criticism about virtue ethics is that there is no universal acceptance of virtues and vices. Virtue ethics is associated with the Greek concept of *eudaimonia*, which is concerned with human flourishing and well-being.
Ethics of Care: This is a more recent consideration in ethical decision-making, driven by a feminist approach to ethics, where the emotions and compassion of decision makers is considered as important in making decisions. This is opposed to taking decisions purely on rational and logical application of rules. It also advocates considering the needs of specific others as opposed to 'general others'. It also advocates a caring and working environment by allocating resources between 'public' and 'private' spheres. As an example, in 'caring society' resources are prioritized to areas such as social care and education over finance or defence.

12.3 Ethical Considerations in Projects

Kvalnes (2017, pp. 286–287) discusses ethical orientations in projects that link to the theories discussed previously in this chapter. He lists three orientations.

Process orientation based on deontology, using 'rules, maxims, norms and principles' (p. 286) to govern conduct. An example in projects this could be to say 'no' to corruption or bribery.

Table 12.2 Questions to ask while making decisions

Aspect of decision-making	Question to ask
Law	Is it legal? (e.g., bribery)
Identity	Is it in accordance with our values? (e.g., sustainability)
Morality	Is it right? (e.g., to pay less wages to migrants)
Reputation	Does it affect our goodwill? (e.g., poor performance)
Economy	Is it in accordance with business objectives? (e.g., bidding low to secure a project with a view to recovering costs through change orders)
Ethics	Can it be justified? (e.g., taking a decision to cut costs that will have an effect on the quality of work)

Adapted from Kvalnes (2017, p. 288)

Outcome orientation based on utilitarianism or consequences. In a project situation, this could influence our decision based on our views towards how it might affect stakeholders.

Character orientation based on virtues like 'honesty, integrity and courage' (p. 287). An example of this in projects could be honest reporting of project progress to stakeholders.

According to Kvalnes (2017), process and outcome orientations could both result in consistent decision-making based on the principle of equality to define acceptable and unacceptable behaviours. He also proposes a tool called navigation wheel, which can guide ethical decision by asking relevant questions as given in Table 12.2.

A study conducted by Müller et al. (2013) on ethical issues most commonly found in projects revealed that 97% of the project managers surveyed had experienced ethical issues related to transparency, optimization, and relationship in at least one of the projects they had worked on.

One of the authors of this book was working on a project as an automation engineer for a contractor to an oil refinery in a remote corner of India. He was responsible for installing and commissioning a sophisticated piece of equipment which needed a technician with special skills who were rare in that part of the country. Being unfamiliar with the local conditions the engineer went to the manager of the department in the refinery, Asha, to seek her help to locate a suitable technician. Asha recommended Saha. Saha was found to be very experienced, and the engineer was able to assemble, and test-run the equipment with Saha's help. Saha was paid a fee for his services. When the time came to hand over the equipment to the refinery, the engineer requested Asha to send a representative from the end user to test it. The day of the inspection arrived and an inspector wearing the uniform of a refinery worker came to the site. The engineer was surprised to see that the inspector was the same Saha, who had helped him work on the equipment earlier. He then realised that Saha was making extra money on the side. The engineer felt that this was an unethical practice and went to Asha to discuss his feelings. Asha said that she recommended Saha as it was not possible to get such a high-level technician on contract in that part of India. She added that she did not herself gain any financial benefit. However, she wanted to ensure that

a qualified technician did the work as they had to maintain the equipment once the project was completed, and the equipment handed over to the refinery. She also said that it was only fair to compensate Saha for his extra work. The engineer went to his manager, Vaidya, and explained the situation. Vaidya said that there was nothing that could be done now and raising it to the supervisors of Asha would adversely affect the relationship between the project organization and the end user and this was not good for stakeholder relationship. He instructed the engineer to forget about the incident and get the handover done.

Stop and Think: Which theory or orientation was Asha using to justify her decision ethically? What was the orientation of the engineer's manager? Which of the three categories does this issue relate to—transparency, optimization, or relationship?

In their later work, Müller and Kvalnes (2017, pp. 184–185) categorized ethical issues into seven categories commonly found in projects:

Transparency Issues: These occurred when a project manager did not report project performance accurately as they felt it might affect their continued employment in the project.
Optimization Issues: Making decisions with a view to getting the best outcome for the project organization versus best value for the customer.
Relationship Issues: Inappropriate relationships between parties leading to favouritism when awarding contracts.
Power and political issues: Instances where stakeholders forced the project organization to remove capable team members in the project whom they did not like or favour.
Illegal actions: Accepting bribes or using project funds for personal purposes like travel expenses.
Role conflict issues: Enforcing work practices that go against the values of team members such as religious beliefs or local cultural beliefs.
Governance issues: Lack of quality assurance processes or inadequate monitoring of progress.

Stop and Think: Can you think of other issues that could cause ethical problems in decision-making in projects from your own experience?

12.4 Ethical Decision-Making

We now look at the implications of ethical decision-making during a project, by applying an ethical decision-making model to a scenario (Loo, 2002, p. 494) described next.

Vignette for the execution phase (adapted from Loo, 2002*, p. 494):*

Table 12.3 Ethical decision-making model

Analysis	Evaluation
Identify the moral question in this scenario	
Who are likely to be involved in such a decision? What could be the morality or viewpoints of the actors in the situation? (List what you think they are. Assume actors in projects for the sake of this exercise.)	
What are the possible alternatives to take? List down a few options	
	Evaluate the options by asking these questions: For whom do I feel responsible in making this decision and to what extent? What normative ethics is applicable in this situation considering all the actors? Write down the decision

Adapted from Wernaart (2021, p. 100)

> About half-way through a major project, a project manager becomes anxious about the schedule because the project has been falling behind schedule for some-time and a formal project review with the client is set for four weeks from today. The project manager discusses the situation with several senior members of the project team and there is much heated discussion.

Imagine that you are working in the project that faced the problem described above. How would you apply the following decision-making model? Assume who might be the actors in such a situation? We will now use an ethical decision-making model proposed by Wernaart (2021) to the scenario (Table 12.3).

We discussed conflict and negotiation in Chap. 11. Let us look at some ethical issues that might arise in these situations causing interpersonal or intrapersonal issues in a project to guide your decisions. Tillet (1999, pp. 200–201) lists some ethical dilemmas that could arise in a conflict situation, some of which could arise in projects too.

1. Expectations of the parties regarding the process to be used needs to be clarified prior to the resolution including what 'will, or ought to or might happen' (p. 200) and 'what is likely, and not likely to be achieved' (p. 100). Otherwise, the conflict could become worse (p. 200).
2. If a mediator is involved in resolving a conflict, their extent of involvement needs to be defined. Should they only facilitate the discussion or provide direction? Should the mediator provide direction when the parties want it? Normally a mediator does not provide a decision or direction and his/her role will become that of an arbitrator if a decision is required to be made (p. 200).

3. If a mediator is involved, he/she should be seen as acting neutrally and non-judgementally but while also caring about what the outcome will be and trying to resolve it effectively considering his/her own prejudices (p. 201).
4. It is important to ensure that both process and outcome needs are fair and that the process is 'manifestly, fair, just and equitable even if it does not finally resolve the conflict' (p. 201).

A negotiation process also creates ethical dilemmas, which are discussed by Thompson (2012). These can often be tricky as negotiating to protect a business's interests is legitimate. You should also be wary of local laws and regulations that guide negotiations as they can differ based on location:

1. Lying can be deemed unethical or even illegal if it is taken to court later if a misrepresentation that could cause damage or harm to the other party is made knowingly. Lying can occur while stating your position to take advantage of the other party. While this could happen, it is 'wise to signal your position' (p. 189) for the law does not prevent you from having your business interests at heart. If you find that the other party is acting in bad faith, it is best to walk away from the negotiation (pp. 189–190)
2. Ethical issues could occur in setting priorities and preferences. While you are entitled to your preferences during a negotiation, a misrepresentation could occur that should be avoided. A negotiator could make a passive misrepresentation by making the other party arrive at an erroneous conclusion by not revealing their true preferences. This can be construed as an active misrepresentation if there is a deliberate attempt to mislead the other party (p. 190)
3. A BATNA (Best Alternative To a Negotiated Agreement) is subject to litigation if it is used to bluff or make a false threat that the negotiator does not intend to take or follow through (p. 190)
4. A negotiator may also set aside a reserve price. They may lie about the reserve price, but it is not good practice when it could be deemed unethical (p. 190).

It is also important to know about local laws and practices so that you do not end up in court. You should also take values, norms, and beliefs into consideration in these situations.

Stop and Think: What are some explicit or implicit values, norms, and beliefs governing conflict resolution and negotiations in projects that you have worked on? An ethical stance in projects is also affected by intercultural differences although certain codes like 'cause no harm' are universally applicable. We will discuss ethical codes later in this chapter.

Remember Trompenaars whose work on culture we discussed in the Chap. 9. Trompenaars (2018) demonstrates a dilemma that he uses to illustrate out how people from different cultures may behave differently in the same circumstances based on their on their cultural orientation.

Table 12.4 Ethics across cultures

The story goes as follows: You are riding in a car driven by a close friend in a suburb in your city. S/he hits a pedestrian who darts across the road. You are aware that s/he is driving at 60 km/h where the traffic sign said 40 km/h. It is a bit dark in the evening and there is no one around. You drive off from the scene, but your friend is worried, and you both decide to consult a lawyer. The lawyer advises that if you state, under oath, that your friend was driving under the speed limit, say, at 20 km/h, your friend will not have to face serious charges
What right does your friend have to expect you to protect him/her: 1. My friend has every right to expect me to protect him/her by testifying that s/he was driving at a lower speed 2. My friend has some right to expect me to testify to the lower speed 3. My friend has no right to expect me to testify to the lower speed
What do you think you will do as a sworn witness and under the obligation to your friend? 4. Testify that s/he was driving at 20 km/h 5. Not testify that s/he was driving at 20 km/h

Adapted from Trompenaars (2018, p. 395)

The dilemma he uses is an exercise developed by Stouffer and Toby (1951) at his workshops to demonstrate how different cultures respond to a hypothetical situation. The situation is in the form of the story given in Table 12.4.

Stop and Think: What is likely to be your answer? Do you think it will vary with the cultural background of the person giving the answer?
The research by Trompenaars found that North Americans and most North Europeans had a universalist approach and 75% would state that the obligation to help the friend decreases proportionally with the damage caused by the accident. This reduces to less than 75% for French and Japanese, while two-thirds of the respondents from Venezuela would be prepared to lie to protect their friend.

In one of their workshops a participant spoke up and said that they could not answer the question unless they knew the condition of the pedestrian. It was found that their answer could change if the pedestrian was seriously injured or died. This shows how decisions may differ based on what Trompenaars calls as an anchor or starting point.

Stop and Think: Let us think that this story is about a friend of yours whom you observed was taking bribes to benefit a project you were working on. What will you do if this happened in a location that follows laws strictly as opposed to a location where such things are common practice to get the job done to complete a project?

12.5 Societal and Ecological Responsibilities in Projects

Work done by Karen Thompson and Nigel Williams on responsible project management (RPM) has highlighted the need for ethical responsibilities towards

society and the environment. Darren Dalcher (in Thompson & Williams, 2019), referring to the Hippocratic Oath taken by medical practitioners, suggests that 'project managers can no longer proclaim the end of their responsibility at a presumed handover point… we now need a new way of making sense of our long-term obligations, responsibility and actions' (p. 4). The aim of RPM 'is to nurture and enhance natural, human and economic resources to deliver value without preference to stakeholders representing environmental, social and financial interests' (p. 20). What they mean is that value should not be influenced by specific stakeholder interests. While our responsibility as project managers is to deliver business outcomes, it is also becoming an ethical and moral requirement to deliver societal and ecological outcomes. Williams and Thompson suggest 10 principles to guide RPM (p. 21) as given in Table 12.5.

Stop and Think: What are some ethical implications if these principles become the expectations you must fulfil in your project?

Maltzman and Shirley (2013) suggest that project managers often do not see themselves as agents of change. Therefore, they need to see the big picture and see their connection to the 'foundational aspect of sustainability, the Triple Bottom Line, people, planet and profits' (p. 927). One of the debates in project management is the lack of attention being paid by projects to deliver benefits which often accrue after a project is handed over. Keeys and Huemann (2017) suggest that 'benefit realization helps to understand how SD [sustainable development] can be integrated in the management of projects' (p. 1196). They point out that the 'continual meeting of human needs in balance with nature' (p. 1197) is based on

Table 12.5 Principles of responsible project management (RPM)

Principle	Explanation
Purpose	Identify and understand the purposes underpinning projects from different perspectives
Awareness	Raise awareness of possible impacts and consequences of projects
Engagement	Engage with a wide range of stakeholders and promote common interests
Curiosity	Be curious, uncover, and address ethical complexity, conflict, and unintended outcomes
Uncertainty	Recognise uncertainties and encourage clarity and sharing of new knowledge
Anticipation	Anticipate changes, evaluate options, and promote informed decision-making
Creativity	Understand needs for creativity and innovations: make space for imagination
Transparency	Foster transparency and sharing of visions, thoughts, and feelings among stakeholders
Stewardship	Encourage stewardship of human and environmental resources and ethical considerations
Balance	Seek balance between the needs of people, planet, and profit; short, medium, and long term

Adapted from Thompson and Williams (2019, p. 21)

a stakeholder approach towards sustainability that supports an ethical perspective. Their study shows that 'applying a co-creation of benefits approach to projects can focus projects on the longer-term outcome of project activities which is the space occupied by the holistic integrated economic, environmental and social dimensions of SD' (p. 1211). They do foresee difficulties in implementing such an approach in every project but as we pointed out, in Chap. 9 on Relationship Management, the view of stakeholders in projects is changing and benefit realisation through a co-creation approach with stakeholders is likely to happen. If we did that, we will also be contributing to an ethical perspective, which is considered important in delivering projects that pay due care to society and the environment.

Stop and Think: Do you believe that it is an ethical responsibility of project teams to take steps to ensure that expected benefits will be derived from a project they are executing?

12.6 Forms of Control in Projects

Projects may enforce different forms of control on project team members based on their orientation towards stakeholders. We will now discuss the implications of these forms of control for ethical decision-making. In a previous section of this chapter, we reported research carried out by Müller et al. (2013) on the interrelationship between ethics, trust, and governance. The researchers then classified the type of ethical issues they found based on the orientation towards stakeholders and forms of control used in projects. Table 12.6 illustrates this comparison.

From these findings, it can be seen that shareholder orientation and behaviour control have nearly the same transparency issues (25%) and optimization (28%) issues, whereas if outcome control is accompanied by a stakeholder orientation, the optimization issues (39%) are a majority compared to transparency issues (11%). Shareholder orientation with behaviour control produces an imbalance of transparency issues (50%) and optimization issues (18%). If the orientation changes towards stakeholder orientation, the balance is altered slightly but transparency issues (42%) dominate over optimization issues (24%). In subsequent analysis of results from their research they found that shareholder orientation causes more

Table 12.6 Types of ethical issues under different governance paradigms

Governance paradigm	Ethical issues	Governance paradigm	Ethical issues
Shareholder orientation/outcome control	Optimization (28%) Transparency (25%)	Stakeholder orientation/outcome control	Optimization (39%) Transparency (11%)
Shareholder orientation/behaviour control	Optimization (18%) Transparency (50%)	Stakeholder orientation/behaviour control	Optimization (24%) Transparency (42%)

Adapted from Müller and Kvalnes (2017)

relationship issues while stakeholder issues pave the way for project success. Behaviour control under shareholder orientation leads to more transparency issues while outcome control under stakeholder orientation leads to more optimization issues.

The research shows that different orientations towards stakeholders and control forms lead to different types of ethical issues. Muller and Kvalnes (2017 p. 187) conclude that 'the control dimension of governance influences, or is influenced by, the most frequent and most several ethical issues in projects which are transparency and optimization'. Therefore, we need to understand these relationships and provide safeguards to minimize ethical issues from occurring. This can be done through proper training and setting up ethical codes and practices. We have already used vignettes in this chapter to enable you to debate ethical issues. Vignettes and scenarios are often used to resolve ethical dilemmas (Müller & Kvalnes, 2017). This is considered one of the best ways to train project team members. We discuss the use of codes and standard next.

12.7 Standards and Practices

One way to manage ethical issues is to set clear standards and encourage some practices in projects to prevent ethical issues. This can be done internally through employment contracts, induction or hiring people who are governed by professional ethical codes expecting that they would be aware of non-ethical practices.

Professional associations you belong to often have ethical codes: The Project Management Institute's Code of Ethics and Professional Conduct expects members of the Institute to behave, make decisions, and manage projects according to a set of ethical values: responsibility, respect, fairness, and honesty.

Wagner (2019) states that 'recent developments are driving the need for project managers to understand up front whether a product or service delivered by each project will be ethical, what consequences can be anticipated should the product or service fail, and how the service provider would address a situation of inappropriate usage of the product or interruption of service' https://www.projectmanagement.com/articles/577958/ethical-project-management. This looks like a challenge to meet as we work inside a project and are unable to see what happens after it is handed over, but it would be good to reflect on this with the ethical perspectives we have learnt in this chapter.

Stop and Think: Can you find an ethics code or code of conduct you have to adhere to when you are working on your project? What principles of ethics that you have learnt in this chapter are applicable to your project?

We leave you with something to think about on ethical decision-making to revise our discussions in this chapter.

To achieve project and organization goals or act in accordance with norms or organizational culture, individuals might be placed in a position that compromise

professional ethics codes in practices. And this is more likely to happen in a project environment that involves multidisciplines. How does this relate to cultural issues and decision-making issues discussed earlier in this book?

The Makkula Centre for Applied Ethics has provided a framework for ethical decision-making using six lenses https://www.scu.edu/ethics/ethics-resources/a-framework-for-ethical-decision-making/:

The rights lens: Actions that protect the moral right of those affected by the decision.
The justice lens: Deciding towards fair and equal treatment.
The utilitarian lens: Does the action provide the best balance of good over harm for as many stakeholders as possible?
The common good lens: Taking into consideration welfare of everyone in the community.
The virtue lens: To check if the action is consistent with your character at its best?
The care ethics lens: Is it in the interests of each stakeholder from the perspective of care, kindness, compassion, and generosity?
Question: *Which ethical viewpoint or theory do each of these lenses represent?*

12.8 Conclusions

In this chapter, we have tried to provide some ideas based on ethical theories and research for you to become aware of ethical issues in projects and how to manage them. We have also pointed out typical ethical issues that can arise in projects so that you will be able to recognize them when they occur. We have tried to use vignettes and examples to help you with improving your ethical decision-making. We have also made some suggestions on how to think about encouraging practices to be adopted in projects to minimise ethical issues. As societal and ecological responsibilities of project managers and teams start impacting on projects, ethical issues are likely to increase and need to be managed well.

12.9 Summary

As good citizens of the world, we need to follow ethical and moral principles ort lead our lives. How do we do that while working in a project? How do ethical principles influence our behavior within our project or when we are partners in projects with other parties who may have beliefs not aligned to ours. How do we make ethical decisions when issue arise when we have to make judgements that have ethical implications. How does the movement towards sustainable development our decision making that is socially and ecologically responsible. What are we accountable for beside what out organizations holds us to be responsible. The

tools and strategies in this chapter discuss philosophical and practical issues about project ethics.

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